

**AN INVESTIGATION INTO THE
STRATEGIC COMPETENCE OF ARAB
LEARNERS OF ENGLISH AT JORDANIAN
UNIVERSITIES**

GHALEB AHMED RABABAH

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Abstract

This thesis is a qualitative study of the strategic competence of Arab English majors at Yarmouk University in Jordan. Its aim is to fill the gap found in communication strategy (CS) research, which has at present little relevance to the Jordanian situation. Its main aim is to determine which communication strategies (CSs) are used by English majors while communicating in L1 Arabic and L2 English. Furthermore, since meaning is very important in language teaching, it aims to examine whether the messages transmitted by the learners are successful and comprehensible or not. This will increase our knowledge of how and by means of which strategies Arab English majors overcome their communication problems, and which strategies they use in communicating in their native language. The subjects of the study are 30 English majors at Yarmouk University, a typical Jordanian university, put into three proficiency levels according to an adapted TOEFL test. The sample represents a full range of English majors' ability at the English Department of the same university. Their ages range from 19-23.

The data collected are based on their performance in three communicative tasks especially designed for the study. They represent typical CLT classroom tasks. The subjects' communication strategies were identified from features of their performance such as hesitation, pauses and repeats, and classified according to the adopted taxonomy which is based on previous CS taxonomies and the pilot study. For the sake of reliability, three independent judges were asked to check the researcher's taxonomy of CSs and his classification of the CSs used by the subjects into the different categories. The researcher and two English colleagues assessed message transmission success on the basis of whether the transmitted messages were comprehensible or not. Then the CSs found in the data were analysed and discussed.

The main finding of the research is that English majors make wide use of CSs. These strategies are mostly L2- English based strategies. Another finding is that in spite of their limited linguistic knowledge, English majors manage to communicate their intended meaning by making use of CSs. It is also found that the learners' use of CSs is related to their proficiency level, in that L1-Arabic based strategies decrease as proficiency improves. One of the most interesting additional findings is the effect of the mother tongue/Arabic which increases the variety of strategy use. For example, literal translation and word coinage are widely influenced by mother tongue interference. It is found that Arabic speakers use many communication strategies when compared with speakers of other languages in CS research. The subjects' use of CSs is also related to the type of task they are performing. Finally, Arab learners use CSs in their native language, but when compared to the CSs used in their target language, these are fewer in terms of frequency and vary in terms of type.

Pedagogical implications and recommendations for further research are presented in light of the findings.

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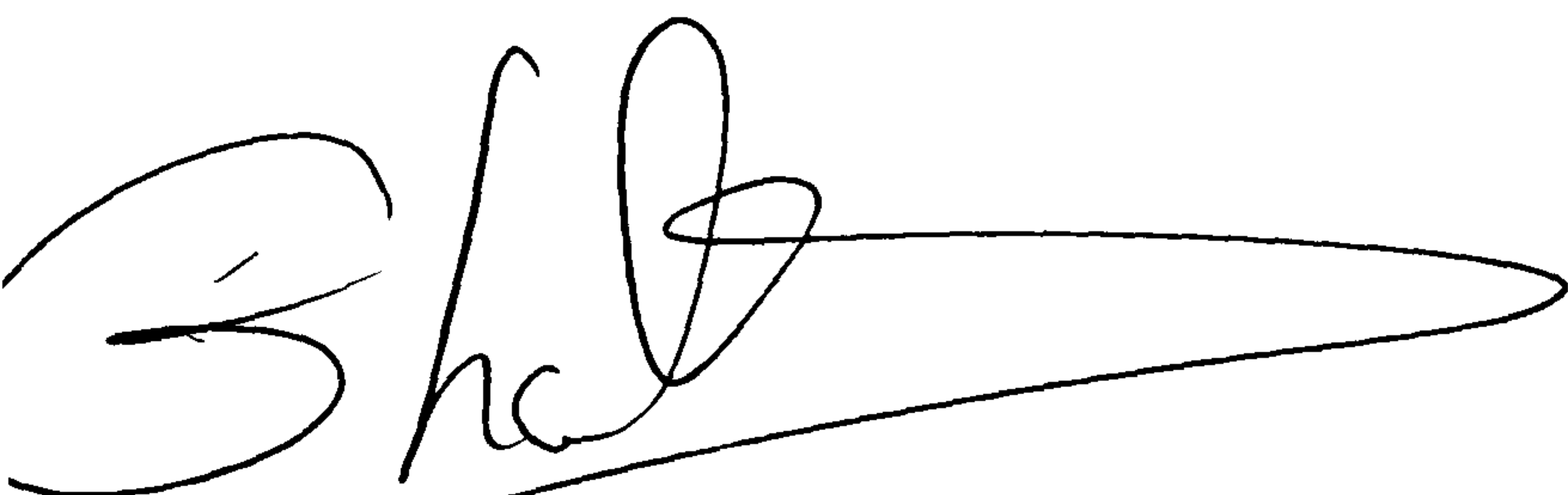
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University of Newcastle

Department of Education

I certify that, to the best of my knowledge, all the material in this thesis represents my own work and that no material is included which has been submitted for any other award or qualification.

Signed:

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to be 'S. Hall', written over a horizontal line.

Date: November 21, 2001

Chapter One

Introduction

1. 1 Statement of the Problem

Language learners often use communication strategies ('CSs' henceforth) to cope with the problems they encounter while attempting to speak a foreign or a second language. They attempt to solve communication problems when they lack adequate competence in the target language. When faced with such problems, they may try to avoid particular language or grammatical items; paraphrase when they do not have the appropriate form or construction; ask the interlocutor for the correct form; use gestures to convey meaning; insert a word or a phrase from their first language; apply L2 morphology and/or phonology to L1 lexical items; translate literally, or they may use word coinage which produces items that do not exist in the target language to achieve their communicative goals. This phenomenon exists even in first languages. Sometimes there are words that we do not know in our native language, so we try to convey the meaning to the listener by means of paraphrase, description and gesture (verbal and non-verbal CSs). For example, when I want to buy some spare parts for my car, I usually know what I want, but the exact word or expression in my native language (Arabic) is lacking, so I use its shape, size, function, where it is fixed, etc. to describe it and make myself comprehensible to the shopkeeper. Then the shopkeeper says "Aha! you want this part! Here you are." As a result of negotiating meaning with the shopkeeper, I get the exact word. If I then need this spare part again at a later date, I will go to the shop and ask for it using the correct expression without resorting to any communication strategy.

With L2 (English), the problem is greater, and the use of some CSs may also lead to learning. Once I wanted to sell my furniture and a Filipino lady rang me. The following conversation took place:

The Speaker : You have an ad in the newspaper regarding the household items for sale.

The Author: Yes. How can I help you?

The Speaker: Do you have a shoe rack?

The Author : Pardon? (The author could not make out ‘shoe rack’ as a result of the speaker’s pronunciation, which was not clear.)

The Speaker : The place where you keep shoes.

The Author : No , I don’t.

The Speaker : OK. Thank you.

The Author : You’re welcome.

In the above conversation, both the author and the caller used communication strategies. The author initiated repair when he said ‘pardon’ because he did not catch the caller’s word. On the other hand, the caller resorted to a CS to repair the problem and make her message comprehensible. Maybe she used a communication strategy because she thought that the author did not know the meaning of “shoe-rack”. This conversation can be seen as an example of the negotiation of meaning, and use of CSs, which can lead to learning. Suppose that I did not know what the words “shoe-rack” meant, then at the end of the conversation I would have been able to add the new words added to my competence. This is an example of when negotiation of meaning can take place through direct exposure to the target language in real-life situations, as opposed to the classroom, which might not be an ideal environment for acquiring a foreign language.

To be able to communicate effectively in the target language, learners should acquire the four components of communicative competence, i.e., grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence and strategic competence. They should also be able to express and interpret ideas and opinions, negotiate meaning and sustain conversations in the target language. Further, to enable learners to produce

more elaborate and native-like utterances, they should be exposed to a wide variety of performative expressions besides grammatical constructions. They should acquire the target language by using it rather than solely by studying about it (Abbad, 1988:49). For learners to use the language more successfully, they should also be involved in activities that approximate real-life.

It has been pointed out that native speakers also employ communication strategies (Kellerman, 1991, Yule and Tarone, 1990). Some studies (Ellis, 1984; Bongaerts and Poulisse, 1989) have shown that native language speakers use communication strategies less than foreign or second language learners. This is due to the fact that native speakers normally have all the four types of communicative competence identified by Savignon (1983) and Canale (1983): grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence and strategic competence. But foreign or second language learners may lack one or more of these competencies. Sometimes a vocabulary item is lacking; sometimes a grammatical item is lacking. This explains why foreign or second language learners use communication strategies more. They always want to overcome the language difficulties they encounter, so they try to communicate by using their limited linguistic resources, which lead them to employ communication strategies.

The researcher's experience as a teacher of English as a foreign language in schools and as an instructor in different educational institutions leads him to believe that English language graduates in Jordan, where Arabic is the native language, find difficulties in using English for communication. When engaged in authentic communicative situations, they often lack some of the vocabulary or language items they need to get their meaning across. As a result, they cannot keep the interaction going for an extended period of time.

The researcher thinks that there may be several reasons for this problem. First, in order for language learners to use the language more successfully, they should be involved in real-life situations. But unfortunately, in Jordan English is used only as an academic subject, when it is taught in a school or at the university. Without practice, English or any other language cannot be acquired. English Language Department graduates do not have enough practice in English; they use Arabic most of the time even after becoming English language teachers. They only use English when they encounter a situation where they are obliged to use English as a medium of communication and, to tell the truth, this hardly ever happens. We may therefore come to the conclusion that most of those graduates' speaking time is in Arabic. Practice is very important for mastering any language. Halliday et al. (1984) suggest that:

“Oralmastery depends on practising and repeating the patterns produced by a native speaker of the foreign language. It is the most economical way of thoroughly learning a language.... When one has such a control of the essentials of a language, he can almost automatically produce the usual patterns of that language” (1984: 16).

This shows the importance of using the target language in language teaching. Teachers in Jordan use Arabic to teach difficult words and to explain English literature. This was indeed a feature of my teaching experience in Jordan, as I was at one time a schoolteacher. Vocabulary items are still taught in isolation, though the Communicative Language Teaching approach stresses the importance of teaching vocabulary items in context. Listening materials are not used by the majority of schoolteachers, which is most probably because of the limited number of cassette recorders and the large number of teachers at the same school. Therefore, teachers try to read dialogues to their students, and this does not provide the learners with the necessary native speaker model. This also demotivates the learners and makes them bored. Dialogues are designed to be read by two or three partners, not by the teacher alone, who would read role A and role B with the same voice and intonation. This is

probably due to the effect of the audio-lingual method, which was used in Jordan until the early eighties. Teachers were taught by this method. Teacher-training programmes, I may say, were unsuccessful in helping the teachers to change their methodology. The adopted methodology is claimed to be eclectic and focuses on communicative approaches to language teaching, but because of teachers' practices in the classroom it is more likely a grammar translation method.

Another reason for this problem might be the curriculum in schools, especially that of the secondary stage, which lacks dialogues that help in developing the students' communicative ability. The curriculum of the secondary stage is designed in a rigid way where writing and reading skills are over-emphasised (For details see section 3.9.3). The curriculum of the English Departments might also be a reason for this, as pointed out by many researchers, e.g. Zughoul, 1983. For more details see section 2.1.4.

Literal translation from Arabic into English might be another reason for the English major graduates' weakness in oral communication. Most of these graduates may produce incorrect forms or structures when they try to speak due to their tendency to translate their ideas literally from their native language into English, since Arabic forms and structures are different.

Furthermore, about one-third of the Bachelor degree courses are taught in Arabic, especially in the Faculty of Arts and Education. These courses include Islamic Studies, Arabic, Social Studies, History, Computer Science and Education. The researcher thinks that the remainder of the course may not be enough to help those graduates communicate freely and effectively in the target language. They are thus likely to face some difficulties in their performance. The researcher suggests that it would be better and helpful if such courses were taught in English rather than in Arabic. Halliday et, al., when discussing ways of learning a foreign language, say:

“In Nigeria, English is used in almost all the teaching in high schools. This has two important results. In the first place, the quantity of classroom experience that each pupil receives is much greater outside the English lesson than within it. Some people have said that if the English language lessons were removed entirely from the schools in Nigeria, little or no effect would be noticed on the ability of the pupils in English when they came to leave schools. But, in the second place, the children are influenced by class teachers other than those who are trained in English. If those teachers’ English is not very good, the pupils will suffer. Teaching in a language is an excellent way of teaching a language, but all those who teach subjects in the foreign language need to be able to perform well in it themselves.”
(Halliday et al., 1984:18)

If this is the case in high schools, it would be even more advisable to use English in teaching all the courses at university level. The researcher is therefore of the opinion that all university courses except Arabic language courses should be taught in English, which would certainly improve the university students’ linguistic ability, which would, in turn, improve their communicative competence.

A long time ago, the English Language Department at Yarmouk University used to bring over American groups in the summer to teach two English language courses. They used to teach ‘English Pronunciation’ and ‘Stress and Intonation’ in which students attended tutorials all day long. It was called “The English Village”. Most of the students’ speaking-time was in English since they were exposed to the target language as presented by its native speakers. That was a very helpful experience for English major graduates. Unfortunately, the English Department is no longer interested in doing this. In addition, currently about 94% of the professors in the English Language Department are native speakers of Arabic. Only two professors at the time when the data were collected were Americans out of a total of 32 staff

members. This means that the students might not have enough exposure to the target language as spoken by its native speakers, especially with respect to stress and intonation.

1.2 Interest in the study of communication strategies

The points mentioned above in section 1.1 may explain the heavy use of CSs which has resulted from the general weakness of English majors in the universities of Jordan in oral production. It was this situation that awakened my interest in studying the strategic competence of the English Language Department students, and in finding out how they deal with the problems they encounter, so that some pedagogical implications and recommendations may be put forward.

Research into communication strategies has made an important contribution to L2 acquisition, and 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 strategy, such as reduction strategies and appeal for help.

However, previous research into communication strategies has limited relevance to the Jordanian situation for the following reasons. First, most of the research which has been done has focused on the use of CSs by English language learners whose main concern when learning English is to help them in pursuing their higher studies in an

English-speaking country, or when English is a compulsory school subject as in Jordan. English majors have not been used as the subjects of any study conducted on Arab learners of English. Second, Arabic speakers are under-represented in CS research. Very few studies have investigated the CSs used by native Arabic speakers speaking English. Furthermore, no CS research has investigated the CSs used by Arabic speakers in their native language.

This piece of research explores the following research gap. The main contribution of this study is first and foremost that it investigates the strategic competence of Arabic-speaking English majors, living in an Arabic – speaking country, in both target and native languages. This increases our knowledge of which CSs are used by English majors taught by Arabic native speakers in an Arabic-speaking country, and more specifically by learners who have never been to an English-speaking country.

Second, it is rare that CS studies have described in detail the educational context where communication takes place. What they have done so far is to provide a small amount of information about the sample, their age and nationality. This does not give a clear picture of the educational context and will not make good sense of the results that one derived from the analysis. My approach attempts to improve on previous research on CSs in terms of contextualisation. This study will, therefore, adopt a qualitative paradigm that tries to analyse the strategic behaviour within a particular educational context by means of quantitative methods to see how communication takes place.

Third, this is the first study, as shown by the extensive literature review, that has tried to determine the communication strategies used by English majors in the Arab world, where English is taught in an Arabic-speaking country, and where English is rarely used in real-life situations. Some studies, e.g. Khanji (1996), Al - Samawi (1995) and Aliweh (1989), have investigated the effect of English language proficiency on the use of CSs by Arab learners of English, but none of them was concerned with studying the

comprehensibility of the messages transmitted while communicating in the target language. For details see section 5.4. Furthermore, most of the CS research conducted on Arabs was concerned with CSs used by English language learners, but not by English majors.

Very few studies have investigated the strategic behaviour of native speakers of Arabic when using the target language, i.e. English. The subjects of previous research which investigated the Arabs' use of CSs were English language learners who had lived for some time in an English-speaking country, except Khanji (1996), which investigated the CSs used by English language learners at the University of Jordan. The results of this study have thus increased our knowledge of how Arabs use communication strategies to solve their communication problems while communicating in the target language. They tell us which strategies are used, how they are used and why they are used. Having obtained such knowledge, we may be able to help our learners to be conscious of the strategies they are using so that they can communicate more effectively.

My interest in the study of communication strategies also arose from my professional involvement in the teaching and learning of English as a foreign language at schools and universities. It seemed to me that English language majors were under-represented in CS research as subjects of research, though they are interesting to study. During my teaching experience at different educational institutions in different countries such as Jordan, Oman and the UAE, I noticed that English majors and even newly-appointed English language teachers at schools make use of communication strategies while communicating in English. With regard to previous research in the literature review, only Khanji (1996) has investigated the effect of language proficiency on the use of CSs at the University of Jordan, but his subjects were not English majors. This study has therefore increased our knowledge of how English majors solve their communication problems.

Fourth, the vast majority of research conducted in the Arab world, and more specifically in Jordan, has investigated linguistic errors committed by language learners in writing, while very few studies have investigated linguistic errors in their oral production; it was also directed towards school learners rather than English majors who might one day become English language teachers, and who could therefore be a source of the same problem to the future generation of language learners. The use of communication strategies is considered to be a source of learners' errors. The question is "why are most of the studies conducted in Jordan directed towards finding, categorising and analysing errors?" Instead, there should be a thorough and extensive study of one of the sources of these errors, namely, communication strategies. This thesis presents such a study.

• In contrast to previous studies, in this piece of research the subjects were asked to perform everyday CLT classroom tasks. None of the previous studies has ever tried to do this, though they did use communicative tasks. Some of the tasks used in previous research were designed deliberately to elicit CSs, e.g. describe abstract shapes or unfamiliar objects, or define abstract nouns, which should not be part of a CLT curriculum.

In addition, although a few previous studies attempted to pilot the tasks used to collect the data, piloting was **not** done to ensure the reliability and validity of the tasks used. In this study, the aim was to examine the quality of the tasks and procedures used in collecting the data. Some tasks were dropped and others were modified. For further details see 6.6.2.

Previous research has mostly tended to focus mainly on the study of CSs, which are considered here to be just one part of strategic competence. According to Tarone and Yule (1989), strategic competence refers to both the ability to use CSs and the transmission of successful and comprehensible messages. Passing a comprehensible

message to the listener has been the focus of the majority of pedagogical models of communication. According to CLT, meaning is more important than form because language is a means of communication. One of the curriculum objectives of both secondary schools and universities in Jordan, is that learners should be able to communicate effectively in the target language. Many researchers think that this aim has not been achieved yet due to the high school graduates' English background and the curriculum. As shown by the literature review, few studies have investigated message transmission and comprehension (e.g. Green, 1995). None of these studies was conducted on Arabs to see whether the case is the same for Arabic speakers as it is for speakers of other languages. This led me to investigate the communication strategy phenomenon which is a by-product of communication and to determine whether the messages transmitted by the English majors in performing the three communicative tasks were comprehensible or not. Having obtained such knowledge, I was then able to examine the effect of CSs on message comprehensibility.

Finally, a search of the literature has found no research studies which have tried to investigate the communication strategies used by Arabic speakers in their native language. This study has opened doors to new research areas in the Arabic language. This piece of research has therefore also increased our knowledge of which CSs Arabs use while communicating in their native language.

The study seeks to fill this research gap by studying the strategic behaviour of English language majors performing everyday communicative classroom tasks. This aim is set out in detail in Chapter Six together with the research questions of the study, and the data collection and data analysis procedures.

It is also hoped that this research will be able to make a contribution helpful to foreign language learners and teachers in classrooms.

1.3 Thesis organisation

This thesis is presented in eight chapters of which this introduction is the first. In Chapter Two, the general background to education in the Arab world, and to the teaching and learning English context in Jordan is discussed, along with the problems of Arab learners of English in general and the problems specific to English department students.

The nature of communication and methods of language teaching are presented in Chapter Three. First, the nature of communication is discussed and related to different pedagogical models of communication. Then CLT is discussed and related to the English language curriculum in Jordan. Finally, theories and models of second language acquisition such as Mentalism, Interlanguage, Bialystok's model, and Krashen's Monitor Hypothesis are presented and discussed in relation to the main concern of this study.

The literature relevant to this study is presented in two chapters. In Chapter Four, there is a brief historical overview of CS research, definitions of CSs, data elicitation methods and identification procedures used in previous CS research are reviewed. Then taxonomies of CSs are reviewed and problems with these taxonomies and their classification of CSs are discussed.

Chapter Five presents the CS studies conducted so far. This chapter is presented in seven sections. An overview of CS empirical research is presented first. Then, we review the literature that has investigated the effect of language proficiency and type of task on the use of CSs. This is followed by a review of studies that have investigated the effect of personality factors on the choice of CSs. In the fourth section, we examine the literature concerning studies conducted on Arab learners of English in order to examine their use of CSs. The next section reviews the literature relating to studies conducted to investigate the CSs used in L1 and L2. The literature

investigating the possibility of teaching CSs is reviewed in section six. Finally, the research gap is found, and various ways of filling this gap are presented and discussed.

In Chapter Six, research questions, methods and steps of data collection, the principles of task design, the critique of previous CS research and data analysis procedures are presented in detail.

The results of the study are presented in Chapter Seven. The results of the analysis of the strategic performance of the subjects are presented in different parts reflecting the focus of the analysis. First, the frequencies of communication strategies according to the taxonomy adopted are presented and analysed. Message comprehensibility, task effect and the effect of proficiency level on CS choice are also presented and analysed. In the final section of this chapter, CSs used in the subjects' native language are presented, analysed and compared to those used in their L2 performance.

In Chapter Eight, the results of the study are discussed in relation to the research questions that guided the research. Then, our research findings are discussed and compared with those of previous research reviewed in the literature. This chapter concludes with recommendations for further research and pedagogical implications for the classroom.

Chapter Two

General Background

2. 1 Education in the Arab World

2.1. 1 English in the Arab World

English was first introduced into the Arab world during the British mandate at the end of the 19th century and the beginning of the 20th century in Jordan, Egypt, Iraq, Kuwait and Sudan. English is taught in these countries as a foreign language.

As a result of technological and industrial developments and the discovery of oil, teaching English has become a major concern for the Arab world. Perren (1968:7), when talking about the Middle East and the Arab world, states: “there has been recent economic growth, English has an importance. It is needed for higher education”.

English is still the medium of instruction at university level, especially in the colleges of science, medicine and engineering despite the fact that some attempts have been made to Arabicise the curricula, e.g. in Sudan and Syria, but in Jordan no such attempts have been made.

In the Arab world, English is considered as a major skill needed for further study or for future careers. Lambert et al. (1968) mention that students are instrumentally motivated to acquire English as a means of attaining instrumental goals: furthering a career, reading technical material, translation and so forth.

The educational system in the Arab world is differs from one country to another. For example, in some Arab countries, such as Jordan and Iraq, English is taught as a school subject in the fifth grade of the elementary stage and is continued to the preparatory and secondary stages. For the academic year 2000/2001, English was introduced as a school subject from grade one at government schools in Jordan. In the

United Arab Emirates, in 1994, English was introduced as a school subject in grade one of elementary school. In other countries, e.g., Egypt, Syria, Libya, Yemen, Saudi Arabia and Algeria, English is taught at the beginning of grade seven, the first year of the preparatory stage and continues to the secondary Stage. In Oman, English starts at grade four of the elementary stage and continues to the secondary stage.

In most of the private schools in the Arab countries, English is taught as a second language from grade one or even from kindergarten, like the native language - Arabic. Some private schools try to teach all the school subjects in English; others teach them in Arabic, but with a little more emphasis on English language by using different course books from those used at government schools.

2.1.2 General problems of Arab learners of English

Arab learners of English encounter problems in both speaking and writing. This fact has been clearly stated by many researchers, e.g. Abdul Haq (1982), Harrison, Prator and Tucker (1975), Zughoul (1984), Abbad (1988) and Wahba (1998).

In Jordan, for example, there are specific goals in the teaching of English at the secondary stage. Among these, students should be able to “write English passages that are grammatically correct, properly punctuated and effectively organized” and “acquire the linguistic skills and techniques needed for advanced work at post-secondary levels” (English Curriculum: Secondary Stage, 1971:9 -10). Accordingly, all Jordanian secondary school graduates are expected to “develop native-like facility in English which will enable them to communicate spontaneously, effectively and confidently... about a broad range of topics” (Harrison, Prator and Tucker, 1975:3).

Many studies have been conducted in Jordan to investigate lexical, syntactical and phonological errors committed by Jordanian school learners of English (e.g., Abdul Haq, 1982; Zughoul, 1984).

Abdul Haq (1982: 1) states that “One of the linguistic areas in which students in the secondary cycle commit errors is in the writing skill”. He adds “There are general outcries about the continuous deterioration of the standards of English proficiency of students among school teachers, university instructors and all who are concerned with English language teaching”.

In support of Abdul Haq’s view, Zughoul (1984:4) found that “Jordanian EFL students commit serious lexical errors while communicating in English”. The results of the studies conducted in Jordan led to the conclusion that the goals set by the Ministry of Education were ambitious and had not yet been achieved.

In Sudan, Kambal (1980) analysed errors in three types of free compositions written by first-year Sudanese University students. The study gives an account of the major syntactic errors in the verb phrase and the noun phrase in an attempt to improve the quality of the remedial English programme in the context of Arabisation in Sudan.

He reported on three main types of error in the verb phrase: verb formation, tense, and subject-verb agreement. Kambal discussed errors in tense under five categories: tense sequence, tense substitution, tense marker, deletion, and confusion of perfect tenses. With regard to subject-verb agreement, three types of error were identified. These involved the third-person singular marker used redundantly, and the incorrect form of the verb to be. Kambal argued that these kinds of error were primarily caused by intralingual rather than interlingual factors.

Egyptian learners of English also face problems. Some of these problems are summarised by Wahbeh (1998:36):

Egyptian students face certain problems related to pronunciation. Some of these problems are related to stress, others are related to intonation. However, most of

these problems can be attributed to the differences in pronunciation between English and Arabic.

The differences between English and Arabic in terms of sentence structure lead many Arab learners of English to produce or write sentences starting with the verb, such as "went the boy to school", for the English sentence "The boy went to school". In Arabic we say : "*Thahab Al – Walado Ela Al – Madrasati*". *Thahaba* is the verb and *Al walado* is the subject. This therefore creates problems for Arab learners of English.

The use of relative clauses is another difference. In English we say "The man married the woman whom he met ", but in Arabic we say " *AL - Rajulu Tazzawaj AL - Maraata AL - Lati Qabalaha* ". The last two letters '*ha*' in the last word "*Qabalaha*", which means "met" indicate to the object case in Arabic. This makes Arab learners of English produce English sentences like "The man married the woman he met her". 'Her' is used here as a literal translation of the object case of "*ha*" that refers to a female.

In predicative sentences, there is also a difference, in that in English we have the insertion of the verb "to be", whereas in Arabic we do not. This leads Arab learners of English to produce sentences without the verb "to be" like "The boy clever", without the use of "is", instead of "The boy is clever".

Another area of difficulty that Arab learners of English have is communication. Arab learners find it difficult to communicate freely in the target language. This may be due to the methods of language teaching and the learning environment, which may be said to be inconvenient for learning a foreign language. This fact is very noticeable in Jordan because the formal language of communication is Arabic. It is true that in the Gulf, the formal language is Arabic, but in daily-life situations, people use English when they go shopping for example, because it is a multinational society.

In Yemen, the situation is even worse because children start learning English in grade 7 (first preparatory class). Abbad (1988:15) admits the weakness of Yemen Arab learners of English: “in spite of the low proficiency level in English of most applicants, they are accepted into the department”.

This is what happens in most of the universities in Third World countries. English language departments accept high school graduates without taking into consideration their proficiency level and whether or not they will be able to manage.

2.1.3 Objectives of teaching English in the English departments in the Arab World.

The objectives of these departments in the Arab world are outlined by Zughoul (1987:230), and then they may well apply to any Third World (TW) country such as Jordan.

1. The major objective of the English department in the Arab world is to graduate “competent” English specialists, i.e. people who have acquired a native-like “competence” in English. If the word “competent” needs to be specified in more specific, operational terms, it means that the graduate:
 - a. can understand standard English as spoken by natives and non-natives in a variety of contexts and in different situations, and be able to recognize some major dialectal variations, emotional overtones, levels of discourse, sound patterns, and grammatical sequences.
 - b. can express himself fluently in spoken English with comprehensible accuracy in phonology and close to native accuracy in syntax in different contexts and different situations.
 - c. can, at a reasonable speed, derive meaning from written English with ease and accuracy in different contexts.
 - d. can express himself fluently in writing using English idiomatic expressions that show mastery of the major syntactic structures of the language as well as the fine semantic distinctions expressed by frequent lexical and syntactic patterns of the language.
 - e. can, with ease and accuracy, translate messages and discourse in different contexts from

- his native language into English and *vice versa*.
- f. has gained an insight into the present day target culture, which manifests then an understanding of the native speakers' modes of thinking and of their sociocultural patterns in the context of contrast to his own native culture.
 - g. has acquired the necessary linguistic and technical skills to carry out research.
2. Contribute to better international understanding and to the promotion of cultural exchange by familiarizing the student with another culture.
 3. Collaborate with other programs in the university to provide an all-around education to the student. Teaching English literature or literature written in English in the student's native language is a particular example of this kind of collaboration.
 4. Service the particular English language needs of other departments, colleges, and faculties in the university by continually surveying these needs and by writing, developing, evaluating, and teaching programs tailored to these needs. To be more specific, the objective here is to implement the international trend in language teaching, which is teaching Language for Special Purposes (LSP).
 5. The research needs of English as a language or as literature are well taken care of by scholars in the English-speaking countries, but English as a foreign language taught under these sociocultural conditions is not well researched. It should be the responsibility of the English department to direct its graduate programs to the more applied fields of English linguistics and English as a foreign language.

Many researchers argue that these objectives have not been achieved due to the unsatisfactory English language proficiency level with which English majors leave the university. These graduates can rarely communicate freely and with ease in real-life situations. If it happens that they do actually communicate, they often encounter

linguistic problems which lead them to use CSs in order to solve their communication problems and to achieve their communicative goals. But it is not always possible for them to pass on a comprehensible message, as we will see in this study.

2.1.4 Problems Specific to Arab University English Departments

There have been a lot of complaints made about the weakness of school graduates in English who join the universities as English language majors and English language learners in general. Several articles have addressed this issue and several studies have been conducted for the purpose of highlighting this problem. As a result of the seriousness of the problem, *The First Conference on the Problems of Teaching English Language and Literature at Arab Universities* was held in the University of Jordan/Amman. Many papers were presented at the conference. The most important articles that tackled the students' problems were those of Suleiman (1983) and Mukattash (1983).

The weakness of English language learners in general, and English language department graduates more specifically, has been attributed to three factors: lack of knowledge on the part of school graduates when they join the university, English language department curriculum, teaching methodology and the learners' motivation (Suleiman,1983; Mukattash,1983; Zughoul, 1983, 1987; Ibrahim,1983).

An important article presented at *The First Conference on the Problems of Teaching English language and Literature at Arab Universities* was that of Mukattash (1983). Mukattash (1983) divided the problems that Arab learners of English face into two types. First, university students continue to make some basic and irritating errors in pronunciation, spelling, morphology and syntax. Secondly, they cannot express themselves "comfortably and efficiently either when dealing with 'academic topics' or 'common everyday topics' (1983:169). He argues that the students' major difficulty arises from the fact that they cannot use English correctly and appropriately either in the classroom or outside it when they are required to do so. This means that the

difficulty is related to the students' deficiencies in communicative competence and self-expression. He also attributed the students' failure in using English as a tool of self expression to achieve their communicative goals to the study plans and methods of teaching (1983:169).

Suleiman (1983) argues that the continuing dissatisfaction with the performance of Arab students in English courses suggests a lack of fundamental standards in curriculum design, testing and oral communication skills, the development of productive skills, teaching / learning strategies at university level, etc.

Zughoul (1983) examined the curricula of a number of English departments at Arab universities (the University of Baghdad, Iraq; Damascus, Syria; Kuwait, Kuwait; Yarmouk, Jordan; Amman, Jordan) and at two American universities in the Middle East, and concluded that the curricula of these departments (with the exception of the American University of Beirut) were heavily dominated by the literature component. He adds that "the study of English literature does not only dominate the syllabus of the English department, but also shapes the syllabus of the secondary schools" (1983:222).

According to Zughoul, in English language and literature "the other two components of the syllabus – namely, language and linguistics – show a lack of balance in the curriculum, where the language component in particular stands out as the weakest" (1987:223). The language component typically includes two courses in communication skills and a course in writing.

Zughoul claims "Rarely does a department in a TW country offer solid language training, i.e. training in reading comprehension, listening comprehension, term paper writing, or speech. In fact, the curriculum assumes that the incoming student is proficient in the language and that he does not need any further language training. This, indeed, is a very unrealistic assumption" (1987: 223)

Ibrahim (1983:25), supporting Zughoul's claim (1983), states that the literature component at the University of Jordan, for example, represents some sixty five percent of the English department curriculum. While Zughoul (1983,1987) and Ibrahim (1983) argue that one of the main reasons for the English language department graduates' weakness is the domination of literature courses over English language courses, John (1986:18) maintains that "any English language program aiming to produce competent English specialists must be characterized by a preponderance of literature courses over language / linguistic courses". John adds that "it should be obvious that a program of studies dominated by linguistics is likely to suffer from a great many shortcomings that would render it incapable of producing graduates who are reasonably competent as users of English" (ibid:21).

If we look at the curriculum of the BA in Education (English Language Field Teacher), we see that this curriculum aims to develop language skills such as reading, listening comprehension, writing, vocabulary, grammar, etc. Although a lot of language training is done here, there is a feeling of discontent regarding the proficiency level of English Language and Literature and English Language Field Teacher graduates among English specialists at the university. There seems to be a need for an investigation into which graduates are better at using English for communication: English Language and Literature graduates or English Language Field Teacher graduates. When the use of CSs is less in a particular group's performance, it is an indication of their better communicative performance. Such an investigation would reveal which curriculum is better at improving the learners' communicative competence: language training in the Faculty of Education, or English language and literature in the English Department.

On the other hand, the lack of knowledge on the part of the incoming English majors have could be another reason for this phenomenon. Suleiman (1983:128) claims that

the school graduates lack the knowledge, which might help them to communicate. Basing his arguments on his observations and his personal experience, he claims that the transition from an introductory level, i.e. school, to a more advanced level, i.e. the university, is “as difficult as passing from the lack of knowledge to an introductory level”.

Zughoul (1987:224) supports Suleiman’s point of view when he questions the competence of the incoming students: “In fact, it can be safely generalized that the linguistic competence of the incoming student and, for that matter, even the graduate from a TW university, does not enable him to make sense of a literary piece, let alone appreciate it”.

Suleiman (1983:129) argues that the most noticeable problems which impede the progress of Arab students at university level may be attributed to the “inadequate mastery of the four language skills; namely listening, speaking, reading and writing”. This supports Zughoul’s claim (1987) that English language departments should offer solid language training.

Suleiman (ibid) adds that the major problem faced by students who attend the university is that they find it difficult to communicate in the target language. According to Suleiman, mother tongue interference is not the only factor responsible, but also a lot more may be attributed to the teaching/learning process as a whole.

Zughoul (1987) argues that “well-documented research evidence on the competence of the English major is scanty, but examples of general impressionistic evaluation are available in a variety of references.” Zughoul (1985) reported the results of the proficiency testing of the graduates of the English department at Yarmouk University, Jordan, where the standards were judged to compare forwardly with those of the rest of the Arab universities. The average equated mean score of the three groups of graduates (168 students) who took the Michigan Test of English Language Proficiency

(MTELP) was 67.75 (individual scores were 68.22, 69.02, and 66.02), which is interpreted in the manual of the test as “not proficient enough to take any academic work.” This average mean score indicates that just a few of our graduates would qualify for admission into the freshmen program of an English language university” (Zughoul, 1987:224).

In evaluating the English competence of the graduates of the University of Jordan, Ibrahim (1983:23) found that most faculty members are not totally happy with the quality of English with which the graduates leave. In fact, these faculty members are often embarrassed when asked by the principal of a private school or a business manager to recommend one of the graduates. Ibrahim states that on one occasion, “in all honesty I could not recommend any of our graduates for that year”.

The results of the TOEFL test administered to English majors (160 students) at Yarmouk University in this study support these claims, as the individual scores ranged from 26% to 72 %. When compared to TOEFL test standards, the top score was 510. The average mean score was 59.32. This average mean score indicates the low proficiency level of English majors.

Motivation also plays an important part in improving and developing the learners' communicative ability. Attitudinal studies conducted on Arab students, such as those of Zughoul and Taminian, 1984, Salih, 1980 and Harrison et al., 1975, have consistently shown that Arab students are instrumentally motivated to learn English and that they are well aware of the utility of knowing English (Zughoul, 1987:225). This means that the main stimulus for learning English is instrumental, i.e. to achieve a goal, e.g. a career. It is true that some learners are integratively motivated, but they are in a minority. According to Seedhouse (1996b:69), those with integrative motivation have a genuine interest in “the target speech community” which the learner is “aspiring to become a member of”. But I do not think that there are many English majors who desire to be part of an English-speaking community. It might be true that a

few of them have such desire, but the majority of English majors join the English language department because it will be easier for them to get a job with a BA in English than in any other specialisation.

To conclude, Arab learners face many problems in all the language skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing. The great number of erroneous utterances that Arab learners of English produce in both written and oral performance and their recourse to communication strategies, as will be clearly shown in this study, is an indication of how serious the problem is. It is also an indication that the objectives of the English departments in the Arab world, and more specifically in Jordan, have not yet been achieved, and that this situation requires a solution.

2.1. 5 Educational Background in Jordan.

Since the National Conference on Education Development, the school educational system in Jordan consists of two stages, namely:

- The basic compulsory stage, lasting for 10 years.
- The secondary stage, lasting for 2 years only. This level includes both academic and vocational education.

Before 1987, which was considered a turning point in the development of education in Jordan, the school educational system consisted of three stages:

- Elementary, lasting for 6 years.
- Preparatory, lasting for 3 years.

Secondary, lasting for 3 years. In the last year of the secondary stage, promotion to university level is based on a national examination called Tawjihi (High School Certificate), after which students with high scores can compete to be admitted to a public university.

Many public universities and colleges have been providing higher education in Jordan for more than twenty years. But in 1993, a decision was taken by the Ministry of Higher Education to give licences to private universities. Since then, more than 15 private universities have been licensed and have started offering different degree courses. These universities, public and private, comprise a number of faculties having several departments. These faculties include arts, agriculture, medicine, engineering, pharmacy, law, education and economics. In the faculties of science, engineering, pharmacy, agriculture and medicine of both public and private universities, English is the medium of instruction. Public universities provide undergraduate and postgraduate programmes, whereas private universities provide undergraduate programmes only. But, a new private university has been established recently and it has started offering PhD degree programmes in different fields of study.

2.1. 5.1 The English Language in Jordan

Arabic, the official language in Jordan, is the medium of instruction in all public schools. However, English is the main foreign language in the country because of its function as an international language. It is used in all business transactions between Jordanians and non-Arabic speakers, particularly in financial institutions with international contacts.

The Jordanian TV Channel 3, which shows films, news and documentaries in French, Hebrew and English, starts transmission after 6 p.m. All the films shown are subtitled into Arabic, so viewers are attracted by the translation rather than by the spoken language. Not many family members like watching Western movies either because they do not understand English or because they have something better to watch on the Arabic Channel. Furthermore, not every region is able to pick up transmission of this channel, especially those villages which are far a way from the city. Normally, people have one TV set at home, so all the family members sit together to watch TV programmes and the majority will vote for watching either Arabic concert or any

other Arabic programmes. It may therefore be very difficult for any student majoring in English to be exposed to the target language other than in the classroom.

In public schools, the medium of instruction is Arabic, and English is taught as a compulsory school subject from grade five to grade twelve, whereas in most of the private schools the medium of instruction is English at all levels. However, these schools account for only a small percentage of the total school population. The subjects of this study had studied English for eight years, with an average of five 45-minute periods a week, before joining the university. In 2000/2001, schoolchildren started to learn English at public schools at grade one.

This study is concerned with English majors learning English as a foreign language. The students learn English in their native country, Jordan, where the native language is Arabic. The only way to learn English in Jordan is through formal instruction, i.e. inside the classroom where the language teachers at school are native speakers of Arabic. There is little opportunity to learn English through natural interaction in the target language. This is only possible when students encounter native speakers of English who come to the country as tourists, and this rarely happens.

English is not used in daily situations. Arabic is the language used everywhere. The situation is different in the United Arab Emirates, for example, where people use English in their daily lives because of the multilingual nature of the residents. It is thus more difficult for Jordanian learners of English to communicate in the target language in real life situations.

2.1.5.2 Universities in Jordan

There are six public universities in Jordan and more than 15 private ones. The public universities are The University of Jordan, Yarmouk University, Mu'tah University, The University of Science and Technology, Al – Al Beit University and The Hashemite University.

Yarmouk University, which was taken as an example of a typical Jordanian university in which to conduct this piece of research, was established in 1975, and classes started on October 9, 1976. It offers BA, BSc and Master degrees in all its faculties. A PhD degree programme is only offered in the Arabic Language Department. This programme was started at the Department of Arabic Language and Literature at the beginning of the academic year 1994/1995. None of the other university departments or faculties offer PhD degree programmes. The university awards the Bachelors and Masters degrees in all its faculties except the Faculty of Physical Education and the Hajawi Faculty of Applied Engineering, which awards only Bachelors degrees. The total number of enrolled students amounts to 18,000, taught by about 750 faculty members.

The maximum duration of study to obtain the Bachelors degree is 7 years. The minimum passing grade is 50% and the minimum failing grade is 35 %.

Two English degrees are awarded at Yarmouk University: the Bachelor degree in Education/ English Language Field Teacher and the BA in English Language and Literature. The following courses must be taken by English Language Field Teachers: Introduction to English Grammar, Phonetics, Listening Comprehension, Oral Skills, Intermediate Reading, Vocabulary Development, Intermediate Writing, Advanced Grammar and Usage, Advanced Reading, Reading Literature and Literary Criticism, Morphology and Syntax, Contrastive Linguistics, Introduction to Linguistics, Advanced Writing, Applied Linguistics, The Short Story, Functional Grammar, Classroom Interaction, The Novel, Semantics, Pronunciation and Expression, Discourse Analysis, Poetry, Translation, Drama, Writing About Literature and finally Stylistics.

The English Language and Literature Department offers the following courses for the Single English Specialisation students (Students who do not take any minors):

Communication Skills, Language Through Literature, Language Skills, Communication Skills for Graduate Students from other Departments, Writing 1, Pronunciation and Expression, Writing 2, Survey of English Literature, Survey of American Literature and Other Literatures, Introduction to Linguistics, Phonology of English, History of English Language, Advanced Grammar and Usage (1), Advanced Grammar and Usage (2), Morphology and Syntax, Contrastive Linguistics, Schools of Linguistics, Writing about Literature, Introduction to Critical Literary Theory, Rise of British Prose Through Austen, British Prose 1830-1930, Modern American Prose, Medieval English Poetry, Poetry from Beginnings till 1798, English Poetry from the Romantic Period to the Present, Drama, Shakespeare and the Renaissance, Modern British and American Drama, Contemporary Anglo-American Prose, Translation, Advanced Translation, English Psycholinguistics, Sociolinguistics, Semantics, Applied Linguistics, Introduction to Language Planning, Literature in Translation, Studies in Genre, Major Author, Special Topic in Language, Special Topic in Literature, Research in Language/ Literature.

In order for the English language major to graduate from the university and get his/her BA, he/she must take 132 credit hours, which can be university requirements, and electives. In the English language department, a Single English Specialisation student (without any minor) must take 96 credit hours from the department from the above courses. The other 36 credit hours are taught in Arabic. English majors take 75 English language or literature credit hours and the rest, which amount to two fifths, are taken from other departments other than the English department. Some students join the university in order to become English language teachers. They join the faculty of Education as English Language Field Teachers, and take all their English language courses (75 credit hours) in the English language department. The Faculty of Education offers the other courses (21 credit hours), related to education and teaching methodology, and its faculty members teach them. The other 36 credit

hours are given to the English majors as university requirements, none of which are in English.

The English Language Department offers a BA in English Language and Literature. It has three-track graduate programmes in linguistics, English Literature and Literary Criticism and Translation. Originally, the MA degree was awarded upon the completion of 27 credit hours of course study, passing the comprehensive examination of the department and writing a Master's dissertation. However, the system is now different where the student after completing the 27 credit hours of course study can either write a dissertation or sit for the comprehensive examination.

The Department of English Language and Literature has a teaching staff of 32 members. All of them are UK or US graduates. The department is working on establishing a PhD programme in Linguistics and Literature. At the time of data collection (1999/2000), 820 students were registered as English language majors at the English Language Department (Single, Major and Field Teacher), distributed as freshmen, sophomores, seniors and graduates.

2.1.5.3 English teachers at University level

At university level, English teachers are MA or PhD holders from American or British universities, specialising in English literature, linguistics and teaching English as a foreign language. More than 95 percent of the lecturers in all public and private universities are non-native speakers of English, but they are US- or UK- educated. Native speakers of English are rare in the English Departments at the universities of Jordan. For example, there were only two Americans who teach American literature in the English Language Department at Yarmouk University at the time of data collection.

2.1.5.4 Teaching methodology at the university

Teaching at Yarmouk University and the other universities in Jordan takes the form of lecturing. Professors, especially when teaching literature, are used to teaching as though telling a story, by reporting the main events in the novel or essay, pointing at the main theme with very little discussion. In the language classes, communication is not emphasised. There is no fixed teaching methodology adopted at the university. Each university lecturer adopts the methodology that he/she thinks is appropriate.

In this chapter, we have presented a general background to education in the Arab World, and more specifically in Jordan, and described the objectives of teaching English in the English Departments and the problems faced by Arabic learners of English. In the next chapter, we shall discuss the nature of communication, communicative competence and models of communication. We shall also examine the language teaching methodology adopted in Jordan, and second language acquisition theories and their relationship to CS research.

Chapter Three

Communication and Language Teaching

3.1 Introduction

Communication involves all components of communicative competence. Before moving on to the broad term ‘communicative competence’, we shall first discuss the nature of communication, models of communication, classroom communication and real-life communication, communicative features, and the types of interaction in the tasks used in this study. We shall then define communicative competence and discuss its main components with particular emphasis on strategic competence - the focus of this study - which is concerned with transmitting messages successfully to the listeners, and the use of communication strategies to solve communication problems.

3.2 Nature of communication

Definitions of communication found in communication studies are often very broad and complex, whereas those used in language teaching are considerably simplified. I shall use the language teaching model, as this is the focus of this piece of research. This thesis discusses how much broader and more complex other definitions are.

There are many definitions of communication, some of which are incompatible. For example, Ellis and Beattie (1986:3) say “communication occurs when one organism (transmitter) encodes information into a signal which passes to another organism (receiver) which decodes the signal and is capable of responding appropriately”. Canale (1983:4) defines communication as “the exchange and negotiation of information between at least two individuals through the use of verbal and non-verbal symbols, oral and written/visual modes and production and comprehension processes.” In the same way, Candlin (1980), Wells (1981) and others describe communication in the sense that it involves continuous evaluation and negotiation of meaning on the part of the participants. Considering another definition of the same

concept, Palmer (1978) describes communication as “a reduction of uncertainty” on behalf of the participants. This means that uncertainty between the interlocutors is reduced to some extent but not necessarily eliminated. However, one can speculate that the extent of uncertainty may be reduced to a minimal level through further negotiation and exchange of information. Riley (1985:1) defines communication as “a process whereby we create, negotiate, and interpret meaning”.

On the other hand, Byrne (1976) and Harmer (1982) describe the process of communication as being that the speaker encodes the message and the listener decodes it, and that this happens in writing and reading as well, i.e. the writer encodes the message while the reader decodes it. Byrne (1976: 8) argues that the message in normal speech “contains a great deal of ‘information’ which is redundant” and that other factors can affect the interpretation of the message by the receiver, such as stress, intonation, facial expressions, body movements, etc.

Poulisse (1997) identifies the two well-known principles of communication that seem particularly relevant to compensatory strategies. These are "the principle of clarity and the principle of economy The principle of clarity requires speakers to produce a clear, intelligible message and the principle of economy requires them to do this with the least possible expenditure of effort” (1997:50-51). Compensatory strategy users try to achieve their communicative goals with little effort. This depends on their goal and their available linguistic resources. They may decide to ‘lower their aspirations’ and use a compensatory strategy (CpS) that may be less clear, but that requires less effort. For example, in the Nijmegen project, the CpS users began their solutions to L2 lexical problems by using Dutch words hoping that the interlocutor would understand them.

The above-mentioned definitions of communication entail that there are two partners involved in the process of communication: the speaker, who wants to communicate a

certain piece of information, and the listener, whose aim is to understand it. Negotiation and exchange of information to reach one's communicative goal in getting the message across, or comprehending the message received, is another distinctive feature of these definitions. Negotiation of meaning leads to a reduction in the degree of lack of understanding between the speaker and the listener. The message, which is produced by the speaker, may be redundant or unclear and it is the role of the listener to get the intended meaning. In communication, speakers also follow two basic principles: clarity and economy. They try to communicate clear messages with the least effort or cost (economy).

Better communication means better understanding. Thus, we may say that communication refers to language use. Sometimes, our ease and fluency in communication is interrupted by a gap in our knowledge. This gap could be linguistic or lexical, so in trying to fill this gap, which might cause a failure in message transmission, L2 learners resort to the use of communication strategies to get their message across successfully. If they fail in doing that successfully, this will cause frustration on the part of the speaker, and also the listener, because communication breaks down.

3.3 General Models of communication

There are three different models of communication. These are the message (code) model, the inferential model and the interactional model. Schiffrin (1994: 391-392) states that the code model: "is said to trace back to Aristotle and it underlies many contemporary linguistic theories. For example, as stated by Katz (1966:103-104):

The speaker's message is encoded in the form of phonetic representations of an utterance by means of the system of linguistic rules.... This is then, picked up by the hearer's auditory organs. The speech sound that stimulates these organs is then converted into a neural signal from which a phonetic

representation equivalent to the one into which the speaker encoded his message is obtained”.

For Schiffrin (1994) the code (message) model assumes that a sender transmits a message, through a shared code, to a receiver. The sender has three ordered roles: he has an intended message that he wants to transmit, he transforms the thought into accessible signals and finally he transmits the message to its intended recipient. The inferential model assumes that an individual displays intentions that a recipient infers by relying on a shared code and a shared set of communicative principles allowing the use of inferring strategies. The description of these intentions is attributed to Grice (1957). The Gricean view of communication can be described as follows:

- (a) S’s utterance of x to produce a certain response r to a certain audience A.
- (b) A to recognize S’s intention (a).
- (c) A’s recognition of S’s intention (a) to function as at least part of A’s reason for A’s response r.

The interactional model assumes that an individual displays situated information that is interpreted by a recipient. Some scholars believe that communication occurs regardless of the speaker’s intentions. For example, Watzlawick et al. (1967:49) claim that, “Activity or inactivity, words or silence all have message value; they influence others and these in turn, cannot not respond to these communications and are thus themselves communicating”.

The main focus of all models of communication is the transfer of a comprehensible message. To summarise the main focus of each model, see Figure (3.1) below:

Figure (3.1) Models of communication

Model	Focus
Message Model	The transmission of message from the (speaker) sender to the listener (receiver)
Inferential Model	Intentions of the speaker and the inferential strategies used by the listener
Interactional Model	Interaction between the speaker and the listener

During the communication process, learners encounter problems as a result of their lack of linguistic resources. To make their messages comprehensible and in order to transmit messages successfully to the listener, second language learners resort to what are called communication strategies, that range from the use of a word from the native language to approximation or circumlocution. For example, if the learner is facing a lexical problem, he/she tries to solve this problem to get his/her message across and to make himself/herself understood by using paraphrasing strategy, but if his/her linguistic resources are inadequate, he/she might abandon the message or use L1 which will result in a failure to communicate.

The message transmission model of communication is the most suitable one for this study, since it corresponds most closely to the pedagogical CLT models which we have reviewed. This model expects that communication is successful when the hearer decodes the same message that the speaker encodes. Akmajian et al. (1990:309) say that “it predicts that communication breaks down if the decoded message is different from the encoded message”. Ellis and Beattie (1986) believe that any failure of communication may be attributed to faulty encoding, transmission or decoding. Mishearing is an example of faulty decoding.

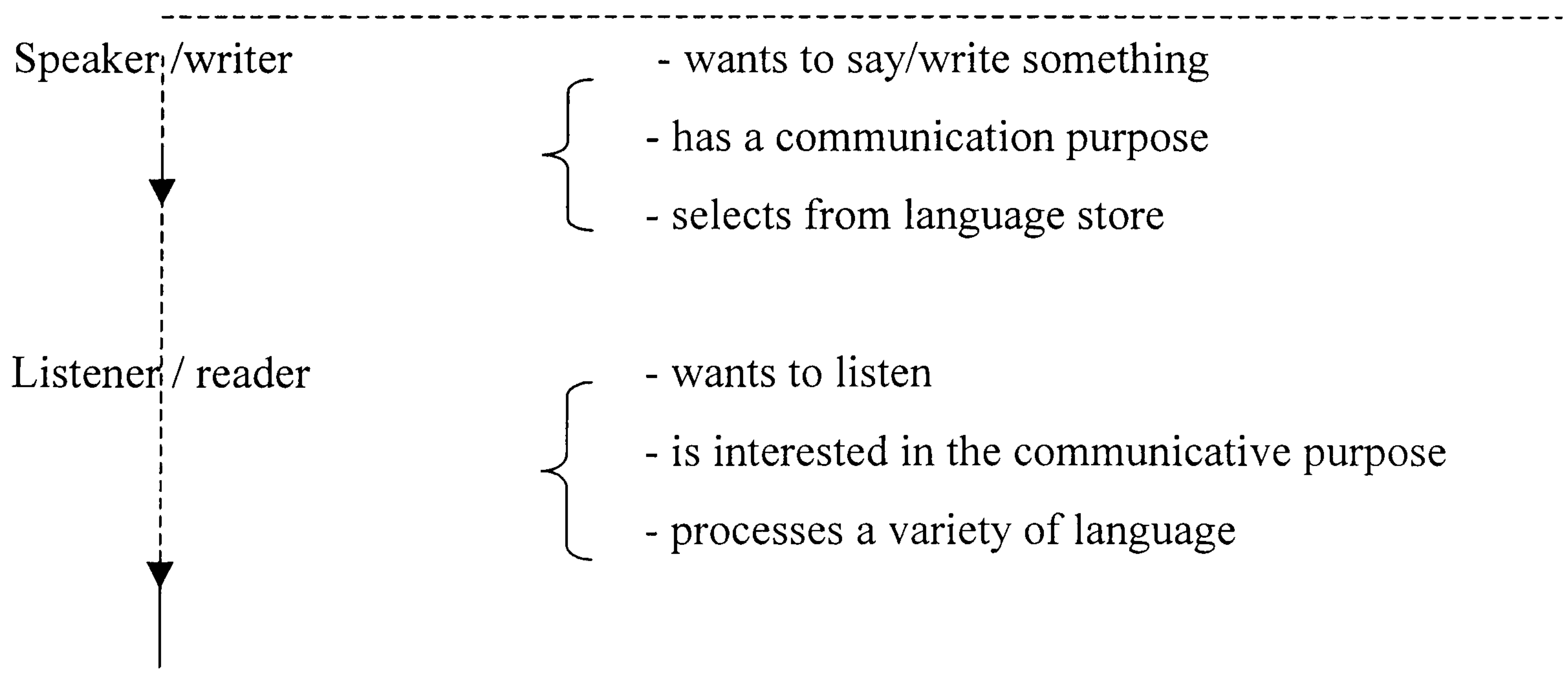
3.4 Pedagogical Models of Communication

Various models have appeared explaining the nature of communication. For example, Harmer (1982:43) developed a model of communication that is illustrated in Figure (3.2) below:

According to Harmer's model, there are certain generalisations that we can make about the majority of communicative events and these will have a particular relevance for the learning and teaching of languages. One of these generalisations is that there is a desire for communication and that there are many possible reasons for a breakdown in communication. Whenever communication takes place, there is a speaker (and/or a writer) who encodes the message and a listener (and/or a reader) who decodes the message.

Harmer (ibid) believes that in successful conversations there usually exists a gap that needs to be filled with information. In other words, he claims that if there is no gap there is often no reason or purpose for communication.

Figure (3.2) Harmer's (1982) model of communication (Harmer, 1982:43)



Communication has certain characteristics that have been mentioned in the works of Breen and Candlin (1980), Morrow (1977), Widdowson (1978) and Harmer (1982).

Canale and Swain (1980) summarises the characteristics of communication that represent their model of communication:

1. Communication is a form of social interaction and can therefore be acquired and used in social interaction.
2. It involves a high degree of unpredictability and creativity in form and message.
3. It takes place in discourse and sociocultural contexts which provide constraints on appropriate language use and also clues as to correct interpretations of utterances.
4. Communication always has a purpose; e.g., to establish social relations, to persuade or to promise, etc.
5. It is carried out under limiting psychological and other conditions such as memory constraints, fatigue and distractions.
6. It involves authentic language.
7. It is judged successful or not on the basis of actual outcomes; i.e. whether the speaker has been understood.

Littlewood (1987) also elaborates a model of communication which contains most of the features of communication mentioned by Canale and Swain (1980):

1. Communication is embedded in interaction (this is true of written as well as oral communication).
2. It is linked to non-linguistic reality, from which it derives its purpose.
3. It is focused primarily on meaning.
4. It is subject to social constraints (e.g. on what is appropriate).
5. It must take account of changing shared knowledge, perceptions and expectations.
6. It is unpredictable in varying degrees.
7. It is carried out in 'real time' (especially true of oral communication, where reactions must be immediate).
8. Success is measured primarily in terms of whether the messages are effectively transmitted and received (Littlewood, 1987:20). One of the issues addressed in this

study is message comprehensibility. The oral performance of the subjects in the three tasks was examined by the researcher to see whether the predetermined key events in the story-telling task, the key words in the object-identification task, and the speech acts in the role-play task were all transmitted effectively and whether they were comprehensible or not.

For Littlewood (1987), not all communication should have all of the above features. However, he proposes that these features might serve as a checklist to decide how communicative an activity is. I think that Littlewood's argument appears relevant, in that it is not necessary for all types of classroom activity to include all these features. There may be occasions when some of the features are not present in a certain conversation or classroom activity, but communication is still taking place.

Harmers's (1982) and Littlewood's (1987) models are Communicative Language Teaching models and they suit the focus of this thesis.

All the models of communication discussed above stress the importance of message transmission and comprehension. Success is measured by actual outcomes, i.e. whether the message is understood or not. The learner's success depends on his communicative competence, part of which is strategic competence. In order to be successful in transmitting a message, learners with limited linguistic resources make use of communication strategies, but their attempts might succeed or fail.

According to Poulisse (1997) there are two principles of communication which are relevant to the study of compensatory strategies. These are the principle of clarity and the principle of economy. The principle of clarity requires language users to produce clear, intelligible messages whereas the principle of economy requires them to do this with the least effort. Speakers must capitalise on a balance between these two principles in order to transmit a comprehensible message.

Depending on the importance of the users' communicative goals and the resources available, they may decide to "lower their aspiration levels and use CpS that may be less clear but less costly in terms of processing effort" (p.54). In the Nijmegen Project, different tasks were used to elicit the strategic behaviour of the subjects. Since they were able to depend on the interlocutor for help, the interview task enabled the subjects to achieve their communicative goals with minimum effort. The subjects established the reference in the most economical way when the interlocutor indicated that she understood, but when the interlocutor indicated that she did not understand, the subjects added more information until they reached their goals or felt satisfied with the communication results.

Poullisse also claims that the principle of economy is also true for the story-retell task when the problems are "presented within the context of the story"(ibid:56). To refer to a *wig*, two-word expressions were used to refer to the fact that the salesman was bald (e.g. 'worn by a salesman', 'fake hair', 'false hair', 'artificial hair', 'unreal hair', or 'hair').

In their object reference task, there was no feedback and no linguistic context to "aid the interpretation of the subjects' references. The only way for the subjects to reach their goals was to "expend a lot of effort on elaborate description of the objects presented" (ibid:57). In this task, the conceptual strategy was used due to the demands of the task. The object-identification task in this study is similar to the object reference task in the Nijmegen Project, but it differs in the fact that, in this study, pictures of real-life objects are used.

The main aim of the tasks in this study is message transmission and comprehension, and the success of transmission will be measured according to whether the message is comprehensible or not. At the same time, the tasks were designed to elicit the strategic behaviour of English majors at Yarmouk University in Jordan, while communicating in L1 and L2 in order to get their message across to the listener.

3.5 Classroom communication and real-life communication

Ellis (1994:580) states that “the discourse that results from trying to learn is different from that which results from trying to communicate”. In real life, people want to converse, whereas in the classroom students want to learn in order to be able to communicate in the real world. In both types of discourse people use communication strategies to make their ideas comprehensible and achieve their communicative goals.

Nunan (1987) defines genuine communication as follows:

....genuine communication is characterized by the uneven distribution of information, the negotiation of meaning (through, for example, clarification requests and confirmation checks), topic nomination and negotiation by more than one speaker, and the right of interlocutors to decide whether to contribute to an interaction or not. In other words, in genuine communication, decisions about who says what to whom and when are up for grasp (1987:137).

The question here is: Can we consider the communication that takes place in the classroom genuine? Seedhouse (1996:16), adopting an institutional discourse approach, considers classroom discourse “an institutional variety of discourse” which is different from natural discourse. He summarises the communicative orthodoxy as follows:

1. There is such a thing as ‘genuine’ or ‘natural’ communication (Nunan 1987:137; Kumaravadivelu 1993:12; Kramsch 1981:8).
2. It is possible for EFL teachers to replicate genuine or natural communication in the classroom, but most fail to do so (Nunan 1987:144; Kumaravadivelu 1993:12; Kramsch 1981:18).

3. Most teachers produce interaction which features examples of the IRF cycle (teacher initiation-learner response- teacher follow-up) and display questions; these are typical of the traditional classroom, but rarely occur in genuine or natural communication (Nunan 1987:141; Dinsmore 1985:226-7; Long and Sato 1983:284).
4. Teachers could be trained to replicate genuine or natural communication in the classroom (Nunan 1987:144; Kumaravadivelu 1993:18).

Seedhouse (1996) believes that communication in the classroom is a variety of communication that should be differentiated from real-life communication. In the classroom, communication takes place whatever the teacher does, but there are different types of interaction provided depending on the pedagogical purpose of the communicative task. Swan (1990) the same position when he states that it is “a serious mistake to condemn types of discourse typically found in the classroom because they do not share all the communicative features of other kinds of language use”(p. 93).

To measure the genuineness of communication that takes place in the classroom, there must be criteria. The criterion against which Seedhouse (ibid) measures genuineness of classroom communication is Nunan’s (1987) definition of genuine communication stated above. Seedhouse (1994) concludes that classroom discourse is unfavourably compared with natural discourse, i.e. conversation. Communication in the classroom is no longer genuine as long as the teacher instructs students what to do. Teachers cannot replicate natural conversation in the classroom since there is a pedagogical purpose that the teachers introduce. Also, as long as teachers know the answer to what they ask, they are using display questions which are not typically used in conversation.

I can agree with this position. For example, if we compare the communication that takes places in any English language lesson with the conversation of learners in a

multinational or multilingual class in L2 during the absence of teachers, we will come to the conclusion that they are completely different types of communication. During the presence of the teacher, communication in the classroom takes place, but it is not genuine; it is guided or controlled by the teacher as the students perform the required tasks. But when the teachers are not attending, communication is genuine, in that learners, although they are in the classroom, converse about different topics: for example, the best teacher, getting acquainted with each other, their exam results, what they will have for breakfast in the break time, etc., in which nobody instructs them. On the contrary, they nominate the topics themselves, and they can decide when to start and when to stop their turns. In the former case, it is a variety of classroom communication, whereas in the latter case, communication is genuine and natural.

Seedhouse (ibid) considers classroom communication as a variety of communication. He suggests that:

a preferable, sociolinguistic approach to communication in the classroom would be to see it as an institutional discourse produced by a speech community or communities conveyed for the institutional purpose of learning English, working within particular speech exchange systems suited to that purpose. The discourse displays certain distinctive features which are related to the institutional discourse (Seedhouse, 1996:23).

Communication in the classroom can never be said to be identical to natural discourse. According to Seedhouse (1994:304), what distinguishes classroom communication from other forms of communication is “the connection between pedagogical purposes which underlie different classroom activities and the linguistic forms and patterns of interaction which result from those classroom activities”. Because communication is taking place in an educational setting, it is

designed to achieve specific goals. Hence, we may describe all communication that takes place in the classroom as an institutional variety of communication.

Kramersch (1985) suggests that the nature of classroom discourse depends on the roles participants take, the nature of the tasks, and the kind of knowledge targeted. It arises when the teacher and the learners act out institutional roles, when the tasks are concerned with the transmission and comprehension of messages and are controlled by the teacher, and when there is focus on knowledge and accuracy. 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, learners try to cope with these problems by using communication strategies that may help them in communicating their ideas. On the other hand, natural discourse is characterised by more fluid roles established through interaction, tasks that encourage equal participation in the negotiation of meaning, and a focus on the interactional process and fluency.

Littlewood (1992) considers communication inside the classroom as a variety of communication that may be similar to what people do in real life, but we should point out that this does not imply it is identical. Role-playing and oral composition are good examples of tasks practised in the classroom and can be close to real communication. In this study, the role-play and story-telling tasks are CLT classroom tasks that *do* come close to real-life communication. On the other hand, object-identification/naming task comes less close to natural communication. It may be said that these tasks represent what Seedhouse (1994) calls a '*Task-Oriented Speech Community*' mode, which creates task-based interaction.

Thus, the classroom can never be the outside world. Classroom discourse is a variety of communication that has its own characteristics which make it different from genuine discourse. What makes it different is mainly the control the teacher has over the discourse. What is happening in the classroom is merely practice and

rehearsal of what is going to take place in real-life communication. The more rehearsals are carried out, the better the performance in the real world will be. Classroom communication, then, may be said to range from pseudo-communicative to communicative and to be a simulation of real-life communication.

3. 6 Types of Interaction

Many writers consider classroom discourse as a variety of communication (e.g., Van Lier, 1988; Ellis, 1984; Tsui, 1987 and Seedhouse, 1994). All of these writers suggest that L2 classroom interaction consists of a number of sub-varieties.

In this section we shall examine task-oriented interaction as a sub-variety. We shall go on to describe the principles underlying task design and discuss the characteristics of the interaction produced.

Classroom communication covers a range of varieties of communication ranging from completely controlled, in which the focus is on form and accuracy (skill-getting in Rivers' terms, 1992), to what Seedhouse (1994) called 'Real-World Target Speech Community', in which the interaction patterns are similar to those taking place in real-life communication (skill-using in Rivers' terms, 1992).

The three tasks used in this study are expected to provide varieties of interaction because they range from student-student interaction to researcher-student interaction. The former type will be demonstrated clearly in the role-play task. The latter will be clearly represented in the object-identification/naming and picture story-telling tasks, where the researcher provides only non-verbal signals such as nodding his head and smiling to indicate that he is following the subjects' performance.

Seedhouse (1994) differentiates between classroom patterns of interaction relying on the purpose of the classroom community. According to his modes, the tasks of

this study are expected to produce two types of task-based interaction: student-student interaction and researcher-student interaction. With regard to the second type of interaction, I will not include my turns in the transcription, since I was only providing non-verbal signals in order to keep the communication going on.

Seedhouse (1999:150-154) lists the characteristics of task-based interaction:

- 1) The turn-taking system is constrained by the nature of the task depending on the pedagogical purpose of the task where the focus is on the accomplishment of the task.
- 2) There is a tendency towards minimisation and indexicality where the nature of the task constrains the kinds of linguistic form used in the learners' turns. The learners intend to minimize the volume of the language used to produce only the language needed to accomplish the task successfully.
- 3) Tasks generate many instances of clarification requests, confirmation checks, comprehension checks and self-repetitions.

A variety of types of interaction exists in the L2 classroom. It is expected that our tasks will produce a task-oriented type of interaction and that all Seedhouse's features (1999) will be evident in the interaction resulting from the tasks. But I think that a fourth characteristic can be added here. During the course of communication, and 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. Of course, clarification requests and self-repetitions are communication strategies as well. The use of these communication strategies or others may affect the interaction between the participants.

3.7 Communicative features of tasks

There are many communicative features characterising the tasks designed for the purposes of this study. The role-play task seems to display all the features of communication mentioned in all models of communication. The most important feature of real communication, which the task has, is interaction. The information gap is another important feature of natural communication. A gap does exist in this task in that one learner knows information that the other doesn't know. One of the subjects has the questions for which he does not know the answers. Another subject has the information he needs. The task is also carried out in real time with the participants providing immediate reaction. It is thus impossible to predict what sort of language will be used in the role-play task.

Most of the features of communication appear to be represented in the picture story-telling task. When we report or tell a story about an accident in real life, there might be requests for clarification. However, here, instead the researcher provides non-verbal signals of understanding and appreciation such as nodding his head and smiling. The subjects were asked to assume the role of a witness who is telling the story to a friend who does not know the story. They were asked to assume that the researcher was that friend. This task is communicative, with the exception of the fact that the audience is not genuine, even though the subjects are asked to assume that they are telling the story to a friend who does not know what happened. Despite the fact that the pictures control the content of the story, the language used by the learners is unpredictable. The performance takes place in real time and the researcher listens to it, though the learners are given two to three minutes for preparation. Even in real life, if we want to tell a story to somebody, some kind of preparation is made, but this happens unconsciously.

In Poulisse and Schils (1989), the story-telling task required the subjects to listen to a story, and then they were asked to retell it. The disadvantage of this procedure is

that if some information is missing, then it might be attributed to the fact that the subjects forgot to recall that piece of information, but it could be because the subjects encountered a difficulty, so they resorted to avoiding the topic. This means that they were trying to hide their problems. However, in this study, there is no room for such an ambiguity, as there is control over the content, and what is expected is specified in advance. The subjects have the pictures that help them in identifying the objects or in telling the story, and a chart to help them perform the role-play task.

The object-identification/naming task seems to display few of the characteristics of real communication. The focus of the task is on naming the object in the pictures or if this is not possible, to talk about it in such a way that anyone who listens to the description will be able to tell what the object is. Focus is on meaning rather than form. The predictability of what is going to be said is fairly high, unless the subjects do not know the name of the object. If the learner does not know the target word, the language used will be unpredictable. The task can be described as communicative, though the researcher only provided non-verbal feedback such as nodding his head and a smile of satisfaction. (For a detailed discussion of the tasks and the principles of task design see section 6.6).

We may therefore say that all the tasks are communicative, but not genuine. Nonetheless, they provide a task-based interaction context as discussed in the previous section.

During the course of interaction, learners use certain strategies to compensate for their deficiencies in linguistic competence, an important component of communicative competence, in order to pass their messages across to the listener. What, then, is communicative competence?

3.8 Communicative Competence

In the Chomskyan sense, competence refers to knowledge of grammatical rules. However, Hymes (1972) points out that learners learn both language rules and speaking rules. It is important to take into consideration “the fact that a normal child acquires knowledge of sentences, not only as grammatical, but also as appropriate. He or she acquires competence as to when to speak, when not, and as to what to talk about with whom, when, where, in what manner” (Hymes, 1972: 277).

Hymes (ibid) also raised four criteria for judging a certain behaviour:

- 1- whether (and to what degree) something is formally *possible*.
- 2- whether (and to what degree) something is *feasible* in virtue of the means of implementation available.
- 3- whether (and to what degree) something is *appropriate* (adequate, successful) in relation to a context in which it is used and evaluated.
- 4- whether (and to what degree) something is in fact done, actually *performed*, and what its doing entails (Hymes, 1972:281).

He considered these four questions as a whole, or as ‘overlapping circles’. For Hymes, competence depends on both tacit *knowledge* and ability for *use*.

Hymes (1972), who believes that utterances should be socially acceptable and appropriate to the setting in which they occur, proposed the concept of ‘communicative competence’. Later, Savignon (1983:8) defined communicative competence as the “ability to function in a truly communicative setting, that is, in a dynamic exchange in which linguistic competence must adapt itself to the total informational output, both linguistic and paralinguistic”.

Later, Canale (1983:5) described communicative competence as “the underlying systems of knowledge and skill required for communication”, i.e. a knowledge of vocabulary, and skill in using the sociolinguistic conventions of a given language.

Knowledge, here, refers to what one knows (consciously and unconsciously) about the language and about other aspects of communicative language use. “Skill” refers to how to make use of this knowledge in actual communication.

However, Saville-Troike (1982) elaborated the definition even further when she stated that:

“Communicative competence involves knowing not only about the language code, but also what, to whom, and how to say it appropriately in any given situation. It deals with the social and cultural knowledge speakers are presumed to have to enable them to use and interpret linguistic forms” (1982:22).

Following Canale and Swain and Canale, Savignon (1983:37-40) identified the four components of the theory of communicative competence, grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence and strategic competence.

Grammatical competence is defined as mastery of the linguistic code (verbal or non-verbal). According to Savignon (1983), a person should be able to recognise the lexical, morphological, syntactic and phonological features of a language and to manipulate these features to form words and sentences. Therefore, a person is grammatically competent if he is able to use a rule.

Sociolinguistic competence, according to Canale and Swain (1980), includes both sociocultural rules of use and rules of discourse, whereas, in Canale, in Richards and Schmidt (1983), sociolinguistic and discourse competence are mentioned as separate. Sociolinguistic competence deals with the social rules of a language, i.e., a person should understand the ‘social context’ in which the language is used.

Discourse competence is concerned with the connection of a series of sentences or utterances to form a meaningful whole. A person should thus not only be able to

interpret isolated sentences but should also be able to integrate ideas. According to Canale, in Richards and Schmidt (1983), the ‘unity of a text’ is achieved through cohesion in form and coherence in meaning.

Strategic competence refers to the individual’s ability to use ‘communication strategies’ to compensate for a limited or imperfect knowledge of rules or the interference of factors such as fatigue, distraction or inattention.

Since the main concern of this study is strategic competence, we shall examine the ideas of other researchers concerning this component of communicative competence. Canale and Swain (1980) describe strategic competence as providing a *compensatory* function when the linguistic competence of the language user is inadequate. According to Canale and Swain (ibid), strategic competence consists of verbal and non-verbal communication strategies.

In Canale and Swain’s definition (1980: 30), strategic competence is called into action "to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to performance variables or to insufficient competence". For Little (1999), two problems arise from this definition: (i) there are many communicative situations in which strategic processes play an "offensive" rather than a "defensive" role; (ii) a definition of strategic competence that concentrates exclusively on language use may encourage the assumption that there is a psychological disjunction at the strategic level between language use and language learning.

One of the most recent, well-structured and fully comprehensive models of communicative competence which solves the problems that arise in Canale and Swain’s definition, is that of Bachman (1990), who defines strategic competence 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” (Bachman, 1990: 107).

According to Bachman (ibid) *strategic competence* embraces all aspects of the assessment, planning and execution of communicative tasks. He sees strategic competence not only as a component of communicative competence, but also as a more general cognitive capacity. Bachman and Palmer (1996:70) find that these components together comprise "a set of metacognitive processes, or strategies, which can be thought of as higher order executive processes that provide a cognitive management function in language use, as well as in other cognitive activities". Those other cognitive activities include language learning and all its ramifications.

Thus, strategic competence refers to effective ways of dealing with problems that language learners face when communicating in a foreign language. More specifically strategic competence is concerned with the use of communication strategies to overcome language difficulties.

On the other hand, Tarone and Yule (1989) believe that strategic competence includes "the ability to select an effective means of performing a communicative act ... strategic competence is gauged, not by degree of correctness ... but rather by degree of success, or effectiveness" (1989:105).

According to Tarone and Yule, there are two areas related to strategic competence:

- (1) the overall skill of a learner in successfully transmitting information to a listener, or interpreting information transmitted and (2) the use of communication strategies by a speaker or listener when problems arise in the process of transmitting information (1989:103).

In this study, we shall use Yule and Tarone's (1989) definition of strategic competence for the purpose of the data analysis, as we are interested primarily in the learners' skill in transmitting messages successfully and the use of

communication strategies to solve their problems during the process of information transmission. (For details see 6.1).

3.9 Language Teaching

A number of different methods of language teaching have emerged since the end of the nineteenth century. Each method has a different theory of language teaching and learning underlying the practice. For example, one method considers language learning as memorisation of a set of rules and vocabulary items. Another method believes that second language learning should be like learning the mother tongue and that it should be learnt without reference to L1 and therefore suggests that language learning is a process of habit formation: stimulus – response. A third method considers language to be a means of communication and stresses the importance of teaching our children language functions.

In our examination of the methodology adopted in teaching English to Jordanian students, Grammar-Translation Method, Audio-Lingual Method, CLT and the current teaching method adopted in Jordan "eclecticism" will be discussed in detail, in terms of their aims, history, merits and demerits.

3.9.1 Grammar-Translation Method

The grammar-translation method has been in existence for decades because some of its main principles are still dominant in some foreign language classrooms. According to Chastain (1988), it was called the Classical Method because it was first used in the teaching of the classical languages, Latin and Greek.

This method emphasises the importance of teaching the second language grammar and translation from and into the target language. Listening and speaking skills are completely ignored. Language is only considered as learning a system of rules/the grammatical system of the target language. Learners spend most of their time

memorising conjugation, declensions and rules of grammar. Because the social and functional nature of the language is disregarded, the learners' role is passive.

According to this method, the fundamental purpose of learning a foreign language is to be able to read literature written in the target language and not to communicate. Error correction is very important to produce the right forms.

Language is presented in short grammatical lessons each one of them contains a few grammar points or rules which are illustrated with examples. The exercises consist of words, phrases and sentences in L1 which should be translated into L2 with the help of a bilingual dictionary. Other exercises require students to translate from L2 to L1.

3.9.1.1 Shortcomings

Al-Mutawa and Kailani (1989) summarised the limitations of this method as follows:

- Its focus on learning grammar de-emphasises the importance of the oral skills. So, little attention is paid to accurate pronunciation and intonation.
- It emphasises the written language at the expense of how language is used to convey functions such as requesting, greeting, etc.
- Words are presented in isolation. They should be presented in context
- The over-usage of the native language reduces the time available for practising the target language.
- The learner's role is largely passive.
- The teacher is the authority in the class in which students do what he says.

3.9.2 The Audio-Lingual Method

The Audio-lingual Method has been described in some influential books like (Brooks, 1964), Rivers 1964/1968). It was originally developed in America during World War II because military people needed language for communication, but it

was, then, adopted in most parts of the world. It appeared in the fifties under aural - oral method. Brooks (1964) who proposed another term 'New Key' proposed this term 'audio-lingual'.

There was a need for people to learn foreign languages rapidly for military purposes. There were new ideas about language and learning derived from the disciplines of descriptive linguistics and behavioural psychology. These ideas led to the development of the Audio lingual method.

The audio lingual Method focused on *langue*. Rivers (1964) states:

" It is 'langue' That we set out in our textbooks, on our tapes... - the average which has been set up by many individuals using the same sign system ...Thus "every language is a model of a culture" (Rivers, 1964:133).

Starr et al . (1960) defined the aims of the audio lingual method :

The student should understand the foreign language as it is spoken by native speakers in situations similar as to his own experience ... He should speak the foreign language in every day situations with reasonable fluency and correctness, and with pronunciation acceptable to the native speaker of the language.... He should read the foreign language easily and without conscious translation.. He should be able to communicate in writing anything he can say.... Mastery of the skills must be accompanied with the culture the language represents, as well as a larger view of life resulting from the realization that there are many cultures and value systems ... (Starr et al. 1960:17 –19)

For Richards and Rodgers (1986) and Larsen-Freeman (1986), the basic tenets of the method can be summarised as follows:

- Teachers were supposed to 'teach language not about language'. So, they were confined to the textbooks and had to practice mechanically with the students different patterns through substitution drills and repetition. This helps students to form habits. Dialogues are learned through imitation and repetition.
- Language learning is habit formation. The more often something is repeated, the greater the learning. Language performance consists of four basic skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing.
- L2 learning, like L1 learning, should begin with listening, and speaking, regardless of the end goal of the learner. The natural order of L1 acquisition is the same.
- A contrastive analysis of the phonological and structural differences between L1 and L2 provides the most effective basis for materials development and sequence.
- The basic unit of practice should always be a complete structure. Production should proceed from repetition to substitution and continue until responses are automatic. Spontaneous expression should be delayed until the more advanced levels of instruction. Production errors in structural or phonological features mean that the patterns have not received sufficient prior drilling.
- The teacher is the centre of all classroom activities and is responsible for maintaining attention and a lively pace.
- Teacher's role is to provide a "native-like model". Students should mimic this model. Teacher's role is like an orchestra leader who conducts, guides and controls the students' behaviour in the target language.
- Error correction is important. It is important to prevent learners from making errors. Errors lead to the formation of bad habits. When errors occur, they should be corrected immediately by the teacher. Errors should be avoided as much as possible.

- Positive reinforcement helps students to develop correct habits.
- Learning a foreign language should be the same as L1 acquisition. There is no need for memorisation of rules, rules will be induced from examples.
- Language cannot be separated from culture. Culture means the everyday behaviour of the people who use the language.
- There is student - to - student interaction in a series of drills, which are directed by the teacher. The teacher initiates most of interaction.
- Structures of language are emphasised. Vocabulary items are contextualized within the dialogues.

3.9.2.1 Shortcomings

Each language teaching approach or methodology was criticised by practitioners and methodologists. The audio-lingual approach was criticised like Grammar Translation Method. For example, Krashen and Terrel (1983:13-16) summarises the shortcomings of the audio-lingual method as:

- Students repeat drills which they do not understand and they are not interesting or motivating.
- Even if the message or grammatical rule is understood, "real communication" did not take place.
- Learned patterns will take time to be used in real life situations.
- Presenting the spoken form before the written led learners to invent their own written code. For example, I used to write the Arabic script to remember the pronunciation of words when I started to learn English at primary school.

Besides, Richards and Rodgers (1986) and Al- Mutawa and Kailani (1989), add the following points to the criticism of the audio-lingual approach:

- This method emphasises speech over other language skills, especially writing .
- The ordering of listening, speaking, reading and writing is not essential.

- The method takes no account of the creative use of language and cognition, as it emphasises mechanical repetition through the use of oral drills.
- In focusing on the form rather than on the content or meaning, the method fails to prepare the learner to use the foreign language for communication.
- Learning to produce grammatical sentences does not guarantee that one will be able to communicate in situations which require the creative use of speech acts and notions.
- This method requires small classes, carefully prepared materials and a lot of time.
- It also requires a well - trained teacher who knows what to teach and how to teach.

Whatever is learnt inside the classroom is not possible to transfer it to outside world. Using the mechanical drills and repetition is not enough to make our learners communicate in real life. Larsen-Freeman (1987) argues that:

Audio-lingual method fell into disfavour in many articles in 1900. This was due to the refutation of the habit-formation theory of language acquisition. There was the wide spread observation that patterns mastered in the classroom were not always transferred outside when "real communication was involved" (Larsen - Freeman, 1987: 6)

Despite these limitations, this method was adopted in the Arab world countries like Jordan, the United Arab Emirates, Kuwait and Qatar in the sixties and continued to be used up to the last decade when it was replaced by the communicative approach in most of the Arab countries like Jordan, UAE, etc.

3.9.2.2 Audio-lingual method in Jordan

The first explicitly stated English language curriculum for public schools in Jordan which adopted the audio-lingual approach to language teaching was drawn up in the early nineteen–sixties. It was called “Living English For Jordan” for the elementary

and preparatory stages. Then it was changed to “New Living English for Jordan”. As for the secondary stage, the textbook was called “A Course Book Of English Study”. In 1971, The Oxford English Course for Jordan was designed in the light of the English language curriculum for the secondary stage. It was put into use in 1974. The Audio-lingual approach was adopted in teaching this curriculum.

A feeling of discontent was raised by teachers, students, supervisors and parents about the secondary stage curriculum “A Course Book Of English Study”, which adopted the audio-lingual. So it was revised to satisfy the needs of both students and teachers. It was changed into “Oxford English Course Book”. This curriculum was also revised and called “A Revised Oxford English Course Book” to bridge the gap between the compulsory stage curriculum, which was assumed to have equipped the learners with the four language skills, and the secondary stage curriculum which is assumed to build on the students’ acquired proficiency to build up the learners’ competence in the use of English for communication. The textbooks were prepared, a rationale for the teaching of English language was outlined, the general and specific aims of for teaching them were stated, the pedagogical theory and practices by which those aims could be achieved were described and evaluation of their achievement was indicated. The methodology adopted was then the direct method as stated in the secondary stage English language curriculum to keep up with the changes in the compulsory stage curriculum.

To illustrate some facts about the Audio lingual Method textbooks, I will use the Jordanian English Language Curriculum which adopted this method in the seventies and early eighties. “New Living English for Jordan” - Book Five, which was taught for Grade Ten till 1982, begins with greetings. The following is the content of the lesson (Taken from Allen, W. et al. 1975: 4-5)

A. Greetings - Good morning / Good afternoon / boys / girls. How are you?

B. Questions: the time, day, month, season, and the number of lessons in the book. How many ? far ? often ? etc.)

1. **Vocabulary list.** Teachers are asked to show pictures or give meaning (*fuel, coal, steam, steamship, heat (v. and n.)* .

2. **The passive**

Teachers are asked to give passive examples. The students will have a model and then they are asked to do the same.

e.g. 1. The classrooms / cleaned.

The classrooms are cleaned.

Now, students are asked to do this drilling exercise.

My watch /mended. My watch is mended.

Your letter / posted

The seeds / sown

The houses/ sold.

Here, what students are required to do is only putting 'is' or 'are' to form passive sentences and practice these drilling exercises. Such drills will not be enough for language learners to make use of them in real life situations. As far as the vocabulary items are concerned, the way they are presented does not mean that the students will be able to use them effectively outside the classroom. They are just presented in isolation.

3.9.3 Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)

3.9.3.1 Background

A number of theories contributed to the emergence of CLT. It emerged in the early 1970s as a result of the work of the Council of Europe experts, Noam Chomsky

(1957), Halliday (1975), and the writings of Wilkins (1972,1976) and Hymes (1972). Wilkins' document (1972) which was then expanded into the book *Notional Syllabuses* (Wilkins, 1976), had a great impact on the development of CLT. The appearance of CLT was a response to the criticisms by the prominent American linguist Noam Chomsky of the structural linguistic theory in his book *Syntactic Structures* (1957). It can also be traced to Chomsky's work in the 1960s, when he proposed the two notions, 'competence' and 'performance', as a reaction against audiolingualism and its behaviourist views of language learning. When Chomsky referred to 'competence' he meant linguistic competence. Hymes' (1972) also contributed to the emergence of CLT when he proposed that communicative competence does not only refer to the linguistic rules, but it also refers to the rules of speaking. Later, Canale (1983) used the term to refer to four areas of competence (see section 3.8, above).

Another theory of communication which also had an impact on the development of CLT is Halliday's view of language use. He argues that linguistics is concerned with "the description of speech acts or texts, since only through the study of language in use are all the functions of language , and therefore all components of meaning brought into focus" (Halliday 1970:145).

Halliday (1975) described seven basic functions of language:

1. the instrumental function: using language to get things.
2. the regulatory function: using language to control the behaviour of others.
3. the interactional function: using language to create interaction with others.
4. the personal function : using language to express personal feelings and meanings.
5. the heuristic function : using language to learn and to discover .
6. the imaginative function: using language to create a world of the imagination.
7. the representational function: using language to communicate information.

Widdowson (1978) in his book *Teaching Language as Communication*, focused on the communicative acts that underlie the ability to use language for different purposes. His ideas support Halliday's view (1975).

The CLT approach suggests that we consider language as Littlewood (1981: x) proposed: "Not only in terms of its structures (grammar and vocabulary) but also in terms of the communicative functions that it performs". Both language forms and how people use these forms when they communicate are important. He also points out that "one of the most characteristic features of communicative language teaching is that it pays systematic attention to functional as well as structural aspects of language" (Littlewood, 1981:1) .

Wilkins' works (1972 and 1976) had an influential impact on the development of CLT. He described two types of meaning that lay behind the communicative uses of language. These are notional categories (concepts like time, sequence, quantity, location, frequency) and categories of communicative functions (e.g. requests, denials, offers, etc.).

The works of Wilkins (1972, 1976), Halliday (1975) and Littlewood (1981) all moved in the same direction by stressing the importance of performing language functions which are part of real-life communication.

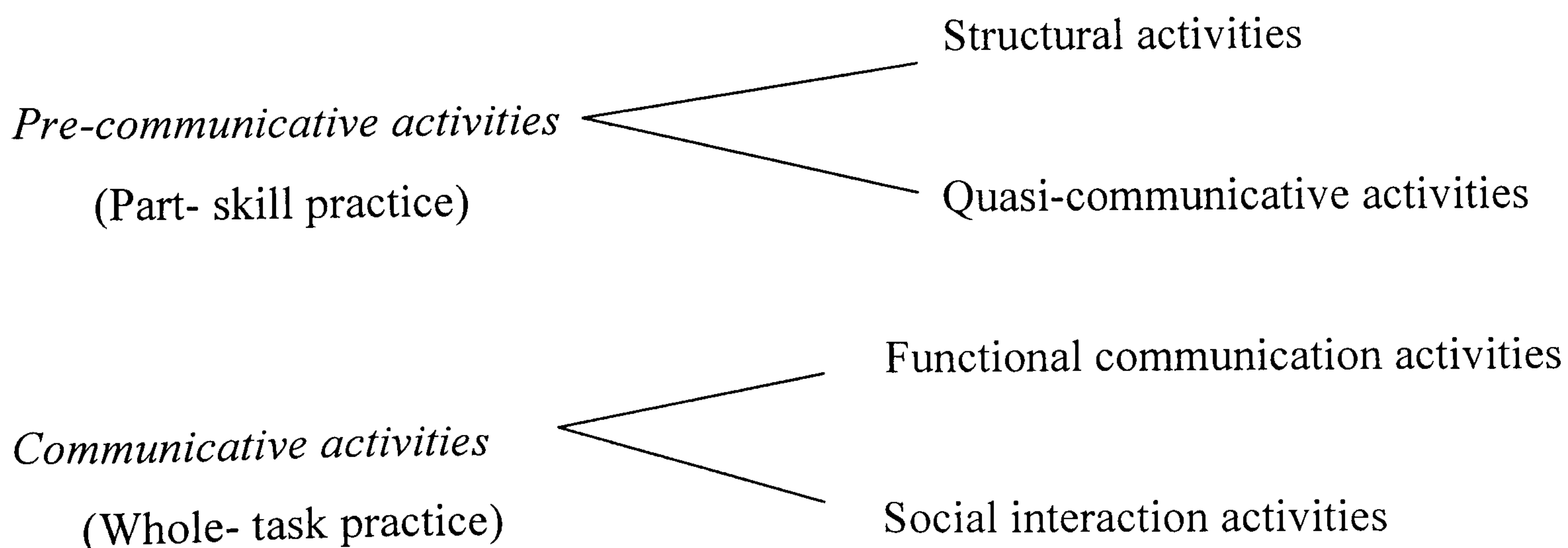
Language teaching and learning theories such as Chomsky's linguistic theory, language notions, and the functional theory favoured by Halliday and Hymes' theory of communicative competence, all contributed to the emergence of CLT which has been referred to variously as the Communicative Approach, the Notional-Functional Approach, and the Functional Approach.

3.9.3.2 Learning theory

There are a number of theories of learning and teaching which underlie CLT, but they all say that we learn to communicate by communicating rather than by studying a language system. Savignon (1983), for example, considers that linguistic, social, cognitive and individual variables play an important role in language acquisition. Krashen (1981/1982), who developed a theory which is seen to be compatible with CLT principles, distinguishes between 'learning' and 'acquisition'. 'Acquisition' refers to the unconscious development of the target language system as a result of using language for real communication, whereas, 'learning' refers to the conscious representation of grammatical knowledge that has resulted from instruction.

The proponents of CLT were interested in activities that involve real communication, and carrying out of meaningful tasks in order to promote learning. If language is meaningful, it supports the learning process. Learning activities should be selected according to the learners' ability to engage them in meaningful and authentic language use (e.g., Littlewood, 1981; Johnson, 1982).

Activities underlying the CLT approach are represented by Littlewood (1981: 86) as follows:



Littlewood (1992) explains this model by saying that learners may practise using the present continuous tense by describing what the teacher is doing at the moment. At this stage they are practising part-skills of communication because the main focus is on the forms of language rather than on actual messages exchanged in real life with another person. This is referred to as 'pre-communicative activities'. In situations where meaning has to be communicated freely, learners communicate without having language especially prepared for that purpose. This can be referred to as a communicative activity, which includes social or authentic interaction.

Littlewood (1984) also considers an alternative theory that he sees as compatible with CLT. It is a skill-learning model of learning. The acquisition of communicative competence is considered to be an example of skill development. This involves both cognitive and behavioural aspects:

The *cognitive* aspect involves the internalisation of plans for creating appropriate behaviour. For language use, these plans derive mainly from language system - they include grammatical rules, procedures for selecting vocabulary, and social conventions governing speech. The *behavioural* aspect involves the automation of these plans so that they can be converted into fluent performance in real time. This occurs mainly through *practice* in converting plans into performance (Littlewood, 1984: 74).

In this theory, practice is very important for developing communicative skills. Thus, it is clear that the main aim of language teaching is communication.

3.9.3.3 The roles of learners and teachers

The emphasis of CLT on communication leads learners to play different roles from those played in the traditional classrooms. Learners are communicators who are actively engaged in negotiating meaning in order to make themselves understood.

Breen and Candlin (1980) describe the learner's role within CLT as: -

The role of learner as negotiator - between the self, the learning process, and the object of learning - emerges from and interacts with the role of joint negotiator within the group and within the classroom procedures and activities which the group undertakes. The implication for the learner is that he should contribute as much as he gains, and thereby learn in an interdependent way (Breen and Candlin, 1980:110).

In CLT, the teacher plays many roles. The teacher is considered the facilitator of his students' learning. He is the manager of classroom activities in which he is responsible for creating situations to promote communication. While the learners are carrying out their activities, he works as an advisor or a guide who guides the students, answers their questions and monitors their performance. Sometimes he might be a 'Co-communicator' who is engaged in communication in the activity along with the students (Littlewood , 1981).

On the other hand, Breen and Candlin describe the roles of the teacher in CLT as follows:

The teacher has two main roles: the first role is to facilitate the communication process....The second role is to act as an independent participant within the learning - teaching group ... These roles imply a set of secondary roles for the teacher ; first, as an organizer of resources and as a resource himself , second as a guide within the classroom procedures and activities....A third role for the teacher is that of researcher... (Breen and Candlin, 1980 : 99).

Richards and Rodgers (1986) identified other roles for teachers such as "needs analyst, counselor, and group process manager" (1986:77).

From the above, it appears that there is consensus among researchers regarding the teacher's role as a negotiator, organiser, needs analyst, counsellor, researcher,

learning process facilitator, classroom manager, advisor and a guide. Thus, the students' talking time is very great. CLT is called a student-centred approach since the language learner is the centre of the whole learning process.

3.9.3.4 Features and Principles of CLT

The main principles of CLT can be summarised as follows: -

- Language acquisition is seen as a creative process, not as a habit formation as in audiolingualism. CLT rejects the idea of language learning by the stimulus-response process.
- Communicative competence, as Widdowson (1984) stated, includes both usage and use. This approach does not deny the importance of mastering grammatical rules as long as they are taught as a means of carrying out meaningful communication.
- In contrast to the audio-lingual method, CLT gives priority to the semantic content of language learning. Pupils learn the grammatical forms through the meaning.
- CLT provides learners with communicative functions (uses) and notions (semantic themes and language items). These functions reflect the real-life use of the language, as they are usually associated with real situations and with pupils' needs and interests.
- CLT sets realistic learning tasks and activities that create situations in which questions must be asked, information recorded, information recovered from text, knowledge, ideas, reminiscences exchanged, emotions and attitudes expressed and in which language skills must be used (Levin, 1972).
- As the main aim of this approach is to prepare learners for meaningful communication, errors should be tolerated. Learners are encouraged to risk errors in communicating their ideas and thoughts. Fluency is emphasised over

accuracy "Errors are seen as a natural outcome of the development of communication skills" (Larsen- Freeman, 1986: 127)

- The teacher is not the centre of all classroom activities. The focus in CLT is on the pupils' interests and abilities. Learners are active participants, not passive as in the audio-lingual method.
- The four skills - listening, speaking, reading and writing - are emphasised. All the skills are integrated in every lesson.
- Authentic material should be used to overcome the problem that learners cannot transfer what they learn in the classroom to the outside world. Examples of authentic materials are newspaper articles, radio bulletins, weather forecasts, menus, timetables, etc.
- Language games are frequently used because students find them enjoyable. Morrow (in Johnson and Morrow, 1981) claims that games have three features of communication: 1) information gap (the speaker knows something the listener does not); 2) choice (the speaker chooses the appropriate form to convey his meaning); and 3) feedback (the speaker receives feedback from the listener and after considering it, the speaker can revise the form of the message if necessary).
- Role-plays are very important as they provide language learners with an opportunity to practise communication in different social contexts.
- It is also suggested by Littlewood (1992) that pair work and group work play an important role in encouraging learners to use language for communication. The teacher is not the only one who directs and controls communication in the classroom. It is the learners who should take over and converse in the target language.

Under the influence of CLT, language teaching has made a lot of progress. Swan (1990) admits that:

Syllabus design has become a good deal more sophisticated, and we are able to give our students a better and more complete picture than before of how language is used. In methodology, the change has been dramatic. The boring and mechanical exercise types which were so common ten or fifteen years ago have virtually disappeared, to be replaced by a splendid variety of exciting and engaging practice activities ... such progress in course design has resulted in a real improvement in the speed and quality of language learning (Swan, 1990: 73 - 74).

3.9.3.5 Shortcomings

Despite these merits, and despite the superiority of CLT over other language teaching approaches that lies in its focus on language functions, meaning and communicative competence, this approach has some drawbacks. Swan (1990) has summarised its shortcomings:

- One of the basic doctrines of CLT is 'rules of use' or 'rules of communication' which determine the understanding of various utterances. Swan (1990:75) argues that "Neither Wilkins nor Widdowson makes it clear what form such rules might take, and so it is a little difficult to deal adequately with the argument ". For Widdowson (1978), this is left to the teacher who is responsible for teaching this kind of knowledge. Swan (1990) stresses the fact that rules of use are non-language specific and that the value of the utterance is given by the interaction of its structural and lexical meaning with the situation in which it is used.
- The concept of 'appropriacy', which means that our choice of language is determined by the situation, and the relationship with the listener is over-valued. For Swan (1990) 'appropriacy' is not "a new dimension of meaning, to be added

everywhere to lexical and structural meaning. It is a category that applies to certain items only: the same kind of thing as 'animate', 'countable', or 'transitive' ... Items such as the imperative, *had better*, *bloody*, *I want*, *get* are marked for appropriacy in one way or the other, ... But most items are not so marked” (Swan,1990: 79).

- Teaching certain skills and strategies like 'predicting', 'negotiating meaning' and 'guessing' has been criticised by Swan (ibid). Swan argues that native speakers make predictions, but they are not trained or taught to do so. What a language learner needs to be able to predict is “something about the subject matter, and something about the speaker or writer and if he knows enough of the language, then the foreigner is just as likely as the native speaker to predict what will be said” (Swan, 1990: 81). Language learners know how to negotiate meaning, and they can guess, since they have been used to practising it in their L1, but when these expressions are conveyed in the target language, they might not be socially acceptable or may be considered rude.
- In CLT, meanings rather than structures, are given priority. Rules of structure can be taught by means of functions and notions. Language learners may not have all the appropriate structures that they need in real communication as a result of depending on learning structures through functions. This may lead learners to make generalisations that a certain grammatical form is used to express only one function. Sometimes there are certain difficult structures which teachers may not be able to isolate and practise before the students use them in a communicative task. Swan (1990:88) remarks “It is no use making meaning tidy if grammar then becomes so untidy that it cannot be learnt properly”. As Brumfit (1978) points out in his review of Wilkin’s *Notional syllabus*, the teaching of functions and notions cannot replace the teaching of grammar.

- The use of questions to elicit feedback like: 'Is this my book?', 'What am I doing?' was criticised, as they do not represent real-life communication. The teacher knows the answers to such questions, whereas in real-life communication, people ask questions to which they do not know the answer. As Swan (1990:93) argues, language learners may go out of the classroom “believing, for instance, that English-speaking people are always asking questions to which they already know the answers”.
- A successful application of CLT requires the availability of classroom that allows for group work, pupil-pupil interaction and teaching aids and materials. Unfortunately these classrooms are rarely available. Another requirement is a competent teacher who can handle all the audiolingual techniques. Al-Mutawa and Kailani (1989:26) claim that “In the Arab world such teachers are scarce. Consequently, we cannot expect adequate application of the communicative methodology”. Jordan can be said to be a typical Arab country where, as a result of having weak English department graduates, it might be difficult to find such competent English language teachers.

Medgyes (1990:107) criticises CLT textbook material. He states that “It is too general, boring, stuffed with cliché’ characters, it usually restricts activity to language presentation and controlled practice instead of stimulating real interaction”.

Finally, the over-emphasis of CLT on language functions is another weakness. This leads syllabus designers to develop these syllabuses that focus on functions at the expense of language forms. Furthermore, sometimes these language functions are not well -presented in their textbooks.

Despite all of the above drawbacks, it would be unfair to underestimate the value and the contribution that the CLT approach has made to second language

acquisition, in terms of its focus on the importance of meaning, negotiation of meaning, language functions, role-plays and many other of its merits.

3.9.4 Current teaching method in Jordan

In view of national and international developments in education, a new English language curriculum was developed in the early 1980s in Jordan. The Basic Stage syllabus is called PETRA (Progress in English Through Relevant Activities For Jordan), whereas the Secondary Stage is called AMRA (Advance Through More Relevant Activities). The general and specific objectives of teaching English in Jordan are stated in “explicit, realistic and functional terms within the rationale of an eclectic approach based on the findings of the psychological research. It has adopted a learner-centred approach with a notional-functional orientation, paying special attention to content and values, recommended methods and techniques, for teaching English language skills to Jordanian learners and suggested methods for evaluation” (Jayyusi et al., 1990: 1).

Jayyusi et al. (ibid: 55) also believe that “there is no single 'magic' method that works best with all kinds of learners in all kinds of situations”. The main focus of this newly-introduced curriculum is 'communicative techniques' and teachers are advised to be eclectic.

Cobb et al. (1990: iiiiv-ix) in PETRA Grade 6 teacher's book stated the features of the methodology adopted in the curriculum:

1. Teacher demonstrates and organises roles.
2. All the major skills are integrated.
3. Presentation and practice of language occurs within meaningful context.
4. Language is presented in dialogues.
5. Classes should be organised into open and closed pairs
6. Vocabulary should be taught in context.

7. Group work should be emphasised.

8. Language games should be used.

The above features are very accurate in describing the method adopted as "eclectic", but I can say that neither classroom practices nor the textbooks are supporting this view. For details see section 1.1. The syllabus of the secondary stage concentrates on reading comprehension, grammar, language functions and writing exercises with little emphasis on speaking. Language functions are not presented clearly. Speaking exercises are also presented without enabling exercises, which would help the learners communicate freely after internalising the language forms and functions. The second secondary class textbook, starts each unit with a comprehension passage, a list of the grammar points and language functions used, vocabulary exercises, followed by a writing task. It might be claimed that while learners are answering reading comprehension questions, they are speaking. Or it might be claimed that teachers are able to use the textbook to design communicative tasks that will suit the learners' needs and levels. Answering comprehension questions will not enable language learners to communicate in real-life situations. On the other hand, not all teachers are qualified to deal with the textbook and the teaching material available in a communicative way or to design communicative tasks as expected. So we may say that these materials are communicative to some extent, but that they do not conform to "the best of current teaching techniques and blends these with the more communicative techniques" (Cobb, et al., 1990: viii). See the sample unit, Appendix XII).

The main features of the English language curriculum of the Basic Stage (grades 5-10) in Jordan focus on language functions and notions. Although functions are overemphasised, English language learners in Jordan are not often able to express themselves or to use language to express meaning and functions. Ibrahim (1983), Zughoul (1983,1987) and Mukattash (1983) support this view. However in contrast to the curriculum of the Secondary Stage, the Basic Stage curriculum may be

described as a weak version of CLT "eclectic method" because of the existence of dialogues, and the emphasis on pair and group work. Due to the fact that the language functions are not presented appropriately, however, the curriculum does not produce good language users.

3.9.5 Summary

All English language teaching methods have merits and demerits. As teachers we should be acquainted with all of them, for it is the responsibility of the teachers to decide which method is appropriate for which learning situation. We must bear in mind the fact that both form and meaning are very important, and that one should not be overemphasised at the expense of the other. As language teachers, our ultimate aim should be to produce a language acquirer who can communicate effectively and successfully in a real-life situation. According to the Ministry of Education curriculum, teachers should thus be eclectic in teaching English. Unfortunately, this has not produced good language acquirers or promoted communicative competence. Mukattash (1983:169) attributed the fact of the learners' inability to express themselves to the "students' deficiency in communicative competence and self-expression". There may be a number of reasons for this. The teachers may not be competent or fluent enough in the language to help their learners. There may be problems with the curriculum or the methodology. In our opinion, both these problems exist, and there is an additional problem in the lack of an English environment. Students have no opportunities to use the English language outside the classroom.

These might be the reasons for the school curriculum's failure to produce competent language users. When they communicate, school graduates and English department students make many types of error and they resort to CSs when they encounter a language difficulty.

The eclectic method stresses the ‘target language approach’ in the practices of the EFL classroom. Swan (1990) argues that mother tongue is a central element in the process of learning a foreign language since for example, some German verbs and pronouns are similar to English. This is not the case with Arabic, since there are so many differences between English and Arabic. Sentence order in English is different. The sentence structure in English is (subject + verb), but in Arabic it is (verb + subject). The excessive use of Arabic native language in English language classes that occurs in Jordan is one the reasons for the weakness of school graduates. Unfortunately, as my teaching experience shows, the target language is not used 100% in the English language classroom in the Arab world, particularly in Jordan, because teachers use Arabic to explain literature and grammatical items.

Communication implies that learners are willing to take risks in communicating their ideas. During the communication process, language users might face difficulties. To solve these communication problems, especially when they lack a target language item, they resort to communication strategies.

The focus of this research is communication strategies, so the theories of second language acquisition that are relevant to the study of communication strategies will be discussed in the following section. These theories are the mentalist theory, interlanguage theory, Bialystok's theory and Krashen's theory.

3.10 Second Language Acquisition

Ellis does not agree that ‘second’ contrasts with ‘foreign’. He defines L2 acquisition as “the way in which people learn a language other than their mother tongue inside or outside of a classroom” (Ellis, 1997:3). According to Ellis, whether learners are learning English as a foreign or as a second language, this is referred to as ‘Second Language Acquisition’.

There are several language learning theories that deal with second and foreign language acquisition as their main concern. These will be discussed in detail in the following sections.

3.10.1 Mentalist Theory

As a result of the inadequacies of the behaviourist explanation of L2 acquisition, researchers looked for an alternative theoretical framework. They switched their attention to how the innate properties of the human mind shape learning. In the 1960s and 1970s, a mentalist theory of L1 acquisition emerged which gave birth to the Communicative Language Teaching Approach. Chomsky (1959) seriously attacked the behaviourist ideas of language. He argued that human behaviour is specific to humans and may never be explained with reference to animal behaviour. He added that the conclusions that Skinner drew from laboratory experiments with animals could not lead to conclusions about human behaviour. Before 1960, the emphasis was on the external factors that influence the language learning process, but after Chomsky's (1959) Skinner-review, the contribution of the main factor, the child itself, began to play a dominant role.

Chomsky's transformation-generative grammar (TG) was a source of inspiration for many different aspects of language learning research. According to TG, the ability to learn language is innate. The human mind is equipped with a faculty for learning language which is referred to as Language Acquisition Device or LAD. This faculty enables the child to make hypotheses about the structure of the language. This process is not conscious. The hypotheses that the child subconsciously establishes are tested in its use of language and consciously matched with the new linguistic input which the child obtains by listening to what is said in the environment. This causes the child to change and adapt its hypotheses on the structure of language frequently. The child's rule system develops, through processes of systematic changes, towards the adult rule system.

According to Chomsky (1980), linguistics is the study of one capacity of the "mental organ":

I would like to think of linguistics as that part of psychology that focuses its attention on one specific cognitive domain and one faculty of mind, the language faculty. Psychology in the sense of this discussion is concerned, at the very least, with human capacities to act and to interpret experience and more deeply, with second order capacity to construct these mental structures and the structures that underlie these second order capacities (Chomsky, 1980:4).

This view of the language learning process emphasises the mental activities of the language learners and reduces the significance of such external factors as imitation, frequency of stimulus and reinforcement. Mentalist theories emphasise the importance of the learner's 'black box'. They claim that learners' brains are equipped to learn language, and that what is needed is minimal exposure to input in order to trigger acquisition. Blumenthal (1970: 87) argues that the child's speech is "based on the continuing interaction of external impressions with internal systems".

However, Van Els et al. (1984:31) consider the mentalist theories "have generally paid very scant attention indeed to the actual course language development takes".

3.10.2 Interlanguage theory

Selinker (1972) introduced the term interlanguage and identified five central processes involved in second-language learning.

1. *Language transfer*: some rules or items of the interlanguage may be as a result of the native language.

2. *Transfer of training*. Some items or elements of the interlanguage may result from training procedures.
3. *Strategies of second language learning*: Some elements are as a result of an approach used by the learner to the material to be learned.
4. *Strategies of second-language communication*: Some elements result from ways of communicating with native speakers of the target language.
5. *Overgeneralization of target language linguistic material*: Some elements may be the product of overgeneralization of rules and semantic features of the target language. Selinker (1972:127) claimed that these processes control “to a very large extent the surface structures” of the speakers' utterances.

Several authors have attempted to define ‘interlanguage’ (IL). For example, Ellis defined ‘interlanguage’ as a “mental system of L2 knowledge” (1997:31), and he considered it as a “unique linguistic system” (ibid:33). According to Adjemian (1976), interlanguages are "systematic, permeable" and relatively "stable". Adjemian (1976) argued that IL rules which are stable are systematic. Fossilisation and backsliding are evidence of the notion of stability. Selinker et al. (1975) argued that an analysis of children’s speech revealed a definite *systematicity* in the interlanguage. The learner draws on the rules he has learned (interlanguage) and produces utterances in much the same way as the native speaker draws on linguistic competence. For Ellis (1994), interlanguage is systematic because “Learners behave ‘systematically’ in the sense that they draw on the rules they have internalized” (1994:352). Selinker (1972) believed that interlanguage referred to an interim grammar that is a single system consisting of rules that have been developed via various cognitive processes such as transfer, overgeneralisation, simplification and the correct understanding of the target language.

In contrast to Selinker’s cognitive emphasis, Adjemian (1976) argued that the *systematicity* of interlanguage should be analysed linguistically as rule-governed behaviour as in any natural language system; interlanguage can be idealised linguistically. Adjemian also maintained that interlanguage systems are thought to be

by their nature “incomplete and in a state of flux” (1976:308). This means that they are *permeable*. The individual’s first language system is seen to be relatively stable, but the interlanguage is not. It can be 'invaded' by new linguistic forms and rules which may be derived by means of transfer from L1, and overgeneralisation, or externally, by means of exposure to target language input.

Corder (1967) suggested the term “transitional competence” to refer to the fact that learners pass through a number of stages in the process of acquiring the ‘interlanguage’. This series of stages comprises the ‘interlanguage continuum’, i.e. learners construct their grammar as they gradually increase their L2 knowledge. He saw errors as the systematic product of this competence. He drew a distinction between mistakes and errors, the first being the unsystematic product of the performance caused by memory lapses, tiredness, etc. This view was quite the opposite of the structuralists' view of errors, which Brooks (1960) considered them to be unacceptable. But Corder (ibid) considered them to be an inevitable part of the dynamic process.

Tarone (1979) maintained that the interlanguage involves a *stylistic continuum*. She argued that L2 learners develop a capability for using it which consists of a number of different ‘styles’. At one end is the careful style, when learners pay a great deal of attention to linguistic forms. Learners feel that they want to be ‘correct’. At the other end is the vernacular style, when learners are producing natural, spontaneous, unmonitored speech. Learners are unconsciously using linguistic forms as in free conversation.

Tarone’s idea explains why learner language is variable. It suggests that interlanguage grammars are constructed according to the same principles used by a native speaker. Nonetheless, her model has some problems as Tarone herself acknowledged. First, later research shows that learners produce more utterances in the vernacular style than in the careful style. Ellis (1997) states that there is another problem with Tarone’s model: “the role of social factors remains unclear”. He argues that native speakers shift

their styles according to the addressee. If the addressee is 'familiar', they use the vernacular style, but if the addressee is 'non – familiar' they use the careful style. In this view, style shifting is natural among native language speakers and it reflects the social group they belong to. However, this is not necessarily the case for L2 learners (Ellis, 1997: 38).

Giles's (1984) *accommodation theory* suggests that social factors influence interlanguage development via the impact they have on the attitudes that decide the kinds of language use learners engage in. He maintains that 'social accommodation' plays an important role. For example, when people interact with each other, they either try to produce similar speech to that of their addressees, to emphasise their social cohesiveness, or to make it different, in order to emphasise their social difference.

Selinker (1972) hypothesised that interlanguages result from different psychological mechanisms and that they are not natural languages. In contrast, Adjemian (1976) and Tarone (1979) viewed interlanguages as operating according to the same principles as natural languages. They obey the constraints of the same language universals and they are subject to analyses by means of standard linguistic techniques. But Tarone differed from Adjemian in that she emphasised the notion of variability in use and the constraints that determine how language is used in context.

Interlanguage systems may fossilise. We always expect L2 learners to progress so that their interlanguage becomes closer to the target language system and contains fewer errors. Unfortunately, some errors never disappear from the L2 learner's interlanguage. These errors may be referred to as fossilised. This means that they become a permanent feature of the L2 learner's speech. Selinker (1972) used the term '*fossilization*' to refer to the case when "Linguistic items, rules and subsystems which speakers of a particular NL will tend to keep in their IL relative to a particular TL, no matter what the age of the learner or amount of explanation and instruction he receives in the TL" (Selinker, 1972: 215). According to Selinker, '*fossilization*' results from

language transfer (e. g., French uvular /r/ in their English). Also, the Arabic “b” which is used to replace “p” can be seen as an example of fossilisation. Selinker and Lamendella (1978) came to the conclusion that there is no single cause: both internal and external factors play a role. Higgs and Clefford (1982) suggested that communicative pressure plays a role in fossilisation, in that persistent pressure to communicate ideas by using language that exceeds the learner’s linguistic competence leads to fossilisation. Bickerton (1975) maintains that when learners lack opportunities for receiving input and also for using L2, they will have fossilised language items in their speech.

Fossilisation may also occur as a result of other processes. McLaughlin (1987) argues that communication strategies can cause fossilisation in the sense that they may make L2 learners stop learning the language and reduce their awareness to their utterances, since they have learned enough to communicate. Mukattash (1986) conducted a study which identified a number of persistent errors in the writing production of 80 students at a Jordanian University. The subjects of the study had an average of 11 years of learning English as a foreign language. Examples of these errors were the use of the simple past instead of the simple present, the deletion of the verb ‘to be’ and the retention of pronominal reflexes in relative clauses. He found that neither error correction nor explicit grammatical explanation had any effect on these errors. This study supports the view that certain fossilised errors cannot be easily corrected.

Interlanguage theory explains how L2 acquisition takes place. It comprises elements from mentalist theories of linguistics (e.g., LAD) and elements from cognitive psychology (e.g., “Learning Strategies”). In contrast to Krashen’s Monitor theory, the Interlanguage Theory has had a relatively minor impact on pedagogy. Because it is concerned with describing a limited range of second language phenomena, Interlanguage Theory is an intermediate level theory since it deals with *systematicity*,

variability and the *role of transfer*. It is also intermediate in that it does not explain why things take place (McLaughlin, 1987).

Typically, learners use a variety of CSs as part of their interlanguage as a result of their limited linguistic resources. To some extent, this study describes learners' interlanguage, part of which is the use of communication strategies (For details see Chapter Six).

3.10.3 Bialystok's Model of Second Language Acquisition

Bialystok (1978) hypothesised that instruction facilitates language acquisition by providing learners with conscious rules and practice that enable them to change their conscious knowledge into automatic knowledge. This is called interface hypothesis. Bialystok maintains that there is 'learned' (explicit) knowledge and 'acquired' (implicit) knowledge. According to this theory, implicit knowledge is developed by maximising exposure to the target language, and is facilitated by 'functional practising'. This means that language is acquired through its use and practice. However, this theory is different from that of Krashen in the fact that it allows for interaction between implicit and explicit knowledge. 'Formal practising' enables explicit knowledge to become implicit, while inferencing allows explicit knowledge to be derived from implicit knowledge. It distinguishes two types of output: Type I: 'spontaneous and immediate' and Type II: 'deliberate and occurs after delay' (Bialystok, 1978: 74). Speaking may force the production of Type I responses because of its demands of fluency. Reading, on the other hand, may force the production of Type II since it is possible to review the written material. The feedback from both types of output allows for continual modification of response.

Bialystok (1983, 1985, 1990, 1991) continued to refine her theory. According to Bialystok (1990), there are two processing components which are responsible for language acquisition. These are '*analysis of linguistic knowledge*' and '*control of linguistic processing*'. The 'analysis' component refers to "the process of structuring

mental representations of language which are organized at the level of meanings (knowledge of the world) into explicit representations of structure organized at the level of symbols (forms)” (Bialystok, 1990:118). Control of linguistic processing means the ability to “control attention to relevant and appropriate information and to integrate those forms in real time” (ibid:125). Her theory is relevant to this study because it incorporates CSs.

Bialystok (1983) distinguishes between two types of CS ‘analysis based’ and ‘control-based’. An *analysis-based strategy* is used when L2 learners resort to conceptual knowledge for certain vocabulary items. The strategies that are included are circumlocution, paraphrase, transliteration, and word coinage. These strategies are used to represent the distinctive features and properties of the target item. *Control – based strategy* means:

"the manipulation of form of expression through attention to different sources of information.....communication is achieved by holding..... intention but altering the means of reference. Examples of these strategies are language switch and mime" (Bialystok, 1990:133).

According to Bialystok (1985), the degree of explicitness or implicitness of one’s knowledge depends on the task at hand. Depending on the task pursued, the speaker may use ‘a lot of control’ or ‘little control’. Bialystok and Sharwood Smith claim that ‘automaticity’ or ‘fluency’ can best be explained when participants in interactional conversation call for their unanalysed implicit knowledge of the language (1985:109). In this case, as Bialystok claims, there is little control involved and therefore speech is highly automatic. L1 speakers are always automatic in their production.

Brown (1980) has identified five strategies for reading. These are, 1. Clarifying the purpose of reading, 2. Identifying important aspects of the message, 3. Focusing attention on major aspects, not trivia, 4. Monitoring comprehension and 5. Taking corrective action if failure occurs. According to Bialystok (1990:137), clarifying and

identifying are *analysis-based strategies*, while focusing attention and monitoring are *control-based strategies*. Taking corrective action, if failure occurs, depends on both analysis and control.

Children's L1 acquisition starts by gathering different types of knowledge about the system, functions and their roles in interpersonal communication, procedures for using the system and larger stretches of language. For Bialystok, the "origin of this knowledge is their experiences in hearing and using language in context" (Bialystok, 1990:119).

Bialystok and Sharwood Smith call the ability to retrieve one's knowledge of the language control, which involves: "(1) Knowing the procedure for retrieving information and (2) the speed and efficiency with which the retrieval procedure may be put into operation" (1985:105). Their view supports Faerch and Kasper's in their article '*Plans and strategies in Foreign Language Communication*'. They identified different types of communication strategies including avoidance strategies and achievement strategies. When L2 learners have difficulty in retrieving a specific IL item while executing a plan, they may adopt achievement strategy to "get at the problematic item" (1983a:52). They referred to these as 'retrieval strategies'.

Bialystok and Sharwood Smith (1985) and Faerch and Kasper (1983a) emphasise the importance of retrieval strategies in executing plans to achieve certain communicative goals.

Bialystok's model is very important as it clarifies the following points. First, we get to know that children acquire their L1 in an unanalysed way with little control. Second, adults or L2 learners carry out different degrees of analysis and rely on different levels of control of their performance. Third, it identifies the communication strategies that are used by L2 learners: (a) knowledge-based strategies (e.g., word coinage,

circumlocution) and (b) control-based strategies (e.g., inclusion of L1 items and gestures).

3.10.4 Krashen's Monitor Theory

The best-known theory of L2 acquisition is that of Krashen (1982). Five hypotheses constitute Krashen's Monitor Theory: the Acquisition-Learning Hypothesis, the Monitor Hypothesis, the Natural Order Hypothesis, the Input Hypothesis and the Affective Filter Hypothesis.

Krashen (1982) and Krashen and Terrell (1984) presented the applications of the Monitor Model to language teaching and learning. One of their main proposals was that the focus of language teaching should not be rule-learning, but communication. Language can be acquired in the classroom when the focus is on communication. For example, dialogues, role-playing and other forms of meaningful interaction make learners use the language. Acquisition comes about through meaningful 'interaction' in the target language in which "speakers are not concerned with the form of their utterances but with the messages they are conveying and understanding" (Krashen, 1981:1).

The Monitor Hypothesis appears relevant to this study since it implies that during the communication process, or the 'production stage', as it is called by Faerch and Kasper (1983a), learners exercise control over the language produced either in order to correct their mistakes and to rephrase, or to rearrange their thoughts. This hypothesis is described in detail below.

3.10.4.1 The Monitor Hypothesis

The Monitor Hypothesis states that 'learning has only one function, and that is as a monitor or editor', and that learning comes into play to make changes in the form of the learner's utterance after it has been 'produced' by the 'acquired system' (Krashen, 1985: 15). He claims that utterances are initiated by the 'acquired system'. Krashen

(1982) argues that the monitor is responsible for altering the output of the acquired system in order to improve accuracy in target language forms. Krashen's point is that conscious knowledge of rules does not lead to acquisition, but only enables the learners to 'polish up' what has been acquired through communication in the target language.

The work of the monitor, then, is to act as an editor that is consciously controlled, and that makes changes to the form of the utterances produced by acquisition. Krashen (1982:16) identified three conditions for the use of the monitor:

1. *Time*. L2 learners need sufficient time to think about and use conscious rules effectively.
2. *Focus on Form*: The performer must be focused on *form* or thinking about correctness.
3. *Know the rule*: The performer must know the rules. The structure of language is extremely complex. So even the best students do not learn every rule they are exposed to. The monitor does best with rules that are simple in two ways. They must be simple to describe, and they must not require complex movements and rearrangements.

The Monitor Hypothesis has been criticised because the use of the monitor has not been proved. Several studies were conducted to investigate the use of the monitor. When the subjects were focused on form this did not result in the use of the monitor (Houck et al., 1978; Krashen et al. 1978). Seliger (1979) concluded that the monitor cannot be thought to be representative of the learner's internal conscious knowledge of the target language grammar. People have rules in their heads as McLaughlin suggests. People sometimes use these rules consciously and sometimes unconsciously "But in any given utterances it is impossible to determine what the knowledge source is.... the Monitor Hypothesis is unstable"(1987:30).

Krashen (1979) argues that children are superior language learners because they do not use the monitor. McLaughlin claims that there is no evidence to support this argument. He maintains that research into syntactic and semantic variables repeatedly supports the argument that "older learners are better both in terms of rate and ultimate attainment. It is only in the area of phonological development that younger children do better" (McLaughlin, 1987: 29). According to McLaughlin (ibid), the second problem with Krashen's argument is that it assumes that the use of the monitor interferes with performance. This argument is based on unproven assumptions since many language learners "would argue that knowing and applying the rules helps them perform better, though they might be slowed down"(29).

Despite these criticisms of Krashen's Monitor theory, it makes a considerable contribution to language teaching and learning. Krashen (1982) argues that the monitor is responsible for altering output. This is related to the use of communication strategies when language users encounter a difficulty during communication. It is then the responsibility of the monitor to look for a solution, and the solution might be resorting to a particular communication strategy. Krashen's monitor hypothesis is therefore related to this study as it includes the use of CSs.

3.10.5 Summary

The theories of second language acquisition discussed have all made major contributions to the understanding of foreign or second language learning. Each theory helps to construct a complete body of second language acquisition research. For example, the Behaviourist theory emphasis on reinforcement is considered to be a major contribution to the study of second language acquisition. Positive reinforcement plays an important role in the acquisition of correct forms. The most important contribution of the Mentalist theory is in identifying the Language Acquisition Device (LAD). An emphasis on the exposure to the target language is one of its basic principles. Research has shown that exposure to the target language triggers acquisition. The Interlanguage Theory sheds light on the learners' errors and second language communication strategies. Bialystok's model

stresses the fact that there is an interaction between explicit knowledge and implicit knowledge. Above all, Krashen's Monitor Model has made a significant contribution to the overall body of theories of second language acquisition despite the criticisms that have been levelled at it. Its five hypotheses are considered to be an excellent explanation of how language is acquired. In this chapter, we have discussed the Monitor hypothesis because it appears to be relevant to the study of CSs. The monitor works as an editor that controls and edits all the language forms that are supposed to be produced. Another important contribution of Krashen's Monitor theory is that the Natural Approach based its assumptions and principles on it. It is the only language teaching approach that bases its principles on a language learning theory.

In this chapter we have discussed the nature of communication, and differentiated between the different pedagogical models of communication. These models were then explained in relation to the purpose of our research and the tasks used for eliciting the learners' strategic behaviour. We have also examined the CLT approach. We then related CLT to the Mentalist language learning theory. Interlanguage theory has also been discussed. Models of second language acquisition, especially those of Krashen and Bialystok, have been highlighted.

In the next two chapters we shall review the literature concerned with communication strategies. In Chapter four, we shall present a brief overview of the history of CS research, definitions of CSs, methods used to elicit data and identification procedures of CSs. Then the taxonomies of CSs proposed so far will be discussed in detail. Finally, problems with these taxonomies and the classification of CSs will be presented. In Chapter Five, previous studies conducted on communication strategies are reviewed and discussed under different headings according to the research interest.

Communication Strategies

4.1 Introduction

Speakers use communication strategies in both their native language and target language, but they use more CSs when they are communicating in the target language. It is the aim of this chapter to present a historical overview of CS research, definitions offered of CSs, different taxonomies, data elicitation methods, data analysis procedures, problems of taxonomies and classification of CSs, and teachability issues, in order to identify the research gap and attempt to fill it. Empirical CS research will also be presented and discussed in Chapter Five for the same purpose.

4.2 A Brief Historical Overview

Selinker (1972), in his paper “Interlanguage”, suggested the term ‘strategies of second language communication’ to refer to the ways in which foreign or second language learners deal with the difficulties they encounter during the course of communication when their linguistic resources are inadequate. 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 in communicative language teaching and testing. A year later, Varadi (1973/1980) gave a talk at a small European conference which was considered the first systematic analysis of strategic language behaviour. This talk dealt 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 (ibid) 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)” and that 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).

Varadi (ibid) carried out a small-scale experiment on 18 Hungarian English language learners in order to investigate the adjustment phenomenon. 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 CSs definition and typology on data 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 as one of the constituents of the sub-competencies - strategic competence. In Canale and Swain (ibid) 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” (30).

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 previous taxonomies and proposed a new taxonomy (e.g., Poulisse, 1987; Poulisse, 1990; Poulisse and Schils, 1989; Kellerman, Ammerlaan, Bongaerts and Poulisse, 1990).

These areas will be discussed under the headings of the following sections. Communication strategies will be defined. Data collection methodology, identification procedures, approaches to the study of communication strategies and taxonomies, and the teachability issue will be discussed in detail.

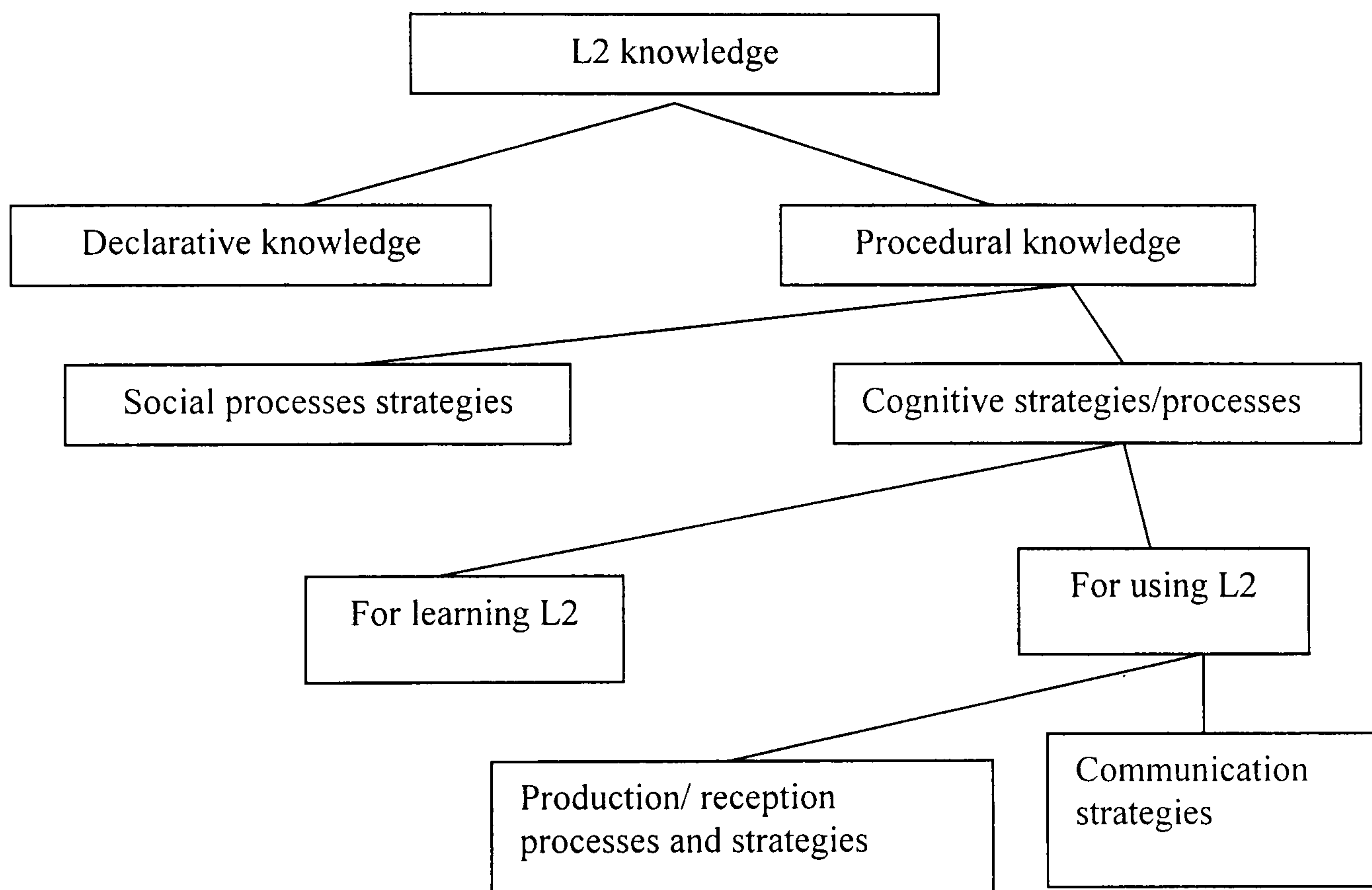
4.3 Defining communication strategies

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 consists of 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: 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 (4.1) below.

A distinction should be drawn here between learning strategies and communication strategies. Learning strategies are attempts 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 (4.1) Types of L2 knowledge



(Adapted from Ellis, 1985, p.165)

What distinction can then be drawn between strategy and process? Selinker (1972) uses the term strategy to refer to a sub-category of “five central processes”, two of which are ‘learning strategies’ and ‘communication strategies’. Blum-Kulka and Levenston (1978) in their article “Universals of lexical simplification”, suggest that *strategy* refers to “the way the learner arrives at a certain usage at a specific point in time” while *process* refers to “the systematic series of steps by which the learner arrives at the same usage over time” (p.402). Strategies are isolated occurrences. For example, a learner may use a strategy of simplification

to solve a communication problem encountered at a specific moment. When second language learners lack the correct word for *rose*, they may say *pretty flowers*. This would be the *strategy* of simplification. The repeated occurrence of such instances can be considered the *process* of simplification.

Many writers have noticed that it is difficult to distinguish between strategies and processes. For example, Bialystok (1983: 100) notes that there is "confusion in the literature between strategies and processes", and she does not suggest a solution to that problem. But later Bialystok (1990:24) distinguishes processes from strategies by means of two criteria: optional and obligatory. Processes are obligatory whereas strategies are optional. She finds that learners' attempts to communicate are systematic "both in the process of generating the communication and in the product that results". She comes to the conclusion that strategies of communication and the processes of communication are possibly "not different events".

Wagner (1983:159-160) appears to make no distinction between *process* and *strategy* when he says "one has so far analysed the product, the utterance, but not the process by which it is brought about. The statements on communication strategies are, however, hypotheses about the underlying process". According to Wagner (ibid) it is this 'disparity' that makes it difficult to identify and delimit different communication strategies. Dechert (1983) uses the notion "strategy" to refer to procedures involved in using language. He cites Simon's (1979, p.85) definition of procedures as strategies which are a means for "performing a task as being composed of a fixed set of elementary information processes that are evoked by both aspects of the internal environment and the external representation of the problem". It appears here that strategies/procedures are superordinate to processes.

As there is no consensus in the literature on the distinction between *process* and *strategy*, in this thesis we have chosen the distinctions made by Bialystok (1990),

Faerch and Kasper (1983a), Blum-Kulka and Levenston (1978) as the most appropriate to be used in the interpretation of these terms in this thesis.

Though not many writers offer a definition of 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 speakers and non-native speakers, and both speakers and hearers 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 the limited resources L2 learners possess, they 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 individual's 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 speaker's (and hearer's) 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 conscious employment by verbal or non-verbal mechanisms for communicating an idea when precise linguistic forms are for some reasons not available to the learner at that point in communication. (Brown, 1987: 180).

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. Tarone’s (1977), Faerch and Kasper’s (1983a), and Brown’s (1987) definitions emphasise the idea that CSs may be used consciously. Faerch and Kasper (1983a) see problem orientation and potential consciousness as 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 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 learner’s control over a repertoire of strategies so that a particular one is used from certain options to achieve certain effects. But she concludes: “the intentionality of communication strategies is questionable” (1990:5).

The most appropriate and useful definition for the present study is the one provided by Faerch and Kasper (1983a:36) "CSs are 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 language users encounter. In order for them to achieve their communicative goals when they encounter a problem, language users 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.

4.4 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 (4.2).

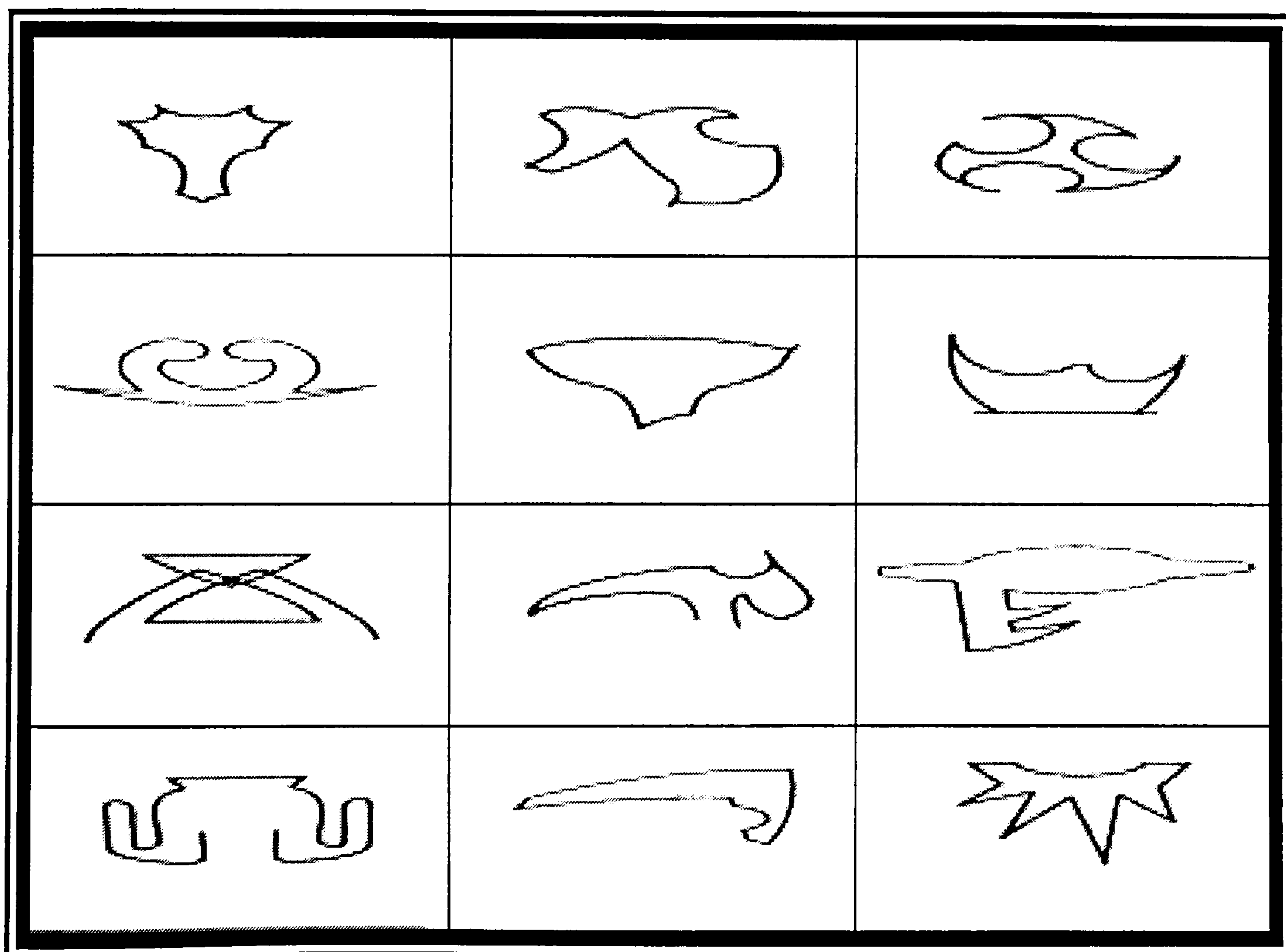


Figure (4.2) Bongaerts and Poulisse's picture description task (1989:259)

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 Sharzad, 1992), or learners are asked to retell a story they have already heard in L1 (e. g., 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 et al., 1990, Klosek, 1982, Corrales and Emily, 1989, Poulisse, 1989 and Liskin-Gasparro,1996).

Sometimes telephone conversation tasks are used. For example, Green (1995) asked the subjects to assume the role of a German on holiday in England with three friends. The task was to make a telephone call to the warden of the youth hostel in York... etc. “The part of the warden was recorded on a tape, together

with genuine coin box dialling noises to enhance their sense of reality" (Green, 1995: 78).

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 even 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).

In this study, three CLT classroom tasks which have real-life characteristics were used to elicit the strategic behaviour of the subjects. These tasks are: an object-identification task, a story-telling task and a role-play task. There was control over the language to be used by the subjects in performing the tasks, but they were given the freedom to express these language items in the way they wanted in order to pass the message on to the listener. (For details of task design, see sections 6.6.1 and 6.7.3).

4.5 Identification procedures of CSs

Communication strategies as defined in this study are seen as different methods used by language learners of coping with the problems they encounter. The use of such strategies is an indication of having a problem in communication. Identifying these CSs is in itself a problem. How can we decide whether a certain utterance includes a CS use or not?

Researchers have found that certain strategies cannot easily be defined. For example, Faerch et al. (1984) see that achievement strategies cannot always be identified in the learner's performance. They believe that "a fair amount of interpretation is needed". We can obtain more valid results if we consult the learner after performing the task by asking her/him about the problems she/he experienced and how she/he solved them. This is what Faerch et al. refer to as introspection (ibid:160).

According to Faerch et al., uncertainty signals such as "pauses, laughs, hesitations, false starts, clicks and heavy breathing may be used with caution by analyst as implicit strategy markers" (ibid:160). What the analyst needs is a combination of uncertainty signals to be sure that what follows these signals is the result of a communication strategy.

Native speakers have such performance features, but they are different from those used by non-native speakers. For example, the placing of pauses and low speech rate are indicators of a problem. According to Faerch and Kasper (1983b:218), performance features "occur with high frequency in the spontaneous production of normal L1 speakers". Raupach (1980) in his study of German learners of French found out that there was an increase in the use of filled pauses, repeats, false starts and corrections immediately before or at the beginning of the indirect discourse indicating a 'trouble source'.

Faerch and Kasper (1983b) listed the performance features that indicate strategic planning/execution:

The performance features fall into three classes: temporal variables, i.e. modifications of speech along the temporal dimension; self repairs, i.e. speaker-initiated modifications of already produced speech segments; and finally speech slips, usually caused by one speech element affecting another speech element (Faerch & Kasper, 1983b: 214).

4.5.1 Temporal variables

Temporal variables, such as the rate of articulation, pauses, drawls and repeats, are seen as performance features that may indicate that the speaker is facing a problem. Some features slow down the speech flow and they are considered to be time-gaining devices used whenever speakers want to encode the intended meaning, but have difficulty in doing so because they lack the linguistic items needed. When learners face a problem in communication, they resort to communication strategies and their speech flow may be slowed down by pauses, drawls and repeats.

4.5.1.1 Pauses

Pauses are of two types: unfilled (silent) pauses and filled pauses which include some non-lexical hesitation sounds like *er*, *erm*, *uh*, etc. These pauses range from short hesitations to long ones which may last for several seconds.

4.5.1.2 Drawls

For the speakers to gain time in the selection of a certain lexical item, the speaker lengthens a vowel or a consonant.

4.5.1.3 Repeats

Repeats range from repeating a single phoneme to repeating several words, and they function like drawls as time-gaining devices in which the speaker can select the appropriate lexical item.

4.5.2 Self-repairs

Self-repairs take place at the execution stage when the speaker runs into difficulty while the communication process is going on (Schegloff, Jefferson and Sacks, 1977). These are referred to as ‘Self-Initiated Repairs’ or ‘Correction’. These repairs have different positions. First, they may be placed within the same turn. Secondly, they may be placed in the ‘transition space’. Finally, they may be placed in the third turn to the ‘trouble turn source’. The first type of self-repair is referred to as a ‘false start’. False starts often follow filled pauses which help the speaker in gaining time in the planning phase, e.g. “I mean”. The new starts which are the first step in self-correction are clear indicators that the speaker has changed his plan in communicating his optimal meaning.

4.5.3 Slips

Slips of the tongue such as lapses and speech errors are deviations in performance from the native phonological, grammatical and lexical system.

When language learners are very good at producing their target language, sometimes it is very difficult to detect any problems in their speech production. Poulisse (1990) finds that it is only through the learner’s retrospective commentary that the researcher is made aware of the existence of such difficulties.

Kasper and Kellerman (1997) maintain that researchers have to rely on two sources of evidence for strategy identification. These are “markers in the discourse and retrospective protocols”. They conclude that “relying on one method of strategy identification seems risky; triangulation of different data types is advisable and has been employed successfully in research on CS in oral production (Poulisse, 1990), as well as in all studies on lexical inferencing (Haastrup, 1987; 1991; Ross, this volume)” (Kasper and Kellerman, 1997: 3-4).

According to Yule and Tarone (1990), the second approach, which involves playback of the original discourse and self – identification of strategic activity by

the informant, has some problems, among them lapses of memory on the part of the speakers and the whole issue of speaker consciousness in using such strategy. Furthermore, Faerch et al. (1984) claim that researchers cannot expect learners to be able to describe how they solved their problems unless they have been taught about CSs beforehand.

For this reason, the method used in this study will follow Kasper and Kellerman's (1997) approach to CS identification. They stress the weakness of a methodology that relies on either performance features or retrospective protocols. They suggest triangulation of different data types. Therefore, triangulation is used to cross-check data from different sources or informants. It is often used to neutralise the possibility of bias. There are two types of triangulation used in this study. The first is task triangulation which involves using more than one task in data collection. The second type of triangulation is investigator triangulation, which consists of the use of multiple observers, rather than a single observer. For details see section 6.9.2.

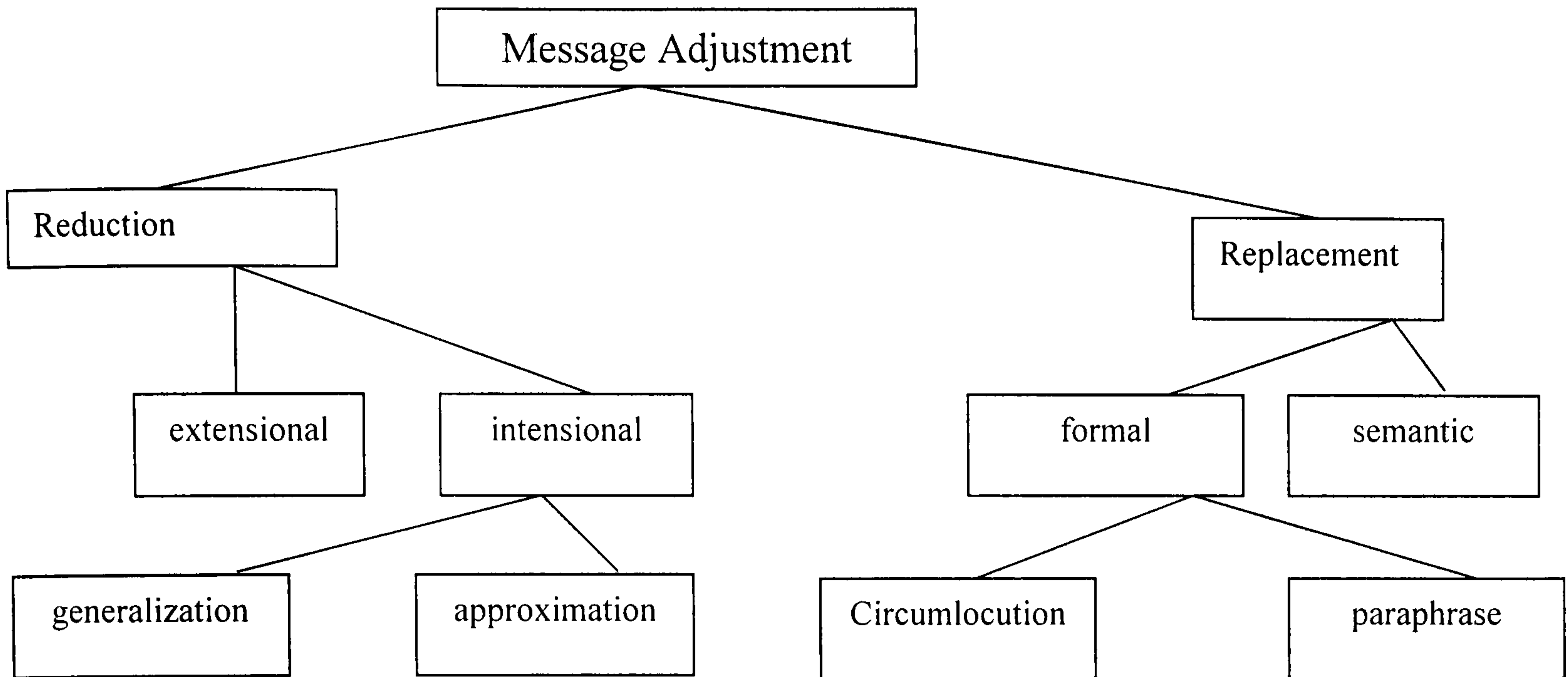
The following sections will examine the historical development of CS literature and the problems involved in classifying CSs both in previous research and in this study.

4.6 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.

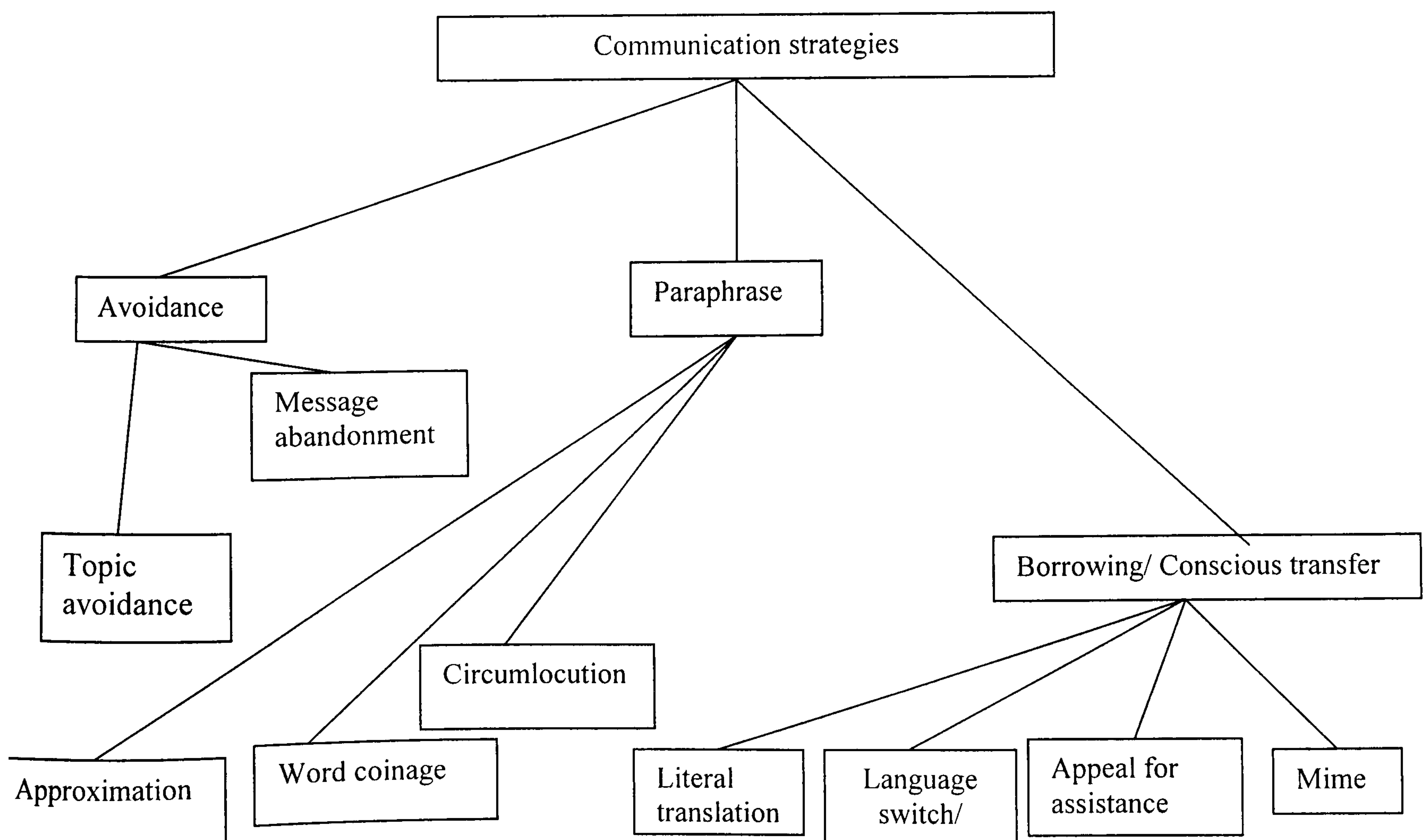
Varadi (1973/1983) envisaged a variety of communicational strategies which were of two basic types: *reduction* and *replacement* of an optimal meaning resulting in a message adjustment. See Figure (4.3).

Figure (4.3) Varadi's Taxonomy of CSs (adapted from Varadi, 1973/1983:81-99)



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 (4.1) and Figure (4.4), where these strategies are defined explicitly and illustrated with examples.

Figure (4.4) Tarone's Taxonomy of Communication Strategies (Adapted from Tarone, 1983:62-63)



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 (4.6) and table (4.1) below.

According to Bialystok (1990), Tarone's (1977) classification is 'well-grounded'. Omitting words like '*mushroom*' or '*waterpipe*' is evidence of an avoidance strategy since the subjects provided descriptions for the drawings in their native language.

Table (4.1) Tarone's (1977) Taxonomy of Communication Strategies (Cited in Tarone 1983:62-63)

Paraphrase

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*)

Word coinage — the learner makes up a new word in order to communicate a desired concept (e.g. *airball* for *balloon*)

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 don't know what's its name. That's, uh, Persian, and we use in Turkey, a lot of.')

Conscious transfer

Literal translation — the learner translates word for word from the native language (e.g., *He invites him to drink, for They toast one another.*)

Language switch — the learner uses the native language (NL) term without bothering to translate (e.g. *balon* for *balloon, tirtil* for *caterpillar*)

Appeal for assistance — the learner asks for the correct term (e.g., 'What is this? What called?')

Mime — the learner uses non-verbal strategies in place of a lexical item or action (e.g., clapping one's hands to illustrate applause)

Avoidance

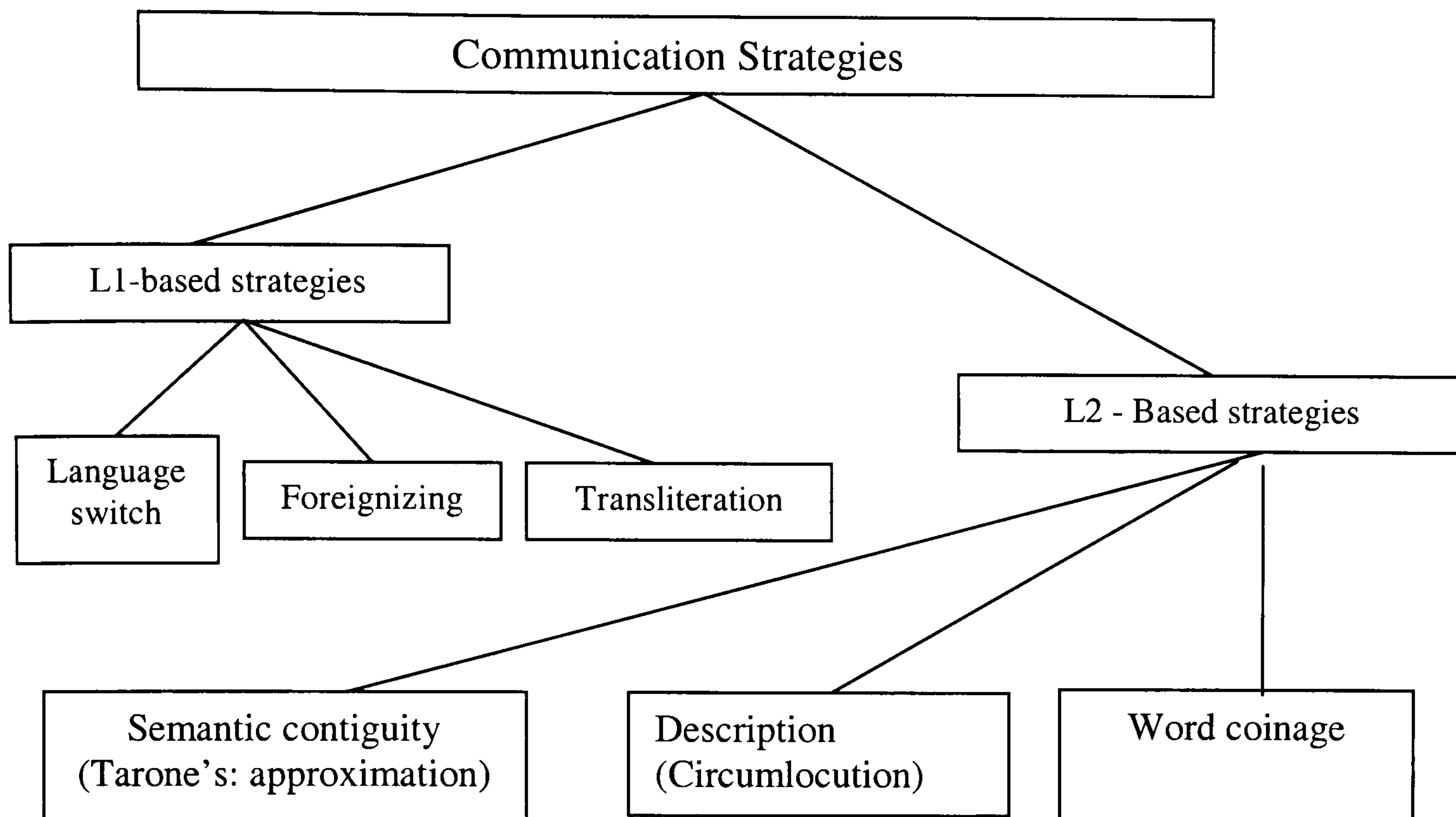
Topic avoidance — the learner simply tries not to talk about concepts for which the TL item or structure is not known

Message abandonment — the learner begins to talk about a concept but is unable to continue and stops in mid-utterance

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 and Frohlich (1980) and Bialystok (1983) proposed a new taxonomy based on the type of information used by the learners. See Figure (4.5). 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 learner’s 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). Faerch and Kasper (1983a) used the term *inter-/intralingual transfer* to refer to what Bialystok (ibid) refers to as *foreignizing*. *Transliteration* refers to the use of a target lexical item and structure to create a literal translation of a native language item or phrase. There are three types of *L2-based strategy*: *semantic contiguity*, *description* and *word coinage*. According to Tarone’s taxonomy (1977), *semantic contiguity* is approximation; *description* is circumlocution. Bialystok and Frohlich (1980/1983) used *word coinage* to refer to the same thing as Tarone (ibid). Although the strategies identified in this taxonomy are similar to those of Tarone (1977), they are different in organisation. *Paralinguistic strategies* refers to non-verbal strategies. This strategy is equivalent to *mime* in Tarone’s (1977) taxonomy.

Figure (4.5) Bialystok's Taxonomy of CSs (Adapted from Bialystok and Frohlich 1980 and Bialystok 1983:105-107)

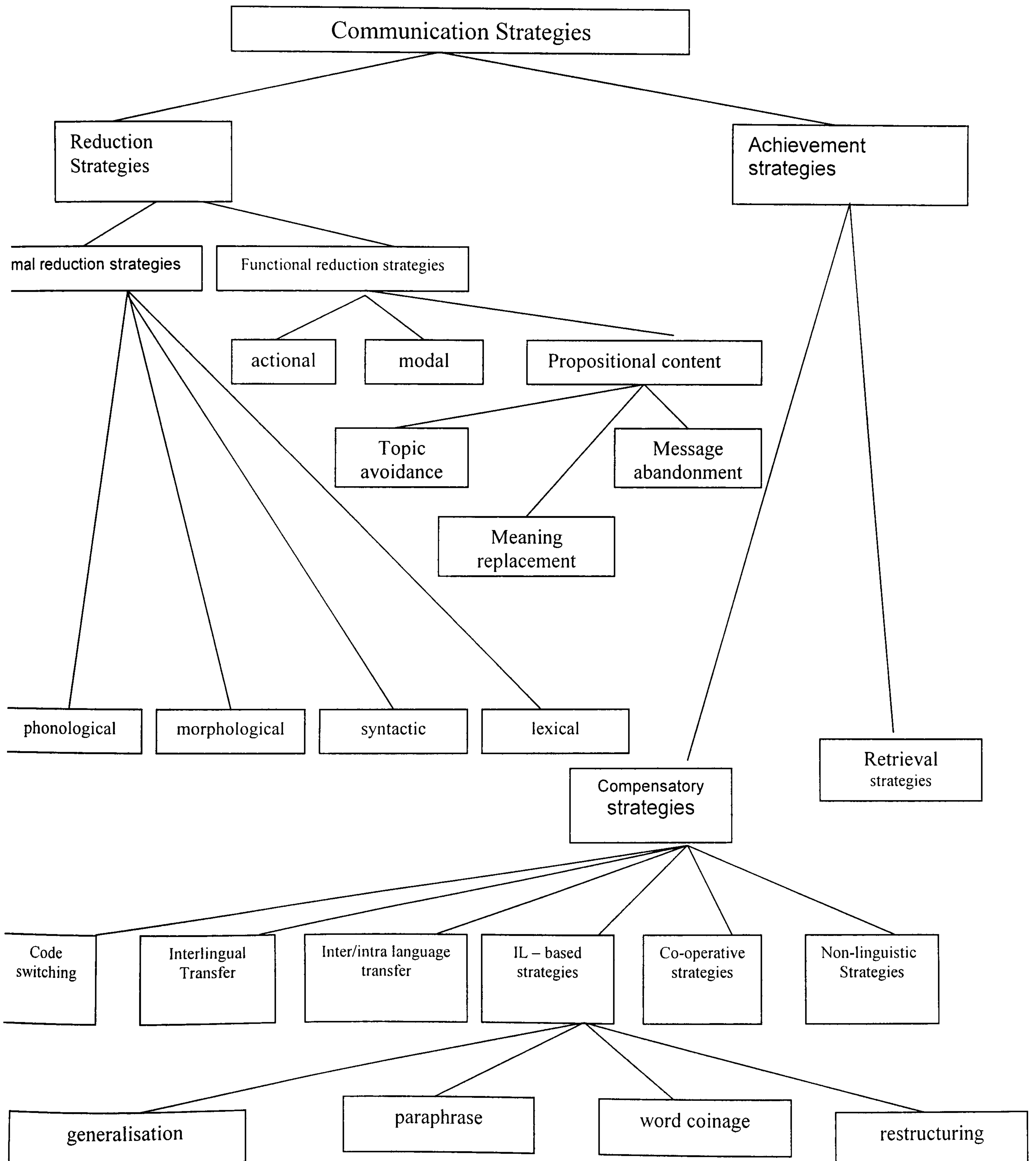


Tarone (1977) and Faerch and Kasper (1983a) see CSs as L2 production problems occurring at the planning stage, and this is very clear in their definitions of CSs. Tarone (1977:195) defined them thus: “conscious communication strategies are used by an individual to overcome the crisis which occurs when language structures are inadequate to convey the individual’s thought”. Faerch and Kasper (1983a: 36) defined them in this way: “CSs are potentially conscious plans for solving what to an individual presents itself as a problem in reaching a particular communicative goal”.

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 (4.6).

Figure (4.6) Faerch and Kasper's taxonomy of CSs (Adapted from Faerch and Kasper 1983a:36-56)



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:38). Varadi (1973/1983) used the term ‘*formal reduction*’ to refer to the same thing.

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).

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 solve 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).

According to Varadi (1973,1983), *formal replacement* refers to paraphrase or circumlocution. Circumlocution involves “substantial restructuring of the message, often resulting in awkward verbosity”, whereas paraphrase is “a much more felicitous and concise rendition of the original form than in circumlocution” (1983:84).

Varadi (1973,1983) and Tarone (1977,1983) refer to *paraphrase* as description or circumlocution when language learners focus their attention on describing the properties and the functions of the object described. *Paraphrase*, according to Faerch and Kasper (1983a) can be *exemplification*, where learners provide examples to pass on their message.

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 realizing and develops an alternative local plan which enables him to communicate his intended message without reduction” (Faerch and Kasper, 1983a:50)

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. Bialystok (1990:42) claims “the intended difference between generalization and approximation, however, is not clear from these examples”.

Varadi’s taxonomy (1973,1983) is more restricted than the other taxonomies because Varadi was only interested in describing strategies of *message adjustment*. In Tarone’s taxonomy (1977), all Varadi’s strategies belong to *paraphrase*. *Replacement strategies* in Varadi’s taxonomy include circumlocution and paraphrase. *Circumlocution* is illustrated by *special toys for children*, and *paraphrase* by *they are filled by gas* for *balloon*. Bialystok states that these examples do not “demarcate the critical differences between these strategies” (1990:42).

Tarone, Cohen and Dumas (1983:11) define *message abandonment* as follows: “communication on a topic is initiated but then cut short because the learner runs into difficulty with a target language form or a rule”.

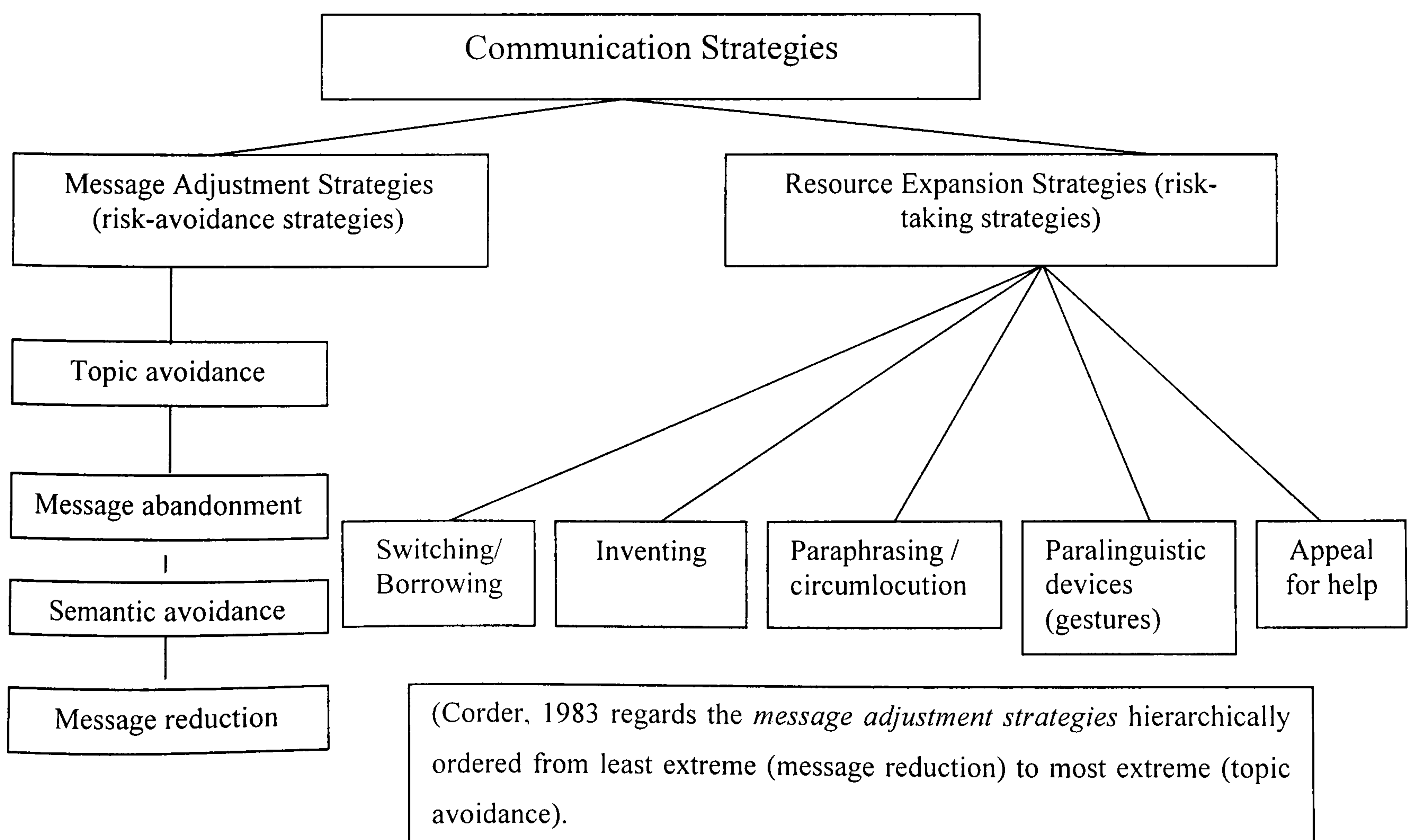
According to Faerch and Kasper (1983a), when the learners conserve the topic, but refer to it by a more general expression, this is *meaning replacement*. This term, which is also used by Varadi (1973/1983), is referred to as *semantic avoidance* by Tarone, Cohen and Dumas (1983), Blum-Kulka and Levenston (1983) and Corder (1983).

Many of Faerch and Kasper’s (1983a) categories of CSs are similar to those of Tarone (1977). For example, Tarone (1977) has “appeal for assistance”, Faerch and Kasper have “co-operative strategies”. But Faerch and Kasper’s (1983a) taxonomy is more complex as it includes more sub-types. The major categories

are classified according to the learner's intention either to avoid the problem or to achieve his goal.

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 encounter 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 can increase their linguistic resources to achieve their communicative goals by *resource expansion strategies*. See Figure (4.7). *Topic avoidance* is avoiding entering into or continuing communication. *Message abandonment* is trying to give up communication, whereas semantic avoidance is "saying something slightly different from what you intend, but broadly relevant to the topic". *Message reduction* is "saying less, or less precisely" (Corder, 1983:17).

Figure (4.7) Corder's taxonomy of communication strategies (Adapted from Corder, 1983:17-18):



Blum-Kulka and Levenston (1983) opposed Tarone's classification of circumlocution as a sub-type of paraphrase. They considered paraphrase and circumlocution equivalent, so they put them together in one category.

The most comprehensive project on communication strategies was that conducted at the University of Nijmegen (Netherlands) by Kellerman, Bongaerts, and Poulisse 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.

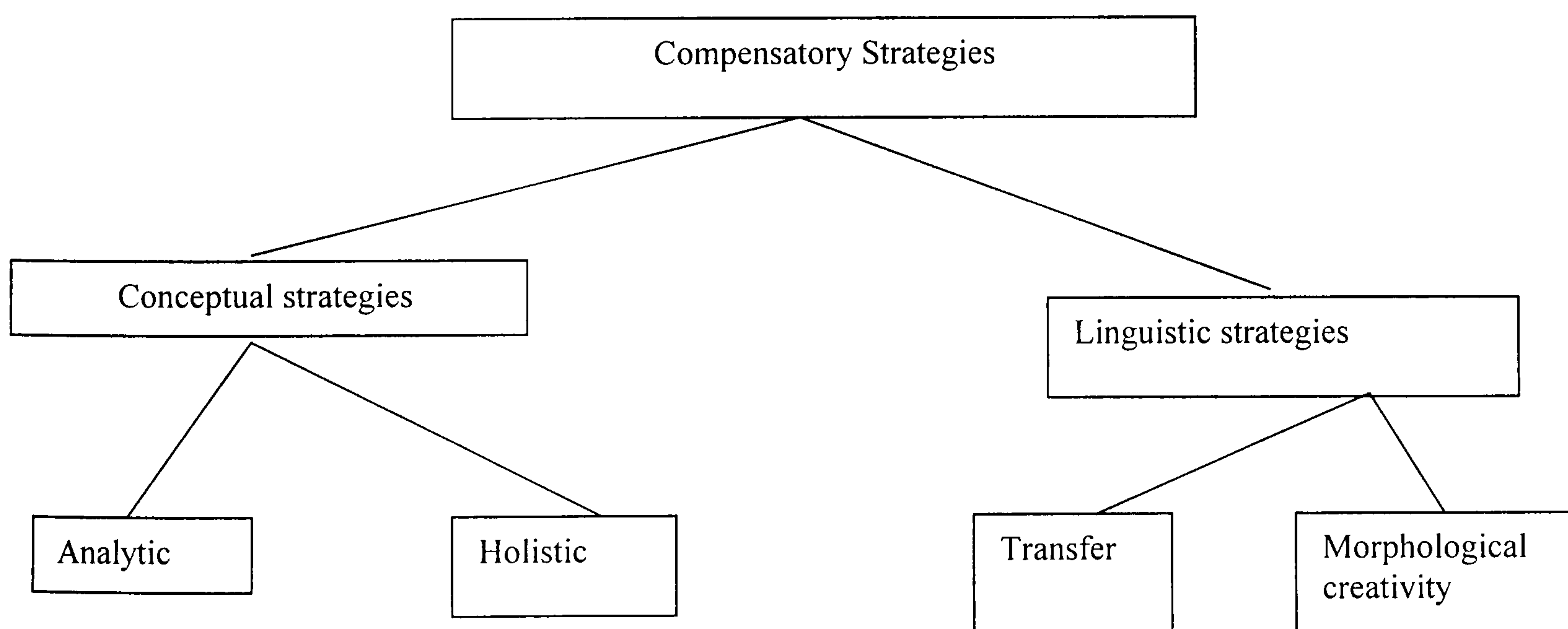
The Nijmegen group's aim was to produce a process-based taxonomy of CSs that was characterised by being parsimonious (fewer categories), generalisable (independent of variations across speakers, tasks, languages and levels of proficiency) and psychologically plausible (the most important) that would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

The Nijmegen group also argued that CSs are mental procedures. They therefore believed that CS research should investigate the cognitive processes that underlie strategic language use. They claimed that focusing 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. Kellerman (1991) concluded:

the systematic study of compensatory strategies has not been properly served by construction of taxonomies of strategy type which are identified on the basis of variable and conflicting criteria which confound grammatical form, incidental and inherent properties of referents, and encoding medium with putative cognitive processes. This inconsistency has led to a proliferation of strategy types with little regard for such desirable requirements as psychological plausibility, parsimony and finiteness (Kellerman, 1991, p.158).

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 (4.8). 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 much the same way.

Figure (4.8) 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 (4.8) 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’, ‘it’s 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 originally 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, and 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’. In Tarone’s taxonomy (1977), these strategies are referred to as strategies of *conscious transfer* and later (Tarone, 1983) as *borrowing*.

Bialystok (1990) suggests that the use of communication strategies depends on two dimensions: *analysis of knowledge* and *control of processing*. *Analysis of linguistic knowledge* means ‘the process of structuring mental representations of language which are organised at the level of meaning (knowledge of the world) into explicit representations of structure organised at the level of symbols (forms)’ (ibid:118). *Control of linguistic processing* means the ability to “control attention to relevant and appropriate information and to integrate those forms in real-time” (1990:125). So, according to Bialystok, the solution to the problem of providing a psychological definition is to place CSs within this theoretical framework. She differentiates between ‘knowledge-based’ and ‘control-based’ CSs. In ‘knowledge-based’ CSs, the speaker makes adjustment to the content of the message by exploiting knowledge of the concept and providing information about it (e.g. definition or circumlocution). In ‘control - based’ strategies, the speaker retains his initial intentions and tries to communicate by using L1 - based strategies and mime.

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 Kellerman’s 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.

Dornyei and Scott's (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 part of their main category *direct strategies* are added to their taxonomy. Feigning understanding is another added strategy. See figure (4.9) below.

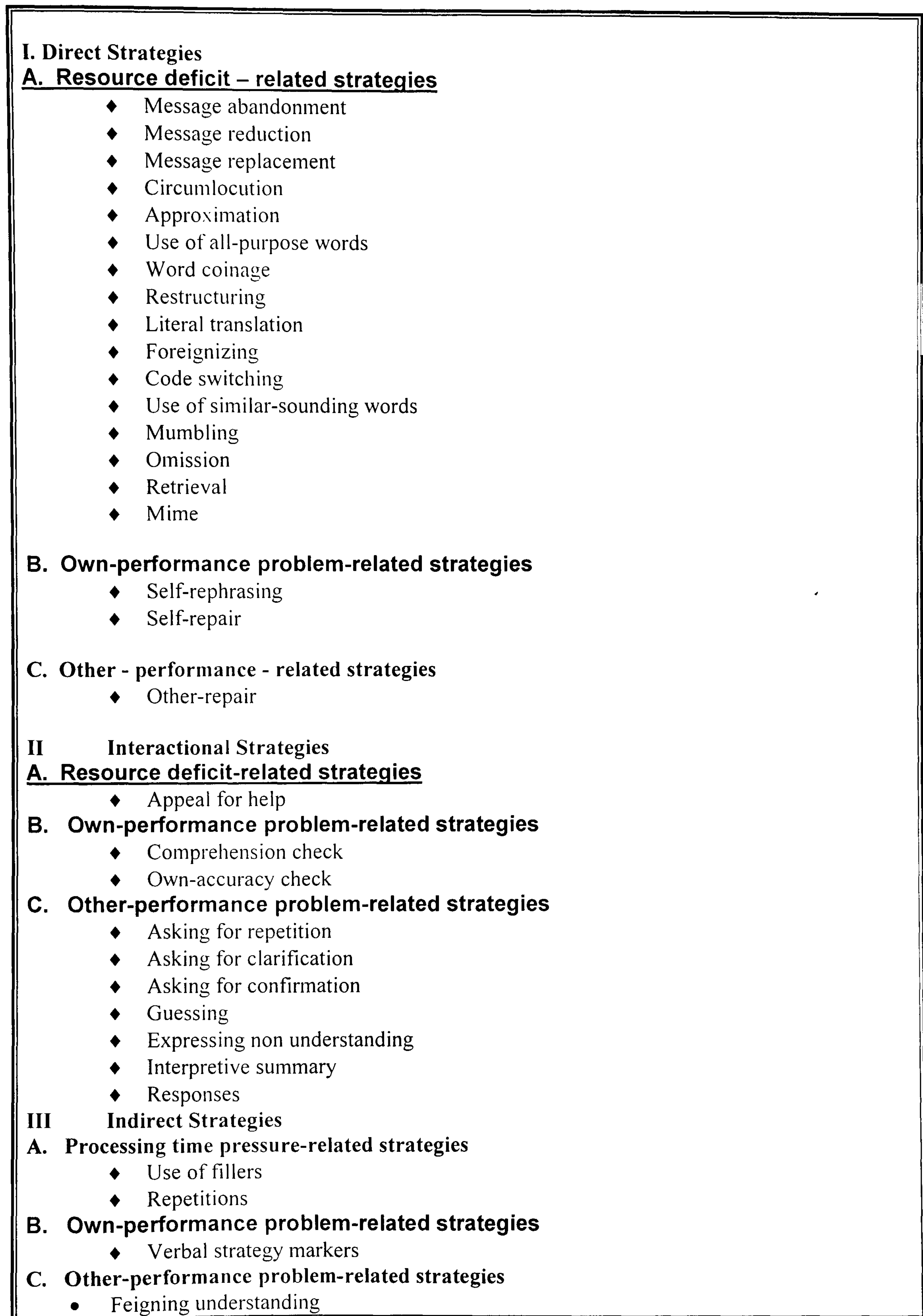
Dornyei (1995) suggested an extension to the definition of communication strategies to include *stalling or time-gaining strategies* (e.g. the use of pause fillers and hesitation gambits). These strategies are not used as a result of language deficiency, but rather to help speakers gain time to keep 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).

Pause fillers and hesitation gambits have been labelled by Dornyei and Scott (1995a, 1995b) as "indirect strategies". According to Dornyei and Scott, these pause fillers are important communication strategies although they "are not strictly problem-solving devices", they facilitate and provide conditions for achieving "mutual understanding: preventing breakdowns and keeping the communication channel open" (1997:198).

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 learner's 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 interlocutor's contribution (Kasper and Kellerman, 1997: 5-6)

Figure (4.9) Dornyei and Scott's taxonomy of CSs (1995a, 1995b) (Adapted from Dornyei and Scott, 1997:189-193)



This suggestion supports Dornyei and Scott's (1995a, 1995b) taxonomy which regards confirmation checks, comprehension checks and clarification requests as

communication strategies. They labelled these strategies “*interactional strategies*”.

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).

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.

4.7 Problems with CS taxonomies and classification

4.7.1 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, or 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 Tarone's taxonomy (1977), these strategies are referred to 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 Poulisse's 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 *reconceptualization*? 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? Poulisse’s (1993) distinction between *substitution* and *reconceptualization* seems to be based on whether it is a single lexical item standing for another. Kellerman and Bialystok (1997:43) claim that “Since exemplification is a fairly common compensatory lexical device, its ambiguous status is a challenge to Poulisse’s typology”.

In the original Nijmegen classification, exemplification, whether by one or more category members (e.g., tables, beds and cupboards), and whether followed by *etc.* or *and things*, or not, would always be classified as an example of *conceptual strategy*.

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), Paribakht (1985) and Willems (1987), 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 have 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 are

interested in 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 speaker's performance, and may have a great effect on the cognitive processes underlying that performance.

Another difference is that the Cons drew 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.

As a result of the lack of such consensus over classification or of agreement as to which category a certain utterance be assigned to, we have attempted to adopt a taxonomy of CSs that is based on both previous taxonomies (i.e. Faerch and Kasper, 1983a; Bialystok, 1983, Tarone, 1977 and Dornyei and Scott, 1995a and

1995b), and on the pilot study conducted for this research project (see section 6.8.2.1).

Because of the limitations resulting from the use of abstract shapes and concepts, we used three communicative tasks which are identical to classroom tasks and have real-life characteristics: an object-identification task, a story-telling task and a role-play task (For detail, see sections 6.5, 6.6). Three tasks were used to enable us to collect more communication strategy cases, so that if one task failed to elicit a strategy type, another one might do so.

4.7.2 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”. In this study, for example, we found out that some utterances included two or more communication strategies. For example, to identify an escalator, one subject produced “these machine used to carry people from one floor to another floor, floor er (5 sec) like in,....., airport or in any ((unintel word)) (LS2).

Repetition strategy 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 subject produced the following utterance to identify a speedometer:

e:r ,,,,....., you can count er the e:r ..., the distance of e:r (7 sec) found it in the car e:m (19 sec) this o'clock can e:r e:r put in *shu?* (tr: what?) er in the car to: er to: limit the: the speed (LS4).

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 clearly when the learner asked ‘*shu?*’ (tr: what?). But the most apparent strategy is *circumlocution*: “found it in the car e:m (19 sec) er in the car to: er to: limit the: the speed” (LS4).

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 this study, one learner produced "hand e:r ,,,,,,,,,,, cleaning hand *Mukinseh, Nasi Esimha Biliingilizi* (tr: broom, I forgot its name in English)" (LS1).

Cleaning hand can be classified both as word coinage and it as be literal translation. In this study 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 (6 sec) or er electrical lamps I guess (AS3)

The subject in the utterance quoted below used 'travelling cheques' for *traveller's 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? (AS3).

"Electricity machine" was produced by another learner (IS-4) 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 since the same utterance may be classified differently by researchers. However, in order to obtain a degree of reliability in classifying the CSs after identifying the strategic behaviour, these were highlighted and classified within the context and given to three independent judges who were asked to check the reliability of the classification and of the coding system (For details see section 6.9.2).

4.8 The 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 learner's 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 O’Malley 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 support Faerch and Kasper’s (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” (1989:114).

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 made 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’s (1986) procedure when they video-taped the learners’ performance was for them to view their own recordings, and the students analysed their own strategy use.

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 Turrell (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 strategy use. The effective use of CSs will probably help enormously in achieving the speakers’ communicative goals.

In this chapter, we have discussed the notion of communication strategies and analysed the definitions provided by several researchers. Taxonomies of communication strategies have also been examined and compared. We have discussed in detail the problems of the existing taxonomies, and problems related to the classification of CSs into different categories have been offered. The teachability of communication strategies, which is a controversial issue, has been discussed. In Chapter Five, the studies conducted on communication strategies will be examined. It will include a brief overview of CS studies. After that, the studies that have been conducted so far on the effects of language proficiency, tasks and the conditions under which the task is being performed on strategy choice will be presented. Then, studies that have investigated the CSs used in L1 and L2 and the effect of personality factors and context were reviewed. Finally, studies that have investigated whether or not to teach CSs will be examined.

Chapter Six will describe the methodological approach adopted in this piece of research. The questions of the study, the research instruments, data collection procedures, and the procedures for identifying and classifying the strategic performance of the subjects are also presented and discussed in detail.

Chapter Five

Communication Strategy Studies

This chapter is divided into seven sections. In section 5.1, we present an overview of CS studies, in which most of the areas of investigation covered by CS researchers are discussed. Section 5.2 presents the literature that has investigated the effects of language proficiency and type of task on the use of CSs. Section 5.3 discusses the effect of personality factors on the choice of CSs. Section 5.4 looks at those studies which have been conducted on Arab learners of English to examine their use of CSs. Section 5.5 reviews the literature related to studies conducted to investigate the use of CSs in L1 and L2, while section 5.6 presents the literature that investigated the possibility of teaching CSs. Finally, the gap in CS research is identified, and various ways of filling this gap are discussed in section 5.7.

5.1 Brief Overview of CS studies

Studies conducted in the area of communication strategies began when Varadi (1973) experimented with a sample of two groups of nine and ten Hungarian adult learners of English at an intermediate level. The subjects were asked to describe a picture first time in English, and then in Hungarian.

Tarone (1981,1983) also conducted research on the communication strategies used by second and foreign language learners. A native speaker of Turkish was observed describing a picture of a caterpillar smoking a waterpipe. She concluded that the learners may “avoid” the topic or the message altogether, "paraphrase" in the form of approximation, use “word coinage” or “circumlocution”, “borrow” words that may be a literal translation or a language mix, “appeal for assistance”, where the learner asks the interlocutor for the correct term, or "mime", where the learner uses non-verbal tactics instead of the lexical item.

Haastrup and Phillipson (1983) investigated the choice of CSs by Danish students in general conversation with non-native speakers of English. They found that L2-based strategies, i.e. strategies which are based on the target language, such as paraphrase, circumlocution, and word coinage, were more successful in communicating meaning, but the subjects of the study used more L1-based strategies, i.e. strategies which are based either on the speaker's native language or on any language other than the target language.

Bialystok (1990) tried to test the reliability and validity of the taxonomic descriptions of communication strategies. Her study is similar to that of Tarone and Yule (1987). The subjects of the study were eighteen English-speaking nine-year old girls. They had been learning French since the age of five. A communication task was prepared to collect the data. It was "game-like." There were 36 pictures. The children were divided into pairs: one 'director' and one 'matcher'. The director's job was to describe the cards so that the matcher could correctly position them on her felt board. The director had to describe her board to the matcher so as to reproduce the ordering that was on the director's board. The session was tape-recorded and transcribed.

The first strategy, avoidance (topic avoidance) was excluded because of "the nature of the communication task in this study" which allowed no room for avoidance since all the learners had to attempt the target objects. Seventy-eight utterances were selected because they seemed to be representative of the whole set, and since their selection allowed all the taxonomic classes (except avoidance) to be illustrated and explained. The results showed that paraphrase accounted for over 92 per cent of the strategies. Circumlocution alone took up 80 percent. These findings support those of Bialystok (1983) and Tarone and Yule (1987). One of the drawbacks of Bialystok's study is that it analysed only 78 utterances, which do not give us a clear picture of the extent to which communication strategies are used in the data as a whole. Thus, in our study, all the data collected were analysed in order to find the CSs. They were then classified according to a taxonomy prepared for the purpose of the study. See the adapted taxonomy section

6.8.4. This approach is preferred since an analysis of all the data gives us a more detailed picture of the CSs used and a more reliable explanation of their occurrence.

Mabry (1994) in her study described the communication strategies and learning strategies of five adult learners of English in an ESL classroom. The purpose was to describe strategy use based on systematic classroom observation. The questions addressed by the study were: (1) What types of communication and learning strategies do learners use in a classroom setting? (2) How do strategies vary by lesson setting formality? and (3) What patterns of strategy use are found among the individual learners?

The subjects were five students at a four-year college (three males and two females) in an advanced-level conversation class taught by the researcher. The study was conducted over a 14-week period using ethnographic methods of participant observation and informant interviews. A total of ten lessons was audio-taped and video-taped; four were selected for analysis. The audio-tapes were transcribed in order to carry out a qualitative and quantitative analysis of the strategies used.

The results of the study were taxonomies and descriptions of the communication strategies and learning strategies that showed type and frequency of use. In looking at the individual learners' strategy use, there was evidence that the Arabic speakers used more communication strategies than learning strategies; the Spanish speakers, on the other hand, used more learning strategies than communication strategies.

The conclusion of the study was that strategies do not occur as isolated fragments of behaviour that can be talked about divorced from the social interactions of the learners. There was much evidence of mutual assistance among the learners in their strategy use.

Duff (1997) attempted to identify circumlocution strategies used in Chinese as a second language by a native speaker of English who had been in China for a few months (the author). The subject was engaged in audio-taped face-to-face conversation with native speakers of Chinese and with other non-native speakers of Chinese. The results of the study revealed an extensive use of circumlocution strategy by the subject.

Duff claimed that “breakdowns in conversations were related to the use of L1 in borrowing or conscious transfer into L2 and the use of L2 to generate L2 items”. The second type of communication strategies included: (1) semantic contiguity, substitution or synonym (2) description (3) word coinage (4) lexical simplification (5) superordinate terms (6) approximation or over-extension (7) circumlocution (8) paraphrase (9) lexical decomposition and (10) avoidance. Duff confessed that “overlap exists across these strategies... the same utterances may manifest or have embedded within them more than one strategy” (Duff, 1997:195).

Duff also claimed that the semantic features associated with the concepts being identified were interconnected, after Blum-Kulka and Levenston, 1983, and Gasser, 1988. He suggested that the level of efficiency in activating the semantic features and lexical features determines the speaker’s ability to “fill gaps in linguistic knowledge during on-line production” (1997:213).

The majority of the previous research done on CSs has focused on identifying, categorising and describing the process of strategy selection as well as the effectiveness of the CSs chosen by second language learners. However, other studies have investigated other areas such as the effect of language proficiency and the task type on CS use and on choice of a certain strategy type; the use of CSs by native speakers in their L1 and L2 to see if there are any differences; the effect of the distance between L1 and L2 on strategy use; the effect of personality factors on CS use, and the learning context and teachability of CSs. These areas will be discussed in the following sections.

5.2 Effect of language proficiency and task type on CS use

Some research has questioned whether the proficiency level of the learner and the nature of the task affect the speaker's choice of a particular communication strategy. For instance, Bialystok (1983) examined the issue of the use of communication strategies by dealing with the question: **Who** uses **which** strategy, **when**, and with **what effect**?

The subjects of the study were a group of sixteen grade 12 students learning French in a Civil Service French Language Training Programme. The students were divided into two groups – 10 from the regular French programme and 6 from an advanced class. The adults were more advanced. All the subjects completed a cloze test to assess their proficiency level.

To elicit the use of CSs, a task was prepared that met three criteria: “it had to simulate real communicative exchange; the task had to provide an incentive for the learner to attempt to convey difficult information, and it was necessary to have control over the items for which the communication strategies were to be examined.” (Bialystok, 1983:103).

The subjects were asked to describe a picture with eight items in it so that a native speaker of French could reconstruct it: “a young girl standing on a stool to hang a Christmas stocking on the fireplace mantle. Three items, a mantle clock and two lighted candles, sit on the mantle, and three fireplace tools stand beside the fireplace – a bellows, a shovel and a pair of tongs” (ibid:104). The fireplace was drawn on a flannel board and the experimenter was provided with ‘distractors’ or incorrect items from which to choose when reconstructing the picture. The subject was instructed to look at the picture and then describe it in detail in French so that the non-English speaker could reconstruct the same picture on the flannel board. There was no time limit for the task.

The results of the study showed that learners with a higher proficiency level were more likely to use strategies that were based on the target language than on L1 or

L3. In addition, the subjects with the most extensive language and foreign travel experience were the most effective CS users. This study proposed a taxonomy of CSs (For details see Figure (4.6), section 4.6).

The results of Paribakht's study (1985) on two groups of Persian ESL students at intermediate and advanced levels of TL supported Bialystok's findings (1983). He used a concept-identification communicative task which asked the subjects to communicate concrete and abstract objects to a native speaker interlocutor in an interview situation. It was found that advanced students used L2-based strategies, while intermediate students used L1-based strategies. The same types of CS were used by both groups, but the use of one type rather than the other was dependent on the proficiency level.

Corrales and Emily (1989) investigated the communication strategies used to express lexical meaning which were produced by a group of Spanish speakers learning English as a second language. The sample in the study consisted of adult students enrolled in an intensive ESL programme in the English Language Institute of Pittsburgh. The subjects were of two different proficiency levels: intermediate and advanced. All of the subjects were native speakers of Spanish. To allow for the possible influence of the context and the type of communication problem to be solved (as shown by Bialystok and Frohlich, 1980), two tasks were prepared to elicit the data. The first task (structured questions) was based on three reading passages, each of them containing target lexical items which were not supposed to be part of the subject's vocabulary. The second task was similar to a real-life communication situation (simulated conversation). The latter required the subjects to "telephone" a plumber to request help. The situation was presented in Spanish, but they responded in English. The data were collected twice, at the beginning (Time 1) and five weeks later (Time 2) because, as they suggested, as time passes learners' proficiency increases.

A native speaker who knew no Spanish conducted all the interviews (40 minutes each). After the tapes were transcribed, the subjects' responses to each item were

assigned to one of three major response categories: 1) correct use of target language; 2) attempt to convey the meaning of the target word through the use of CS; and 3) no response. Category 2 responses only were categorised by using a taxonomy based on Blum-Kulka and Levenston's work (1977). They divided the strategies into two categories: process-based strategies and task-influenced strategies. Process-based strategies included transfer (literal translation, foreignising) and overgeneralisation (approximation, word coinage). Task-influenced strategies included circumlocution, language switch, appeal for assistance and avoidance. The simulated conversation task elicited significantly more transfer strategies from both groups of students. With respect to the use of task-influenced strategies, the advanced group used a greater mean proportion than the intermediate group at Time (1), while the intermediate group used a greater mean proportion at Time (2).

Corrales and Emily's findings (1989) supported those of Bialystok , 1983, Bialystok and Frohlich, 1980 and Paribakht, 1985, that the use of the CSs is influenced by the following factors:

1. The degree of target language proficiency.
2. The context and type of communication problem to be solved.
3. The variations in the use of these strategies by a given group of learners over a specific period of time. As time passes, learners gain in proficiency.

Chen (1990) also explored the relationship between learners' proficiency in L2 and their strategic competence. The sample consisted of twelve English majors at Guangzhou Foreign Language Institute. The subjects were divided into two groups according to their proficiency level in English (6 second-year postgraduates and 6 third-year undergraduates). They were asked to identify 24 concepts (12 concrete and 12 abstract). In an interview, each subject was asked to communicate two concrete and two abstract concepts to a native English speaker (e.g., monkey, guitar; destiny, optimism). The native speaker was prevented from making comments that would guide the learner and affect the type of CS chosen. The subjects' performance was tape-recorded.

Communication strategies were identified, categorised and analysed. The learners' introspective data were also collected "for the purpose of confirming the CSs that had been identified and discovering those CSs that could not be directly observed" (ibid., p.162). This study yielded five categories of CSs: *linguistic-based*, *knowledge-based*, *repetition*, *paralinguistic* and *avoidance*. *Linguistic-based CSs* included metalanguage where the learner provided the characteristics of the concept (e.g., "It is a noun" for "*motivation*", superordinate where the learner provided a semantically related superordinate term of the concept (e.g., "It is an animal" for "*monkey*", "It is a kind of musical instrument" for "*guitar*"), synonym where the learner gave a term that shared certain semantic features with the concept (e.g., "I think it is same meaning of lobster" for "*Prawn*"), antonym where the learner used a word that had the opposite meaning (e.g., "I can say this is the opposite of mean" for "*generosity*") and componential analysis where the learner described constituent features of the concept similar to what has been given in the dictionary (e.g., "It has six strings" for "*guitar*").

Knowledge-based CSs included exemplification, cultural knowledge and simile. Exemplification refers to giving examples. The use of cultural knowledge refers to when the learner provides cultural characteristics of the concept. When the learner uses comparison, this is referred to as simile. *Repetition* refers to repeating words or phrases to gain time. *Paralinguistic CSs* are used when the learner conveys meaning by using gestures. *Avoidance*, which refers to avoiding words, phrases or a topic, is the fifth category used.

The subjects' communicative effectiveness was also assessed by a native speaker according to the following scheme.

- 5 Effective-identified the words immediately
- 4 Quite effective – easy to identify the word
- 3 Moderately effective – hard to identify the word
- 2 Less effective – very hard to identify the word

1 Not effective – unable to identify the word

(Chen, 1990:161)

It was found that the use of CSs varies according to the subjects' proficiency level. Communication strategies employed by low-proficiency Chinese EFL language learners outnumbered those employed by high-proficiency learners. The second finding was that linguistic-based strategies were more frequently employed by high-proficiency Chinese EFL learners, while knowledge-based strategies and repetition were more frequently employed by low-proficiency learners. Third, there was a positive relationship between the Chinese EFL learners' proficiency level and their communicative effectiveness. High-proficiency learners were more effective in their use of CSs than were low-proficiency learners. Finally, it was found that the distance between L1 and L2 affected the choice of CSs. No L1-based CSs were used by the subjects because of the lack of similarities between L1 (Chinese) and L2 (English). In contrast to the results of Chen's study (*ibid*), although there are very slight similarities between English and Arabic, Arabic learners used L1-based strategies in this study. This might be partly due to the fact that some words are borrowed from English, so that they are used in daily-life situations as part of L1.

Chen suggested developing EFL learners' communicative competence "by increasing their strategic competence", since there is a positive relationship between the learners' language proficiency and their strategic competence (1990:179).

Green (1995) conducted a study that investigated the use of communication strategies. Its aim was to increase our knowledge of how school learners use strategies to overcome problems encountered in foreign language communication. The learners were 232 German secondary school pupils learning English as a foreign language. They represented the full age and ability range. In addition, a peer group of 54 native English pupils was studied. The data provided by these subjects were their performances on two tasks of spoken communication: one

descriptive (telling a story) and one interactive (a telephone conversation). The data were assessed on the basis of a number of linguistic measures – message content, key vocabulary, text size, speech rate, and error. Learners' strategies were identified from their intended meaning and from performance features such as hesitation, and classified according to a taxonomy. The identification procedure was validated using introspective data from six supplementary pupils. The results of all these assessments were analysed in order to establish the extent, distribution and success of the learners' strategies, and to relate their strategic behaviour to their linguistic competence.

The principal findings were that the learners made limited but effective use of communication strategies, choosing to employ an achievement strategy rather than abandon their message when encoding problems arose. Their use of communication strategies was related to their proficiency in the target language in both frequency and distribution, with L1-based strategies decreasing as proficiency increased. It was also related to the kind of problem encountered and to the task being performed.

Liskin-Gasparro (1996) investigated the validity of the two statements mentioned in the ACTFL Proficiency Guidelines (1986):

Intermediate High speakers have "limited vocabulary... [that] may bring about slightly unexpected circumlocution (ACTFL, 1986). Advanced speakers are depicted as more skilled users.

Shortcomings can often be smoothed over by communication strategies, such as pause fillers, stalling devices, and different rates of speech. Circumlocution which arises from vocabulary or syntactic limitations very often is quite successful, although some groping for words may be evident. (ACTFL, 1986).

Liskin-Gasparro's study (ibid.) also aimed at analysing the overall usage of communication strategies in Intermediate High and Advanced Speakers of Spanish, through a discourse analysis approach.

The questions of the study were (1) How do Intermediate High and Advanced speakers of Spanish cope with lexical problems? (2) Is there a relationship between their communication strategy use and the speakers' proficiency level? And (3) Do the lexical strategy repair data gathered from the Oral Proficiency Interviews (OPIs) of Intermediate High and Advanced speakers corroborate the statements about the use of CSs in the ACTFL Guidelines?

The data were drawn from 30 subjects through Oral Proficiency Interviews: 17 High Intermediate and 13 Advanced. The OPIs were conducted and rated by ACTFL – certified testers. Then the interviews were transcribed and analysed by the investigator.

Liskin-Gasparro's principle in counting CSs was that "if the learner struggled in producing a language item" (such struggle is signalled by hesitation, false starts, and fillers), "it counted as a CS". On the other hand, if the learner "simply produced something that seemed like an obvious instance of transliteration... but did not hesitate over it, then it was not counted as a CS" (1996:319).

This methodology seems unreliable to some extent, since some learners are risk-takers who do not watch their language during the course of communication, and it is therefore very difficult to notice if they struggle. As part of my experience, I noticed that some fluent speakers of English resort to communication strategies as a result of not being linguistically competent. They use any target language items to fill the communication gap without taking into consideration whether the target language items are accurate or not. I do not therefore think that the production of such speakers necessarily lacks the presence of CSs, even though it is produced without hesitation. In this study, performance features, hesitations and the key events, key words and speech acts specified in advance are the criteria for measuring whether a certain expression includes a CS or not.

The classification system which was used in Liskin-Gasparro's study followed Bialystok's (1983), which classified the strategies into two categories: L1-based

strategies and L2-based strategies, because “it allowed for the formation of large categories of CSs, thus facilitating the analysis” (Bialystok, 1983:319). According to the methodology adopted by Liskin Gasparro (1996), when the speaker used more than one strategy, the last one was counted as it was preferred to others. It was found that the Intermediate High Speakers favoured L1-based communication strategies (e.g., transliteration / foreignising, language switch and appeal for assistance) over paraphrase strategies or L2-based strategies (e.g., approximation, circumlocution/description, message reconstruction, word-coinage). On the other hand, Advanced speakers preferred L2-based strategies over L1- based or L3-based strategies. The results showed also that the Intermediate High Speakers relied on transliteration and foreignising more than the advanced speakers did.

In contrast to this method, the method adopted in this study was that all the communication strategies used were counted, since they were separate CSs. For example, if a learner repeated an utterance then he corrected it, I counted both cases - 'repetition and self correction' - because the learner resorted to two separate strategies, not one.

Khanji's findings (1996), in a study conducted on Arab learners of English at the University of Jordan, supported the findings of previous research which showed an inverse relationship between proficiency level and CS use (e.g., Liskin-Gasparro, 1996; Al-Samawi, 1995; Green, 1995; Poulisse and Bongaerts, 1989; Bialystok, 1983)

Poulisse (1990) obtained contradictory results when she studied compensatory strategies. She conducted a study to investigate the CpSs used by Dutch learners of English at different L2 levels, in L1 and L2, and in terms of efficiency. The subjects consisted of three groups of 15 Dutch learners of English, of varying proficiency, judged according to the number of years they have been studying English, school grades, teacher judgements, and cloze test scores. Four tasks had been prepared for the purpose of the study: (1) photo description, (2) description of drawings in L1 and L2, (3) retelling of stories, where the subjects were asked to

listen to a story in Dutch and retell it in English, with the help of picture prompt, and (4) an oral interview. Tasks 3 and 4 were video-recorded and played back to the subjects for their retrospective comments. The main contribution of this study was a taxonomy of CSs that researchers claim has psychological plausibility, i.e. it reflects the nature of the mental processing involved in the production of communication strategies.

Poullisse classified CSs into two main types: *conceptual* and *linguistic*. The *conceptual* strategies include (1) *analytic* (circumlocution, description and paraphrase) and (2) *holistic* (the use of a superordinate, coordinate, or subordinate term). The *linguistic* strategies include: (1) transfer (borrowing, foreignizing, and literal translation) strategies, and (2) morphological creativity. See Figure (4.9).

The results of this study showed that the use of communication strategies varies inversely according to proficiency level and the task being performed. The less proficient learners used more CSs than the more proficient. There was also some limited evidence of proficiency-related effects on the type of strategies used. For example, the more advanced learners made greater use of holistic strategies including superordinates. However, there were very few proficiency-related differences in the ways in which the different strategies were realised. These findings contradict the findings of other researchers (e.g. Bialystok, 1983; Corrales and Emily, 1989; Chen, 1990; Khanji, 1996).

On the other hand, the nature of the task was also found to have an effect on strategy choice. The subjects used elaborate analytic strategies in task (1), while in tasks (3) and (4) they resorted to short holistic strategies and transfer strategies. This finding is consistent with the results of previous research.

Sturge's results (1990) are to some extent consistent with the results of Poullisse (1990). Sturge conducted a study to examine the communication strategies used by second language learners in grades seven, nine and eleven of a core French Programme. The investigations attempted to ascertain which strategies were

categorised as Reduction (e.g., avoidance) and which as Achievement types (e.g., paraphrasing), with the latter being further subdivided into interlingual and intralingual.

The results showed that intermediate and senior high students use communication strategies more than adults were found to have used them in previous studies. It was discovered that interlingual strategies were used more frequently than intralingual strategies in all three grades, with *borrowing* being the most-frequently-used strategy in their interlanguage communication. These subjects also used retrieval strategies more frequently than the other two groups.

Previous research, which has been carried out in order to investigate the relationship between strategy type and the type of communication problem/task, and the relationship between language proficiency and type of CSs used, has shown a positive relationship between the proficiency of language learners and their communicative performance. Advanced language learners use fewer communication strategies and they usually resort to achievement strategies such as paraphrase. It was also found that a certain task yields a certain type of strategy.

This research project investigates whether or not there is a relationship between language proficiency level and the choice of communication strategies used by Arab English majors at Yarmouk University in Jordan. We also attempt to determine whether the strategies are L1 Arabic-based or L2 English-based. This study also investigates the effect of task type on the frequency of CSs and the choice of a specific strategy, by using CLT classroom tasks.

5.3 Studies conducted on personality factors

Some researchers have been interested in investigating whether or not personality factors have an effect on the use of communication strategies. For example, Karaki (1991) conducted a study the purpose of which was to examine whether the use of “communication strategies” is influenced by learners’ personality traits and

characteristics. Specifically, it was hypothesised that second language learners who actively seek out opportunities to speak the language with others (High Input Generators), or extroverts, would be more skilful at using communication strategies than those individuals who are typically non-dynamic and rarely initiate interactions with others in the second language classroom (Low Input Generators), or introverts. It was also hypothesised that High Input Generators (HIGs) would outperform Low Input Generators (LIGs) in carrying out three types of communication task: description, instruction, and narration.

Karaki's sample consisted of eight subjects (four HIGs and four LIGs), who were selected from a total of 28 students of English as a second language. These students were enrolled in an intermediate spoken course at a Bilingual/ESL Programme in a high school in western New York. The selection of these subjects was determined by a coding scheme which accounted for the quantity and the quality of their interactions in eight sessions of classroom observation. Following this selection, HIGs and LIGs were video-taped individually as they carried out the description, instruction, and narration tasks. Immediately after each of these tasks was completed, subjects were asked to watch their own video-taped performance in order to reveal the communication strategies which they used to cope with the problems they encountered in these tasks. These strategies were coded by two coders on the basis of a "process-oriented" taxonomy, which was devised by analysing the subjects' task performance and immediate retrospective data.

Quantitative and qualitative analyses of data revealed that there were significant differences between HIGs and LIGs in terms of communication strategies. The differences were apparent in the specific types of communication strategy employed by the two groups. There was a tendency among HIGs to adopt "achievement strategies". As a result, HIGs were significantly more successful and effective in getting their messages across. In contrast, there was a tendency among LIGs to deal with problems by using "reduction strategies", which served as an easy way out. Consequently, LIGs were less effective in carrying out the three tasks.

The study suggests that teachers should encourage risk-taking among second language learners, particularly among LIGs. This can be accomplished by providing learners with ample opportunities to engage in a spontaneous and unplanned type of discourse. The study also suggests that teachers, through immediate retrospection, can raise students' consciousness about communication strategy use by adopting a wide range of tasks and activities which have real and meaningful communicative value.

Tanaka (1993) also conducted an investigation into how second language learners, whose principal exposure to the target language has been through formal instruction, use English for a wide range of communicative purposes outside the classroom context. The study examined the communicative problems encountered by 20 adult Japanese learners of English when attempting to interact with an English speaker in a series of communicative tasks, and it identified the communicative strategies used by the learners to facilitate communication and to compensate for their shortcomings in English communicative skills. The study also examined relationships between the learner's use of strategy and the nature of the communicative tasks, English classroom achievement and individual learner characteristics, and social cognitive styles.

The results indicated that while learners experienced similar communicative problems in English, the success of their efforts depended on their ability to use communicative strategies that allowed them to override their problems. Their strategy use, in turn, was dependent on (a) the nature of the task, (b) the perceived distance between the two languages (English and Japanese), (c) their perceived communicative goals, and (d) their attitudes towards the tasks. The findings also showed that differences among learners in their ability to perform the communicative tasks were related more to their social and cognitive style characteristics than to their English classroom achievement. Whereas successful communicators shared a set of personal characteristics associated with good English communicative skills, unsuccessful communicators generally lacked such

characteristics. Ellis (1994) supports these findings by suggesting that personality factors might affect the choice of strategy.

However, the effect of personality factors on the use of CSs is not investigated in this study. The questions addressed here are already numerous. Besides, I think that extensive research may be necessary in order to investigate the effect of personality factors on the use and choice of CSs.

5.4 Studies conducted on Arab learners of English

There have been few studies that have investigated the use of CSs by Arabic learners of English. For example, Mabry (1994) reported that, when looking at the individual learners' strategy use, there was evidence that Arabic speakers used more communication strategies than the other groups of learners involved in her research.

Al-Samawi (1995) investigated the use of lexical replacement strategies by proficient L2 male Arab students in Western Pennsylvania in order to determine how and why they used these strategies in extemporaneous speech, and whether personal factors (i.e. age, length of stay in L2 culture, previous experience in delivering speech) had an effect on the use of replacement strategies.

Twenty participants were video-taped while each was delivering a 15-minute extemporaneous speech. They were then interviewed to find out why they used replacement strategies, and given a questionnaire. The video-tapes were transcribed. The data were analysed and presented numerically and graphically.

The results showed that the subjects used replacement strategies in their speeches for different reasons. They used these strategies either to overcome a communication problem (lack of vocabulary, lack of immediate access to a previously-learned item of L1) or to achieve a communicative goal (making the audience understand better, context appropriateness, sounding more professional, showing off). The results showed also that the subjects replaced a single word by a single word, and a phrase by a phrase, more than other forms of replacements.

They also replaced nouns and verbs more than the other parts of speech. The study also revealed that personal variables (i.e. age, length of stay, proficiency level and previous experience in delivering speech) were related to the use of certain replacement strategies.

The only study that has been conducted on Jordanian learners of English is that of Khanji (1996). By using two perspectives in analysing CSs (interactional and psycholinguistic), Khanji (1996) aimed to study the nature and the distribution of the various CSs in natural communication. His study also aimed to find out if proficiency level has an effect on CS use.

The subjects of the study were 36 EFL students taking part in the Intensive English Programme at the University of Jordan. The subjects were divided into three levels: Low, Intermediate and Advanced, according to the placement test results obtained before they joined the programme.

The subjects sat for an oral test which employed the principle of Strategic Interaction developed by Di Pietro (1987). The subjects were asked to resolve problems, which involved the interaction of each pair of students for a period of five to ten minutes. The subjects played roles (e.g., waiter and diner). Their conversation was audio-taped, transcribed and analysed.

A total of 494 instances of communication strategy was registered. The most widely observed strategy was “repetition”, which represented 27% of all strategies used. Message abandonment represented 21%, semantic contiguity 17%, transliteration 14%, topic shift 11%, code switch 6% and appeal for assistance 4%.

The highest percentage of reduction strategies occurred among low level students as a result of their low proficiency in the target language. Transliteration strategy was the most commonly used strategy by the intermediate group. In the advanced group, topic shift and semantic contiguity appeared to be the most frequently used. Khanji related this to their high proficiency level.

The findings of this study are consistent with the results of previous research that demonstrated the existence of strategic behaviour in Arabic-speaking English learners, and the inverse relationship between the learner's proficiency level and their choice of a particular type of CSs.

As shown by the extensive literature review, the number of CS studies conducted on Arab learners, when compared to studies conducted on other learners, is very small. One study has investigated personality factors; another has investigated lexical replacement strategies in a native Western Pennsylvania in extemporaneous speech, and Khanji (1996) studied Jordanian EFL learners' use of CSs and the effect of proficiency level. Studies of Arab learners have not investigated the use of CSs in their native language, nor have English majors been the subjects of such studies. In addition, the message transmission of Arab learners of English has not been an area of investigation. It is hoped that this study will therefore give us a clear picture of the CSs used by English majors at the English Language Department at Yarmouk University and these results may then be generalised to include English majors at all universities in Jordan, since Yarmouk University is a typical Jordanian University. In addition, the results of this study may also be generalised to English majors at the English Departments in most Arab universities, as they are all very similar (as pointed out by Zughoul, 1987) in terms of their lack of good language training. Such generalisations can be made because of the similarities in the curriculum of English Departments in Third World countries.

5.5 CSs used in L1 and L2 performance

Some researchers have directed their investigations towards comparing the communication strategies used by L2 learners and those used by the native speakers. They were interested in finding out if native speakers employ CSs in the same way as L2 learners or not, and which strategies are used by which group. Ellis (1984), for instance, conducted a study to investigate differences between L1 and L2 children's communicative performance. His study also aimed to compare the two groups' use of avoidance and paraphrase strategies.

The sample in the study contained two groups. One group consisted of six L2 learners. They had been learning English for about one year in Britain. The other group consisted of six native speakers of the same age and from the same school in Southall, London. Each child was audio-recorded while telling a story to a teacher from the school by using pictures.

Ellis found out that L1 children resort less to avoidance and paraphrase strategies than L2 children who have been learning the target language for about a year. L1 children were able to communicate more information (i.e. they used avoidance less), in language that could be considered more stylistically acceptable (i.e. they used paraphrase less).

Tarone and Yule (1987), in their attempts to study the strategic competence of second language learners, selected a sample of twenty-four learners of English as a second language and nine native speakers of English. One learner was given the role of the speaker and the other was asked to be the listener. The speaker was asked to look at a set of visual stimuli presented on a video screen which the listener could not see. He or she was asked to transmit verbally to the listener the information he/she perceived on the screen. The listener's task was to listen to the speaker's message and identify which picture fit the description. Then the subjects changed places.

There were three tasks: (1) to describe four objects (2) to give instructions for the assembly of an apparatus, and (3) to narrate a story reporting actions taking place in a classroom scene. The same procedure was followed in gathering the data from the nine native speakers. The speakers' utterances were tape-recorded, transcribed and analysed.

The results of the study showed that the strategy of over-elaboration was used more by non-native speakers than by the native speakers, in which non-native speakers included more details. It also showed that native speakers were more likely than non-native speakers to use the strategies of circumlocution and

approximation. It was also found that strategic competence involves the capability of choosing the most effective means of transmitting information. The speaker was limited by his linguistic resources, his knowledge of the world, and his assessment of the listener's knowledge of the language and the world.

Yule and Tarone (1990) also studied the performance of strategic competence of native speakers of English and non-native speakers (Chinese, Japanese, Korean, and Spanish learners of English). The subjects (both native and non-native) were required to describe real-world objects which were unfamiliar to both groups.

It was found that both native speakers and non-native speakers resorted to communication strategies when referring to the objects. It also showed that the native speakers for the most part employed a larger sub-technical vocabulary than the L2 learners. Native speakers were also seen to employ more analytic strategies than the language learners who resorted to holistic strategies.

On the other hand, other studies examined the CSs used in L1 and L2 by the same subjects. Kellerman et al. (1990), for example, asked seventeen Dutch university students of English to describe eleven abstract shapes in Dutch and English "so that the shapes could be redrawn by a native speaker....from a recording of the description" (p.167).

Kellerman et al. (ibid) classified the strategies used by the subjects into three types: holistic: where a speaker attempted to describe the entire shape; partitive: where the speaker described part of the shape; and linear: where the shape was described line by line. The use of these strategies was hierarchically ordered. Their classification was identical to Poulisse's (1990), except that they divided analytic archistrategies into partitive and linear.

The study yielded 183 pairs of descriptions in both languages (Dutch and English). In 164 pairs (89.6 per cent), the strategies used were the same for a particular subject in both languages (L1 and L2). In 18 of the 19 remaining cases, the same

subject used different strategies in either language. The L1 description was holistic, i.e. giving a name for the whole shape, while the L2 strategy was partitive or linear.

Kellerman et al. (ibid) argued that if an L1 strategy used in description was holistic, the L2 description might be holistic, partitive or linear, but if the L1 strategy used was partitive or linear, the L2 description strategy would probably not be holistic. They affirmed that strategic behaviour in L1 and L2 is the same, since it involves the same general problem-solving behaviour.

Russell (1997), in his attempt to test the reliability of Kellerman and his colleagues' findings (1990), used 21 native speakers of Japanese (15 female and 6 male). Their ages ranged from 19 to 31. The subjects were students on the Hawaii English Language Programme (HELP). The subjects were ranked as 7 intermediate and 14 advanced according to HELP rankings of the subjects, to examine the effect of proficiency. It was hypothesised that:

1. As with Dutch native speakers, the Japanese native speakers would not, for a given picture, use a strategy in L2 at a higher level than the strategy used in L1 for the same picture.
2. As with the Dutch native speakers, the Japanese native speakers would proceed with a single picture description in either L1 or L2, according to the hierarchy of referential strategies (holistic-partitive-linear).

The subjects of the study were asked to describe the 11 shapes used in Kellerman et al. (1990) first in Japanese and then in English. In Russel's (1997) study, eleven subjects described the pictures first in Japanese, and ten described them first in English. This was done to account for the possible effect of description order. The picture description was carried out over two sessions. In the first session, the subjects described the pictures from 2 to 11 and in the second session from 11 to 2. There was a one week gap between the two picture descriptions.

The 'experiment' was conducted by a native speaker of Japanese who was usually assisted by the experimenter. The subjects received instructions in Japanese. The sessions were transcribed and analysed. Then, following Kellerman et al. (1990), the strategies were classified hierarchically as holistic, partitive, and linear.

The results showed that there were 17 cases of abandonment in English and one in Japanese. Regarding the abandonment in English, ten occurred when the Japanese descriptions were done first, and seven occurred when the English descriptions were done first.

200 pairs of 212 cases showed strategy use among the subjects in which “all the tokens are at the same level in English and Japanese” (Russel, 1997:75). This was 98.7 % of the total number of cases. This was a higher percentage than that of Kellerman et al. (1990) which was (89.6 %). Russel (1997) found also that ten of the 13 pairs confirmed to the referential hierarchy proposed by Kellerman et al. (1990), and that three violated the hierarchy. Holistic strategies were used overwhelmingly by the subjects.

The results of the study showed that there was no relationship between language proficiency and the violations of the order in the English description. Russel (1997) justified this by saying that “the HELP placement levels are not the firmest measures of proficiency... If other measures had been used, some effect for proficiency might have been suggested”. It was also found that those subjects who had “violations in their Japanese descriptions, tended to have violations in their English ones” (Russel, 1997, p.76).

To conclude, no research has ever been done to compare the CSs used by Arab learners in L1 Arabic with those used in L2 English. This study is therefore the first one to investigate this area of research in finding out which CSs are used by Arabic-speaking English majors when communicating in both L1 Arabic and L2 English.

5.6 Studies conducted on the teachability of CSs

Researchers have been divided as to whether to teach communication strategies or not. As a result of this controversy, experimental studies have been conducted. For example, Aliweh (1989) conducted an experimental study to investigate the short- and long-term effect of communication strategy instruction on the speaking proficiency of Egyptian College students. The sample of his study consisted of thirty college sophomores who were randomly assigned to an experimental group and to a control group. The experimental group was instructed in how to use communication strategies to handle speaking difficulties. The control group, on the other hand, did not receive strategy instruction at all. However, this group were given the same material, teacher, and amount of time as the experimental group.

In order to determine the short- and long-term effect of strategy instruction, the study design included three testing times: (1) pre-testing (one day before the treatment), (2) first post-testing (immediately after instruction had ended), and (3) second post-testing (two months after the treatment).

Two significance tests (the t-test and the sign test) were used to detect any differences between the two groups before and after the treatment. Also, in order to verify that the strategies taught were put into practice, each group was video-taped four times during instruction. Then, without being informed as to which tapes belonged to which group, two judges viewed the video-tapes and identified the strategies used.

The results of the pre-test showed that there were no significant differences between the two groups. This means that the control and experimental groups were almost equal in terms of proficiency level. However, the results of the post test showed that there were significant differences between them in favour of the experimental group. This could be because of strategy instruction which was only provided for the experimental group.

Qualitative data revealed that the experimental group did use strategies taught to handle communication difficulties. Therefore, unlike the control group, the experimental group could convey comprehensible messages. This indicates that the change in the spoken proficiency of the experimental group was due to strategy instruction.

In 1991, Mosiori conducted a study which aimed to investigate the effect of consciousness-raising about communication strategies on adult learners' second language (L2) strategic performance. Two methods of teaching communication strategies were compared: (1) provision of opportunities to use communication strategies and (2) provision of opportunities to use CSs combined with consciousness-raising about CSs. It was hypothesised that method 2 would result in a greater willingness to use CSs, greater success in using CSs, and a greater willingness to provide information necessary for effective global communication than method 1.

The subjects were 30 university students learning French as a foreign language at the upper-beginner's J level. There were two research groups comprising 15 students each. The experimental treatment was provided in 8 class sessions for a total of approximately 2 hours 20 minutes. Consciousness-raising instruction included discovery and provision of principles governing CS use, and provision of analytical feedback and of vocabulary items useful for verbalising CSs. Opportunities to use CSs were provided by means of communicative activities, including descriptions and definitions of concepts, instruction and story-telling tasks, and free communication.

A pre-test, an immediate post-test and a three-week delayed post-test were administered to both research groups. Retrospective reports and first language (L1) data were also obtained from the learners, and baseline data from native speakers of French. Besides, the analyses performed to test the hypotheses of the study, quantitative and qualitative comparisons of L1 and L2 data, and a qualitative analysis of retrospective data were also carried out.

Differences between the two groups' gains were for the most part insignificant. Nonetheless, the results related to success in using CSs and willingness to provide information necessary for effective global communication were in the expected direction, although the experimental group had less practice time than the comparison group.

In contrast, Dornyei (1995) conducted a study on the effect of teaching CSs and how language proficiency affects the results, which included only three CSs: fillers, topic avoidance and circumlocution.

The results showed that it is possible to develop the quality and quantity of the learner's use of some communication strategies through focused instruction. This result is consistent with that of Aliweh (1989). The effectiveness of training was found to be unrelated to the learners' English competence. Dornyei (1995) therefore suggests that teaching can take place at intermediate proficiency level.

Kitajima (1993) also conducted a study which was aimed at investigating the influence of planned versus unplanned discourse upon learners' choices of communication strategies and their overall communicative performance. For this purpose, an eleven week-study was conducted with three groups of Japanese learners at a university in Japan. Each group consisted of five subjects.

The control group studied English in planned discourse, i.e. what is observed in traditional English classes in Japan. The instruction focused on the practice of particular language forms, without any activity encouraging learners to convey intended meaning. Experimental groups 1 and 2 studied English in unplanned discourse made up of a series of activities whose focus was on conveying messages. In addition to this unplanned discourse, experimental group 2 received instruction in communication strategies to cope with the communication problems they would encounter in the process of performing communicative tasks.

The subjects were asked individually to perform two types of communicative task: (1) description of pictures, and (2) narration of a picture story, before and after the treatments. Two raters, based on the subjects' audio-taped communicative performances and immediate retrospection, identified the communication strategies. Their audio-taped performances were evaluated separately by each rater.

The results showed that the unplanned discourse groups significantly reduced the number of reduction strategies used and increased the number of achievement strategies. Similarly, the results showed that the communicative performances of the unplanned discourse groups were rated significantly higher than those of the control group on the post-test. Little difference was observed between the two unplanned discourse groups. These findings suggest that the learning context has an important influence on learners' communication strategy use and their communicative performance.

However, the teachability issue is not addressed in this study, since it is an issue that would require more extensive research into the effect of strategy training on the use of CSs to convey comprehensible messages. Besides, this study is concerned primarily with English majors' use of CSs in L1 and L2 rather than the teachability of CSs. However, pedagogical implications will be presented in the light of the findings of this study.

5.7 Conclusion

This review of the relevant literature suggests that there is an inverse relationship between L2 learners' proficiency level and the use of CSs. When a learner's proficiency is high, he/she resorts to achievement strategies, whereas if his/her proficiency is low, he/she resorts to reduction strategies (e.g., Bialystok, 1983; Paribakht, 1985; Corrales and Emily 1989; Poulisse, 1990; Chen, 1990; Green, 1995; Liskin-Gasparro, 1996; Khanji, 1996).

It is noticeable that most previous research has classified learners in terms of low, intermediate and advanced levels, according to the number of years spent learning TL (e.g., Green, 1995; Khanji, 1996; Poulisse, 1989). Other researchers have decided proficiency level on the basis of a test, for example, Paribakht (1985) used the Michigan Test of English Language Proficiency. Bialystok (1983) also used a cloze test to divide the learners according to their proficiency level.

One of the drawbacks of dividing the groups according to the number of years spent learning a foreign language could be that some learners who have spent five years learning that TL might be less proficient than others who have spent only three years learning the same language in the same learning environment. This also means that, in a low-level group, we may find highly proficient language users. For this reason, in this study, we have used an adapted TOEFL test in order to divide the learners according to three levels of proficiency. For details see section 6.4.1.

Previous research has also shown a positive relationship between TL proficiency level and the use of certain types of communication strategy. Sturge's results (1990) contradict the results of previous research. His study showed that intermediate and senior high students used more communication strategies than those found in previous studies. Our study will examine the effect that language proficiency has on the learners' choice and frequency of use of CSs.

On the other hand, the research that has been done on native speakers has found that they also employ CSs. Some researchers have investigated the differences between L1 native speakers and L2 TL learners (e.g., Ellis, 1984; Tarone and Yule, 1987; Yule and Tarone, 1990). All these studies have found that both native and non-native speakers of a target language resort to CSs. It was also found that native speakers use analytic strategies while L2 learners resort to holistic strategies (e.g., Yule and Tarone, 1990); and that L1 children resort less to avoidance and paraphrase strategies than L2 children (Ellis, 1984). Our study does not examine in detail this area of research though two native English speakers were asked to

perform the same tasks. The two subjects were recorded in order to compare the performance of Jordanian English majors with that of native English speakers so as to arrive at the optimal/intended meaning. The optimal meaning is what competent speakers would seek to convey. Their performance showed very few instances of CS use.

Other researchers have investigated the differences between the CS use of L2 learners in both their native language and in their target language (e.g. Kellerman, 1990; Russel, 1997). Both studies affirmed the fact that strategic behaviour in L1 and L2 is the same, because it involves problem-solving. As shown in the literature review, no research has yet been done to investigate the Arabs' use of CSs in their L1 and L2 English. Therefore, this study is the first to examine communication strategies used by Arab learners of English in their L1 Arabic and L2 English, in order to determine which CSs are used by native speakers of Arabic when communicating in both languages, and then to compare these results with those found in previous research.

In addition, as the extensive literature review shows, no previous research has investigated the strategic competence of Arab English majors. This is therefore the first study that has been concerned with an examination of the use of CSs by English majors at Yarmouk University, a typical Jordanian university and with examining their ability at transmitting comprehensible messages. In this piece of research, the subjects were native speakers of Arabic who had never been to an English-speaking country. They were asked to perform three communicative tasks in both their native language/Arabic and their TL/ English. They were asked to perform the tasks first in Arabic and then in English. Communication strategies used in both languages were then studied and compared.

Previous research done in this area used a single existing taxonomy to classify the strategies found in their data, but in this study, the taxonomy used for classifying the CSs was based on previous taxonomies such as those of Bialystok (1983),

Faerch and Kasper (1983a), Tarone (1977), and on the CSs used in the pilot study conducted for the purpose of this research. For details see section 6.6.2.

Research has also revealed that the learning context has an important influence on learners' CS use and their communicative performance. Most of the previous research conducted with Arabs was who were learning English in native English-speaking countries, except for that of Khanji (1996). Being in the target language country might have an effect on their competence, as their experience is not limited to classroom instruction. In this study, the subjects had never been to an English-speaking country, and their acquired target language is solely the result of classroom language instruction. In addition, since the formal language of communication in Jordan is Arabic, this means that English is hardly ever used in every day communication.

Thus, this study has adopted a qualitative approach that shows how communication takes place within a particular educational context. A detailed description of the educational context was provided in Chapter Two, something which has rarely been done in previous CS research.

The literature review also showed that the type of task and the conditions under which the task is performed have a marked effect on strategy use and choice (e.g., Green, 1995; Tarone and Yule, 1987; Poulisse, 1990; Corrales and Emily, 1989). A particular type of strategy may be used in one task but not in another. In order to ascertain whether this applied to our subjects, when the context and type of learners are different, three different CLT classroom tasks were used. For details see section 6.5.

Very few studies have been concerned with studying the communication strategies used by Arab learners of English, only those of Khanji (1996), Al-Samawi (1995), and Mabry (1994). Their studies revealed that Arabs use more communication strategies than other subjects (e.g., Mabry, 1994). In this study, we attempt to

confirm this finding by comparing our findings with those of the above researchers.

As the review of literature has shown, very few studies have investigated the second part of strategic competence as described by Tarone and Yule (1989), that is, the skill of successfully transmitting information to a listener, or interpreting the information transmitted. None of the studies conducted on Arabs so far has investigated this aspect. One of the main concerns of this study is to determine whether Arab English majors are able to transmit successful and comprehensible messages.

It has also been revealed that personal factors affect strategy use (e.g., Karaki, 1991; Tanaka, 1993). It was found that extroverts seek opportunities to communicate and that they are risk-takers. They are also more successful at getting their message across. It was also found that they use achievement strategies, whereas introverts use reduction strategies. The question of whether personality factors have an effect on the frequency of use and the choice of a certain CS is not included in this research, since the study of strategies used by introverts and extroverts would form a subject of research in its own right.

Another finding discussed in the literature review was that the distance between L1 and L2 plays an important role in strategy category use or strategy choice. For example, when there is no similarity between the two languages, L1-based strategies are not used (Chen, 1990; Tanaka, 1993). In this study, we shall investigate whether this true with regard to Arabic and English.

Regarding the teaching of CSs, experimental studies have reported that it is possible to improve a learner's performance in conveying comprehensible messages by means of instruction or the raising of awareness of CSs among language learners (e.g., Dornyei, 1995; Aliweh, 1989; Mosiori, 1991). The teachability issue is not addressed in this study since this subject also requires more extensive research into the effect of strategy training on the use of CSs.

Besides, this study is mainly concerned with an examination of English majors' use of CSs in L1 and L2, thus the issue of teachability is outside the scope of our research. Despite this fact, pedagogical implications regarding CS training will be offered in section 7.12.

It is evident from the literature that all the subjects of the studies discussed above were language learners or native speakers, except in the work of Kellerman et al. (1990), whose subjects were English major university students. This study examines (1) the communication strategies used in English (L2) by Arabic-speaking English major students at Yarmouk University in Jordan, (2) the learners' success in transmitting messages and (3) the CSs used in Arabic (L1) by the same subjects in performing the same tasks. None of the studies that has been conducted so far has investigated the CSs used by native speakers of Arabic in their first language. The comparison between L1 and L2 performance in this study was also made in order to arrive at the optimal/intended meaning. We have therefore examined strategies used in both performances in the three different CLT classroom tasks.

In this chapter, first we provided a brief overview of CS research. We then dealt with research into the effect of language proficiency and task on the use of communication strategies. This was followed by an examination of how personality factors may affect the use of communication strategies. Studies conducted on Arabic learners of English were then discussed. We have also highlighted those studies that have investigated the effect of instruction on the use of communication strategies.

In the following chapter, we shall describe the methodology adopted in this piece of research. We shall also discuss the questions of the study, the data collection procedures, data analysis procedures, the taxonomy adopted, and methodological issues such as credibility (internal validity), transferability (external validity), dependability (reliability) and triangulation.

Chapter Six

Research Methodology

In Chapter One we presented a statement of the research problem, and discussed our interest in studying CSs and the organisation of this thesis. Chapter Two contained an examination of the general background to English language learning and the educational context in Jordan and a statement of the problems. In Chapter Three, the nature of communication, models of communication, the CLT approach and various trends in second language acquisition were discussed. The literature relevant was reviewed in Chapters Four and Five. In Chapter Four, we presented the historical development of CS research, and discussed the taxonomies provided so far, definitions of CSs, the difficulties faced in classifying CSs and the teachability of CSs. In Chapter Five, empirical research on CSs was presented and analysed an area not yet investigated was identified. In this chapter, we shall describe in detail the methodology used in conducting our research, including the questions of the study, task design, the data collection method and the data analysis procedures.

6.1 Focus of the Study and Research Questions

Developing second language learners' communicative competence is the ultimate goal of language teachers and of all those who are concerned with second or foreign language acquisition. One essential component of this competence is 'strategic competence'. According to Tarone and Yule (1989), there are two areas related to strategic competence:

- (1) the overall skill of a learner in successfully transmitting information to a listener, or interpreting information transmitted and
- (2) the use of communication strategies by a speaker or listener when problems arise in the process of transmitting information (p.103).

There has been extensive research into communication strategies, but the skill of the learner in transmitting and comprehending messages has received little attention. Tarone and Yule (ibid: 103) say "As far as we know, very little attempt

has been made to investigate the first area, the learner's overall skills in strategic competence". The research that has been done in this area was carried out with native speakers. For example Tarone and Yule 1989, Brown and Yule 1983 developed a task-based methodology to evaluate the communicative effectiveness of adolescent English native speakers. Some transactional tasks were developed, such as narrative, picture description and instructions, where the learners were asked to transmit information to a listener who needed the information to complete the task (e.g., Green, 1995, who investigated both areas). For details see section 5.2.

Our main concern in conducting this piece of research is to examine both of the areas that cover strategic competence as stated by Tarone and Yule (1989): i.e. the speaker's and listener's success in transmitting and comprehending messages, and their use of communication strategies to overcome the problems encountered, which result from the learner's lack of linguistic resources, during this process. For such a purpose, we have adopted the message model of communication, since the CLT tasks used in this study are message-centred.

However, this study is concerned only with message transmission, while message comprehension is only counted for the role-play task. This is because the other two tasks (story-telling and object-identification) were performed by the subjects without a partner who to give immediate verbal feedback. Only the researcher was present, who provided non-verbal feedback.

To sum up, this study aims to find out which communication strategies (CSs) are used by English majors at universities in Jordan which enable them to get their message across to particular listeners when communicating in English. Yarmouk University was taken as a typical example of a Jordanian university. Native speakers use communication strategies (CSs); however, our concern is not simply whether they are using CSs or not, but which CSs they use, and how they use them, both in their native language, and in the target language. More specifically, this study aims to answer the following questions:

6.2 Key question

What are the communication strategies (CSs) used by native Arabic-speaking English majors at Yarmouk University in Jordan while communicating in both L2 English and L1 Arabic?

6.2.1 Sub-questions

The sub-questions of the study will be divided into four categories:

6.2.1.1 Category A. Questions related to CSs in the target language

6.2.1.1.1 Which communication strategies do English majors use while communicating in English?

We are keen to find out which communication strategies English majors at Yarmouk University in Jordan, whose native language is Arabic, use while communicating in English, and to determine the overall frequency of these strategies. A taxonomy of communication strategies was adopted based on an analysis of previous taxonomies and on a pilot study, to enable us to assign the distribution to the different categories of communication strategies.

6.2.1.1.2 What is the frequency of communication strategies used in the three tasks designed for the purposes of the study?

The distribution of communication strategies will be compared with that found in other studies, i.e. a quantitative analysis.

6.2.1.1.3 Are these strategies L1-based, L2 -based or a combination?

Communication strategies were divided into L1-based and L2-based strategies according to the source of the information on which the strategy was based. Any strategy based on the learners' native language and/or language other than the target language is usually called an L1-based strategy. In this study, the term L1-based strategies refers to Arabic-based strategies.

An attempt has been made to assign the communication strategies found in the data to the two main categories - L1-based or L2-based strategies - and to determine which category is favoured by the learners.

6.2.1.1.4 Are the subjects successful in getting their message across to achieve their goals by means of their use of CSs and despite the linguistic errors committed?

The tasks used for eliciting the subjects' oral production were analysed into key words for the object-identification/naming task, key events for the story-telling task and speech acts for the role-play task. See appendices VI, VII, VIII. We then determined whether the task had been completed or not. The task may be said to be completed if the subjects attempted all the key words, key events and speech acts in the three tasks. We then assessed whether or not these attempts were successful by means of their use of communication strategies, and despite the subjects' erroneous utterances. We were not concerned with linguistic errors in the data, though these were countless. The attempts were deemed successful if they were comprehensible. Two native speaker judges helped in the assessment.

6.2.1.2 Category B. Questions related to proficiency level

6.2.1.2.1 Is there a relationship between the learners' proficiency level (low, intermediate, advanced) and their choice of communication strategies?

In this study, we used three levels of proficiency (low, intermediate and advanced). The subjects were assigned to these three levels according to the results of the adapted TOEFL test administered for this purpose. See Appendix I. It is hypothesised that the higher the proficiency level of the learners, the fewer problems they would encounter, and thus they would need to resort to communication strategies less often. We expected that proficiency level might affect the choice of communication strategies used. The communication strategies were distributed among the three proficiency levels to see if there was a relationship between proficiency level and the subjects' choice of a particular communication strategy.

6.2.1.2.2 Is there a relationship between the learners' proficiency level (low, intermediate, advanced) and the frequency of use of a particular communication strategy?

One might expect low achievers to use more communication strategies, but the question is which strategies are used more or less by each group? For example, approximation may be more available to advanced learners because of the large target language vocabulary at their disposal.

6.2.1.3 Category C. Questions related to task type

6.2.1.3.1 Is there a relationship between the task being performed and the choice of communication strategies?

One might expect the tasks the learners are asked to perform to have an influence on the frequency and selection of the communication strategies employed to overcome a particular problem. L2 learners' circumlocution might be a dominant strategy in performing an object-identification task, but not in a story-telling or role-play task. We will see the distribution of strategies between these tasks and determine which communication strategies are used more predominantly and in which task.

6.2.1.4 Category D. Questions related to CSs used in L1 Arabic

6.2.1.4.1 Which communication strategies do the subjects use in communicating in their L1/ Arabic?

Native speakers use communication strategies in their mother tongue, but it is worth finding out which strategies Arabic speakers in particular use while communicating in their native language.

6.2.1.4.2 Is there any difference in the subjects' use of communication strategies while communicating in L1/Arabic and L2/English?

Native speakers make use of communication strategies, but less than non-native speakers. Here, we examine the differences between the strategies Arab learners of English use in their native language and those used in their target language/ English.

(For information about how all of the above questions will be answered, see section 6.4).

6.3 Critique of previous methodological approaches to communication strategies

With regard to communication strategies research, the author has certain reservations about the existing research and the empirical studies conducted. First, a lot of this research aimed to provide definitions and taxonomies of the CSs used. Ellis (1985:183) observed that “theoretical discussion of communication strategies has predominated over empirical research into their use”. Secondly, many CS researchers used non-native speakers of the target language who, however, were learning it in the target language country. This means that these learners’ competence was influenced by the target language as used in society as well, rather than just by the language instruction given in the classroom. In this study, however, the subjects are non-native speakers of English; they are Arabs who live in a non-English speaking environment where the formal and informal language used in Jordan is Arabic. The communicative competence of the learners’ in the target language, English, is thus solely a result of classroom instruction.

Very few people who have learnt English in an English-speaking country can be found in Jordan. In this study, 160 English majors were tested. Only two subjects were found to have been to an English-speaking country. These two subjects were therefore excluded so as not to affect the reliability of our results, as this study aims to investigate the communication strategies of those who have never been to an English-speaking country, within a particular educational context. Thirty students performed the three CLT classroom tasks used in this study to investigate their strategic competence, i.e. their use of communication strategies to get their message across.

Thirdly, the communication activities used in previous studies to elicit CSs often seem too remote from the language used in a) normal and real life and b) in the classroom. For example, a “director” describes abstract shapes or objects (tools, things to sit on and utensils and appliances). The matcher, by listening to the description of the director, has to position the cards on her board (e.g., *a drill, hammer, highchair, kettle, potato-peeler*, etc. (Bialystok, 1990). Sometimes the learners are asked to describe pictures so that a listener can pick out matching pictures. Restrictions may be imposed on the listener, for example, “... the re-structor 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).

Some CS studies also seem to use tasks which are intentionally designed to elicit the strategic behaviour of the subjects, such as abstract shapes which have no names (e.g., Kellerman et al., 1990 and Bongaerts and Poulisse, 1989), abstract concepts “martyrdom” and unfamiliar objects “hammock, abacus” (Baribakht, 1985) where learners have to describe the concepts and objects rather than name them as they are outside their vocabulary. These tasks were developed with the aim of eliciting as many CSs as possible.

It is clear that the aim of these tasks used in previous research is to elicit communication strategies. The tasks I used in the present study were CLT classroom tasks with real-life characteristics. They were not designed with the specific aim of eliciting communication strategies. On the contrary, the tasks were designed according to CLT principles in order to study the learner’s strategic competence, i.e. their skill in transmitting comprehensible messages, and the CSs they use when they want to overcome a problem they encounter in that process. The findings in this study should therefore have more relevance to the CLT classroom. If my purpose had been to elicit communication strategies, I would not have piloted the tasks. The tasks were modified and changed so as to a higher level of validity and reliability. See section 6.6.2.

Some researchers have used tasks to elicit communication strategies which are communicative tasks that could be described as close to real-life communication. For example, Poulisse and Schils (1989) conducted quantitative research that investigated the influence of the task and proficiency level on the choice of communication strategy. They used five communicative tasks ranging from picture description to an interview. Also, Faerch and Kasper (1983a) studied the communication strategies used in a conversation between Danish learners of English and native speakers of English.

Green (1995) used two communicative tasks (a story-telling and a role-play). In Green (1995), the telephone conversation task used required the subjects to assume the role of a young German on holiday. They were asked to make a telephone call to the warden of the youth hostel in York. The part of the warden was recorded. I have some reservations about this procedure as the recorder “had to be started and stopped by operating the pause button at appropriate moments during the pupil’s performance... teachers had to be alert, keeping an eye on the flow chart, listening to what the pupil was saying, and being ready to operate the pause button at the right moments” (Green, 1995:79). My reservation lies in the fact that the situation was contrived, the learners’ performance was interrupted by the teacher, and the teachers may have intentionally or unintentionally helped their students by indicating the kind of response desired, or by giving them more time to fill in the chart they were required to fill in during the conversation. These factors may have ultimately affected the credibility and transferability (validity) of Green's research methodology.

My reservations about these studies (Poulisse and Chills, 1989, Faerch and Kasper, 1983a and Green, 1995) include the fact that they did not provide us with a detailed description of the educational context, e.g., schooling, curriculum, etc. Our approach is different in this regard, in that we have adopted a qualitative research methodology that is used to study how communication takes place within a particular educational context. This approach is discussed in the following section.

6.4 Methodological Approach

Quantitative analysis is a term used to refer to the measurement of the data collected that yields statistical results. In other words, when we determine the frequency of a certain type of behaviour, we are measuring it quantitatively. Qualitative researchers, on the other hand, are concerned with understanding an individual’s perception of the world and the educational context. They seek perspectives rather than a statistical analysis. According to Bell (1993:6), each approach adopted and the methods of data

collection chosen depend on “the nature of the inquiry and the type of information required”.

According to Reichardt and Cook (1979) quantitative and qualitative research methodologies are mutually dependent and cannot be separated. Chaudron (1988: 15) also supports their ideas, arguing that whilst qualitative approaches are concerned with the “description of classroom behavior, classification of processes, and more subjective inferences towards generalisations”, they are also concerned with “counting events and correlating them with others”.

The approach in this study is essentially qualitative in that it tries to show how communication takes place in a particular educational context, however, it does use quantitative methods as a means of showing how that takes place. Both types of analyses are needed in order to answer the research questions stated in section (6.1).

We have shown that, in previous research, researchers have given very little contextualisation of their research. They have not provided detailed background information about the educational context where the behaviour took place, but have merely given the number of the subjects, their age, country and the number of years they have been studying the target language. Not all the studies even have done that: some studies do not even mention the number of subjects used (e.g., Paribakht, 1985). The most recent extensive research into the communication strategies used by German learners of English is that of Green (1995). He has only provided us with a half-page description of the sample of his study, which is not enough for us to understand the educational context in which the behaviour took place, though he has described in detail the nature of his tasks, how they were performed and where. According to Bryman:

Many qualitative studies provide a detailed account of what goes on in the setting being investigated. Very often qualitative studies seem to be full of trivial details. However, these details are frequently important for the qualitative researcher, because of their significance for their subjects and also because the

details provide an account of the context within which people's behaviour takes place (Bryman, 2001:278).

One of the main reasons why qualitative researchers are interested in providing considerable descriptive detail is that:

...they typically emphasize the importance of the contextual understanding of social behaviour.... In this way, behaviour that may appear odd or irrational can make perfect sense when we understand the particular context within which that behaviour takes place" (Bryman, 2001:278).

Our approach is different from the approach of previous researchers, in that we have devoted an entire chapter to a description of the educational context, so that the explanation of the results will make sense to the reader. To illustrate this point, one of the findings of this research is that Arab learners of English, when compared to other studies, make use of more CSs than speakers of other languages. This supports the results of Mabry (1994), who found that Arab learners of English used more CSs than the other subjects in her study which included subjects speaking different languages. By referring to the educational setting and the context in which Arab learners learnt the target language, as described in detail in Chapter Two, this makes sense. For example, when we understand that learners are exposed to the target language only in an educational setting, i.e. inside the classroom, that the formal and informal language used all the time is Arabic, the curriculum of both school and university and other variables have contributed to a low proficiency level in English, then we realise that this remarkably heavy use of CSs is due to the low proficiency level of the learners which has resulted from the educational context in which communication is taking place.

The main concern of this study is to study the strategic competence of the English majors at Yarmouk University in Jordan, which may be considered to be representative of all the universities in Jordan in terms of communicative performance. More specifically, we will investigate which communication strategies are used by English majors at Yarmouk University in both Arabic and English performance. As the researcher has adopted the message-model of communication,

another concern is to determine whether the learners' attempts to transmit their messages were comprehensible and successful or not. A step-by-step description of the procedure is presented below:

6.4.1 Research procedure

1. Careful observation of how English language learners communicate in their L1 and L2 was made. It was noticed that they resorted to many CSs in order to compensate for their limited linguistic resources.
2. The research questions were devised in order to examine the communication strategies used by English language majors at Yarmouk University in Jordan in their native language/Arabic and the target language/English.
3. The researcher prepared certain tasks to be piloted to see whether they were credible (valid) or not. They were piloted in April 1999 after receiving permission from the English Language Department at Yarmouk University in Jordan. Two tasks were modified and another one was changed by putting the learners in a different situation.
4. A taxonomy of communication strategies was adopted based on the pilot study and on previous taxonomies. In order to triangulate, the taxonomy was given to three English language professors at the English Department at Yarmouk University to check our classification code.
5. The researcher used an adapted TOEFL test to divide the English majors into three proficiency levels: low, intermediate and advanced. Four groups of a total of 160 English majors were randomly selected, representing the four years of study in the English Language Department at the university. The test was administered after obtaining permission from the Department. A sample of 30 subjects was chosen at random to perform the tasks. Ten subjects represented each proficiency level.

6. Three different CLT classroom tasks: object-identification/naming, picture storytelling and role-play were finally used to elicit the strategic behaviour of the subjects. There are two types of triangulation used in this study. In order to triangulate the data collection instruments, three different tasks were used to elicit the communication strategies, so that if one task failed to collect the appropriate data, the others would not. The use of one task might limit the number and range of CSs needed, so three different tasks were used to enable the learners to employ a wide range of CSs.
7. Advance permission was obtained from the English Language Department at Yarmouk University in Jordan to record the sample subjects' performances in the three tasks of the study. The sample subjects, including males and females, performed the three different tasks in both languages, first in Arabic and then in English. Their performance in both languages on the three tasks was audio-recorded.
8. The sample subjects' performance in both languages on the three tasks was audio-recorded and then transcribed for the purpose of analysis.
9. The researcher listened again to the recording to double-check his transcription.
10. Two native speakers of English were recorded performing the same tasks in order to compare the English majors' performance with that of the native speakers so as to arrive at the optimal meaning, though what native speakers say cannot always be considered the optimal meaning. The recordings were also transcribed for comparison.
11. To ensure the accuracy of my classification, I worked with a colleague on classifying the communication strategies found in the data according to the adopted taxonomy. We highlighted the contexts where communication strategies were used, and the communication strategies were classified into category type according to the adopted taxonomy.

12. The English transcripts were all then given to three independent judges who were associate English language professors in the English Department at Yarmouk University. They all had a PhD in Applied Linguistics or in TEFL, and they had been teaching at the university for over 15 years. The three independent judges were asked to cross-check the researcher's classification of CS types on the basis of problem indicators in the data and any noticeable deviance from the native speaker norm. They were also asked to check the classification code, which was then reconsidered and modified following their suggestions and comments.
13. When two judges considered an utterance as non-strategic, it was counted as such. Taking into consideration the suggestions provided by the three judges, a final classification was then made.
14. The data were then analysed qualitatively to show how communication takes place within a particular educational context. This analysis was concerned with which CSs were used, and how, to overcome the problems encountered by the learners. I used quantitative methods as one means of showing how this takes place. For example, frequency of communication strategies was determined according to type, task and proficiency level in English performance. Then, statistical analyses were applied to the data and comparisons were made to assess the effect of task and proficiency level on the use and choice of communication strategies. Tabular information was provided to show the results so that they would be easy to analyse and explain.
15. To check whether the learners were successful in transmitting their messages or not, two native speakers of English helped the researcher to arrive at his decision. We studied the production of the learners in performing the three tasks: object-identification, picture story-telling and role-play. Success was measured in terms of whether the description of the object, the key events in the story and the speech acts in the role-play were comprehensible or not. If two of us considered the

message transmitted incomprehensible, it was classified as such and vice versa. This method was adopted as a conservative way of preventing me from drawing unsupported conclusions from my study.

16. The Arabic transcripts were examined by the researcher in order to find the CSs used by the subjects in their native language.
17. The CSs used by the subjects in their first language, Arabic, were classified and analysed.
18. Then the CSs found in the Arabic performance were compared with those found in the English performance to assess the differences.
19. An in-depth interpretation and discussion of the findings was offered in relation to the educational context in which the behaviour took place and the nature of tasks performed.
20. The researcher provided suggestions for further research.
21. Finally, pedagogical implications were provided on the basis of the findings of the study.

6.5 Data collection instruments and rationale

In order to answer the questions of this study, three different tasks were used to elicit the data. They were an object-identification/naming task, a story-telling task and a role-play task. These are typical CLT tasks designed according to CLT principles and could be used in a classroom as part of a CLT programme. See section 6.6. The subjects were asked to perform the tasks in their L1 Arabic and L2 English. The three different tasks were used in order to determine whether there is a relationship between the task and the choice of CS used. Bialystok and Frohlich (1980:5) claimed that the task “may bias the learner to select particular strategies”. So as to obtain a balanced and reasonably generalisable picture of the CSs used, a combination of tasks that

involved different degrees of control over the content of the subjects' oral production, ranging from controlled to resembling natural conversation, was used.

6.5.1 Object-identification /naming Task

This task consisted of 15 pictures of different objects taken from everyday real life such as: escalator, lift, pushchair, broom, vacuum cleaner, etc. These objects were chosen because they represent real-life objects that learners encounter now and then in their houses, in streets, at shopping centres and at the university (Appendix II). The subjects were asked to say what the objects were and if it was not possible to name the exact target items, they were asked to describe them in any way they liked to get their message across to the listener.

6.5.2 Picture Story-telling Task

This task was a series of five pictures taken from Heaton (1966: 33-34) that tell the story of an accident (Appendix III). The learners were asked to tell the story, imagining that the researcher was their friend. The purpose of using pictures was to restrict the content of the learners' production without affecting the language used to tell the story. This task represents what we do in our daily life, since we generally tell our friends about what has happened to us or to others at work, while driving to work, etc.

6.5.3 Role-play Task

A foreigner who has just arrived in London for the first time is having some problems he has to solve. He has met someone who has been in London for a long time and knows it very well. The foreigner wants to solve his problems with the help of the resident. The two speakers were guided with a chart that explained their roles (Appendix IV). This task was taken from John and Liz Soars' (1996:5-6). The purpose of this task was to see how English majors perform language functions and how successful they are at passing and comprehending messages. The learners were given a chart that showed each partner the speech acts that he was supposed to perform. This was also done to control the content, but not to control the language used. Learner A

was given a chart to fill in the messages that received from his partner. The purpose was to measure message comprehension.

6.6 Task Design

6.6.1 Principles of task design

The tasks were designed as typical CLT classroom tasks and to incorporate certain principles of CLT. Nunan (1993:59) defines a communicative task as a “piece of classroom work that involves learners in completing, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is focused on meaning rather than form”. According to CLT principles, meaning is the most important aim of classroom communication and natural communication, because when we communicate, our ultimate aim is to pass our message to the listener and make our message comprehensible. Skehan (1998:268) also stresses the importance of meaning, and suggests that a task should satisfy four criteria in order that it may be regarded as an activity: "meaning is primary, there is a goal which needs to be worked towards, the activity is outcome evaluated, and there is a real-world relationship". I think that the tasks designed for this study meet all of these criteria as the main focus of the task is on the message transmission and comprehension. Success of transmission was measured in terms of whether the message was comprehensible or not.

Canale (1983: 4) states that communication is “judged as successful or not on the basis of actual outcomes. (For example, communication is successful in the case of a non-native speaker who was trying to find the train station in Toronto, and uttered ‘How to go train’ to a passerby, and was given directions to the train station)”. On the other hand, Littlewood (1987:20) suggests that “success is measured primarily in terms of whether the messages are effectively transmitted and received”.

The most important criterion for considering a task as useful and communicative is whether its focus is on communicating meaning rather than on its form. Let’s consider the following example, produced by one learner, to illustrate this fact: “It is article used to childrens find on it many games for sleep his noisy”. This learner, in attempting to identify an object, produced this utterance, but his effort, is unsuccessful

because the meaning is unclear. If such an expression is given to a hundred native speakers, none of them, I think, will arrive at the intended meaning. The learner transmitted a message, but his message was incomprehensible. He used circumlocution as a communication strategy, but unfortunately he failed to get his message across. The object in the above quoted example was a “baby walker”.

The focus of the tasks was thus on successful message transmission and comprehension, and not on form, since the model adopted in this study is this message-model of communication. See section 3.4. We adopted a methodology that used communicative tasks aimed at providing the subjects with the information necessary for transmitting the message and also at controlling the content; that is, pictures to identify the objects in the object-identification task, pictures to perform the story-telling task and cue cards to perform the role-play task.

According to Nunan (1993:40), classroom tasks can be “rationalized in either ‘real-world’ or ‘pedagogic’ terms”. The first type require learners to practise the kinds of behaviour they are required to perform beyond the classroom. On the other hand, the latter type require learners to do things which they are unlikely to be called upon to do outside the classroom. Despite the fact that the tasks with a ‘pedagogic’ rationale are unlikely to take place outside the classroom, Nunan (1993) says they nevertheless have a role to play “stimulating the internal processes of acquisition”. For Long (1985), classroom tasks start as pedagogic, but gradually work towards an in-class simulation of real-world behaviour. He claims that even artificial tasks can be seen as practising enabling skills such as fluency, discourse and interactional skills, mastery of phonological elements and mastery of grammar. On the other hand, Pattison (1987) proposes seven communicative activities, some of which are role-plays, pictures and picture stories. He stresses the importance of these activities in stimulating communication in the classroom. Thus it may be said that the tasks used in this study are related to the real world, but that they have a pedagogical rationale.

The tasks used in this study were designed not only for research purposes, but also to represent typical classroom activities that learners practise in their English classes at

schools every day, and which may be described as communicative. These tasks have a pedagogical rationale, that is, they aim to help in developing the learner's communicative competence needed for carrying out real-world communicative tasks beyond the classroom. They were designed to form a link between research and the CLT classroom, which has **not** been the case in previous CS research.

This study is based on an analysis of the subjects' oral production in performing these message-centred tasks designed for (a) research and (b) pedagogy. Focus on the message is undoubtedly a feature of real communication and all the proposed models of communication. When a child says to his mum "*water*", his mum understands that he means "*I am thirsty. I want a glass of water.*" Although these grammatical signals "*I am thirsty. I want a glass of*" are important, they add no new information to the situation. This means that the expressed message might be one word or a few words. A word could be more meaningful than a sentence.

In this study, the research is linked to language teaching and was conducted in a language teaching environment. The tasks were not designed narrowly to elicit a certain type of CS, but to examine the learners' strategic competence through their communicative performance in L1 and L2. Another focus was on whether or not the subjects could get their message across successfully in the target language. These tasks were piloted to check their validity. See section 6.6.2 below. Therefore, CLT tasks are the most appropriate for this study.

The three different tasks typify the CLT approach, which stresses the importance of the social context, language functions and notions and simulation. The role-play and picture story-telling tasks focus on the social and functional aspects of language. They may be considered to be the first step towards using language in the outside world. Bringing reality into the classroom can stimulate the learners. For example, in the object-identification/naming task, the learners are shown photos from the outside world, and they have to give the name of the objects in the photos in both L1 Arabic and L2 English, or describe the object in any way they can if they do not know its name. This task may be called a type of memory quiz activity which is included in

most of the CLT syllabuses with the aim of retrieving language the learners have already acquired, and learning new language items.

6.6.2 The Pilot Study

In order to investigate the CS phenomenon, a small-scale study was carried out in April 1999. This pilot study was designed to test the utility of the research tasks and procedures in examining strategic behaviour. It also aimed to assess the validity of the tasks designed to elicit the subjects' strategic behaviour by using normal pedagogical tasks typical of the CLT approach and identical to the activities the subjects were used to in their classrooms. A sample of six English majors at Yarmouk University was used. Two learners representing each proficiency level (low, intermediate and advanced) performed four tasks (See below) and they were audio-taped in one of my colleagues' offices in the Faculty of Education at Yarmouk University in Jordan. The subjects performed the following four tasks:

1. Object-identification task: the subjects were asked to name technical tools and other objects.
2. Story-telling task: the subjects were asked to tell a story through pictures.
3. Process description task: the subjects were asked to describe how to change a flat tyre following a series of pictures.
4. Role-play task: the subjects were asked to assume the roles of a doctor and a patient.

After piloting, some tasks were reconsidered, and modified; others were excluded. The object-identification/naming task was modified by adding new pictures, and some pictures were excluded because it was very difficult for the learners to name the technical objects in these pictures (e.g., pliers, screwdriver, saw), as the sample subjects said: "They are very difficult. We are not technicians, you should ask a mechanic" (See 6.5.1 and Appendix II). I felt that the subjects were annoyed by the pictures of technical objects. Even the advanced learners could not get key words like pliers, nut, screwdriver, etc.

The third task where the learners were asked to describe how to change a flat tyre was excluded since it required technical terms like jack, tighten, loosen, spare tyre, etc., though they were guided by pictures. It was also found that none of the pilot sample subjects knew how to drive a car. The fourth task was also changed because it required specific terminology or expressions used by a doctor. This task was changed by putting the learners in different situation (See 6.2.2). The story-telling task was kept without any changes. The researcher modified and excluded some tasks because he felt that they might resemble those used in certain previous studies which were designed deliberately to elicit communication strategies (e.g., Kellerman et al., 1990, Bangaerts and Poullisse, 1989) rather than to study strategic competence, which includes the learners' skill in getting their message across successfully and their use of communication strategies to solve the problems they encounter.

From the literature it is apparent that only Si-Qing Chen (1990) in her study "A Study of Communication Strategies in Interlanguage Production by Chinese EFL learners" conducted a pilot study, not to check the reliability and validity of the tasks, but to "ensure that the experiment would run smoothly" (Chen, 1990:158). She used two concrete and two abstract concepts. Four subjects were asked to convey the meaning to the native speakers. The piloted words were different from those used in the real experiment, and the subjects were asked to name the concepts "without using the exact target words so that they were forced to make use of CSs" (ibid:160).

The pilot study was very useful for my research as it enabled me to exclude those tasks towards which the sample subjects had a negative attitude, and which may therefore have hindered their communication process. I think that any task should be piloted in order to examine the quality of the procedure and of the tasks for eliciting the desired behaviour (reliability) before carrying out the actual research, as this makes it possible to make changes and modifications where necessary.

6.7 Methods and data collection procedures

6.7.1 Sampling

To make our classification of English majors reliable, an adapted TOEFL test was used to identify the subjects' proficiency level (low, intermediate and advanced). The purpose of having three different levels in the sample was to enable us to examine the effect of proficiency on the choice of CS used to solve their communication problems. The TOEFL test was too long. We therefore shortened the test time to one hour only, so that it could be conducted easily. Twenty items of the listening comprehension section, twenty items of the structure and written expressions section and two reading comprehension passages were selected randomly.

The TOEFL test was used because it is a well-known standardised test in which reliability and validity are established. The test consisted of sixty items: listening: 20 items, structure and written expressions: 20 items and reading comprehension: 20 items. The total mark for the test was sixty. Six groups were tested at Yarmouk University of a total of 160 English major students who were attending English language courses in the English Language Department. The listening part was done first. Time allotment was stated and one of my colleagues administered the test. See Appendix I.

After the test, the papers were collected and handed over to the author, who then marked the papers. According to the test results, the subjects were classified into three levels according to the test results. See table (6.1) below.

Table (6.1) Levels of English Language Proficiency

Test Score	0 - 20	21 - 40	41 - 60
Proficiency Level	Low	Intermediate	Advanced

In selecting the learners for the recording, we were keen to obtain as representative a sample as possible. The learners cover the ability range of English language majors at Yarmouk University. A sample of thirty English majors out of 160 in the English

Language Department at Yarmouk University/Jordan was randomly selected to perform the tasks designed for the purposes of the study on the basis of the adapted TOEFL test results. Ten subjects were randomly selected to represent each proficiency level except for the advanced level. As only 14 English majors got the required mark to be placed at this level, ten subjects were therefore selected, and four were excluded. Two male and female subjects were excluded because each pair was supposed to act out a role-play and it was not easy to ask a male and a female to work together in performing a task, especially since females are sometimes socially and culturally constrained. Two other subjects were also excluded because they had been to America and Britain for a year or more. The researcher excluded them as this might have affected the reliability of the results due to their exposure to the target language in an English-speaking country.

• Studies conducted to investigate communication strategies have often involved a small number of learners. It is true that Faerch and Kasper (1983a and 1983b) used 168 video- and audio-taped conversations, but we are not told whether all the data were examined or not. Poulisse (1990) had 45 subjects. Green (1995) examined data produced by 286 subjects believing that the greater the sample size the more representative it would be. Other studies used smaller numbers of subjects. Khanji (1996) studied 36 subjects, Aliweh (1989) 30, Mosiori (1991) 30, Liskin-Gasparo (1996) 30, Bialystok (1983) 30, Tarone and Yule (1987) 24, Russell (1997) 21, Tanaka (1993) 20, Al-Samawi (1995) 20, Varadi (1983) 19, Bialystok (1990) 18, Kellerman (1990) 17, Kitajima (1993) 15, Poulisse (1990) 15, Chen (1990) 12, Wagner (1983) 9, Haastrop and Phillipson (1983) 8, Mabry (1994) 5, and Karaki (1991) 8 . Dechert (1983) examined the strategic behaviour of just one learner (for further details see Chapter Four). In this piece of research we examined audio-taped data produced by 30 English majors at Yarmouk University in Jordan representing three proficiency levels (low, intermediate and advanced). It is true that this is not as big sample as Green's (1995), but each subject was required to perform three different tasks (Object-identification, story-telling and role-play) in both L1 Arabic and L2 English, which significantly increases the amount of data collected for analysis. Green's study was also part of the large Munich-York Project and so many

researchers and teachers took part in the data collection. For summary, see Table (6.2) below:

Table (6.2) Previous CS research

Author	Year	No. of subjects	Type of Subjects	Aims of the Study
Klosek, John	1982	9 tape-recorded	Female native speakers of the Cantonese dialect of Chinese, 18-20 years old	To examine what makes communication possible between native and non-native speakers; develop an objective measure of effective communication between NS and NNS; and investigate the effects of communication strategies and learning strategies on the acquisition of a second language
Faerch and Kasper	1983a	168 Audio recorded and video-taped	Danish learners at various educational levels and native speakers of English	Locate the communication strategies within a general model of speech production.
Haastrup and Phillipson	1983	8	16-17 year-old English language learners who had been studying English for five years	How learners cope with problems when communication breaks down.
Bialystok, Ellen	1983	30	16 grade 12 students learning French in high school and a group of 14 adults learning French in a Civil Service French Language Training Programme	Who uses which strategy, when and with what effect

Varadi	1983	19	Nine and ten adult learners of English at an intermediate level	A study of message adjustment
Wagner, Johannes	1983	9 audio-recorded	Adults who were participants in German course.	Analysis of communicative behaviour
Dechert, Hans, W	1983	1 audio-recorded	22 year-old English major at the University of Kassel	To elicit second language production under conditions which come close to being natural
Paribakht	1985	----	Intermediate and advanced Persian students	Which CSs are used by each group.
Tarone and Yule	1987	33	24 learners of English as a second language and nine native speakers of English	To study the strategic competence of second language learners
Bongaerts and Poulisse	1989	45	30 secondary school students and 15 university students of English	Examine referential strategies used in L1 and L2 in describing unknown shapes
Aliweh	1989	30	Sophomore Egyptian College Students	To investigate the short- and long-term effect of communication strategy instruction on speaking proficiency.
Poulisse, N	1989	15	Three proficiency level groups according to the number of years they had been studying English and cloze test scores.	To investigate compensatory strategies by Dutch learners of English at different levels
Corrales and Emily	1989	-----	Adult students enrolled in an intensive ESL programme in the English Language Institute of Pittsburgh	Investigate the communication strategy used to express lexical meaning.

Bialystok, Ellen	1990	18 tape- recorded	Nine years-old girls attending a French programme/ intermediate level	To see whether children behave in the same way when faced with difficulty
Chen	1990	12	Chinese EFL learners	Explore the relationship between learners' proficiency in L2 and their strategic competence
Sturge	1990	----	Grades 7, 9, 11 of a core French Programme.	To examine communication strategy use by second language learners
Kellerman et al.	1990	17	Dutch university students	Examine CSs used in L1 Dutch and L2 English
Karaki	1991	8	Learners were enrolled in an intermediate spoken course at a Bilingual/ESL program in a high school in western New York.	To examine whether the use of communication strategies is influenced by learners' personality traits and characteristics
Mosiori	1991	30	University students learning French as a foreign language at the upper beginner's J level	Investigate the effect of consciousness-raising about communication strategies on strategic performance of adult learners of second language.
Tanaka, Keiko	1993	20	Adult Japanese learners of English	How second language learners whose principal exposure to the target language has been through formal instruction use English for a wide range of communicative purposes outside the classroom

Kitajima	1993	15		Investigate the influence of planned versus unplanned discourse upon learners' choices of communication strategies and their overall communicative performance
Mabry, Anne	1994	5 audio- recorded	Learners of English in an English as a second language (ESL) classroom	To describe strategy use based on systematic classroom observation
Al-Samawi, Ahmed	1995	20	L2 male Arab students in Western Pennsylvania	Lexical replacement in extemporaneous speech
Green , Peter	1995	286	232 German secondary school pupils learning English as a foreign language 54 native speakers of English	To increase our knowledge of how learners use strategies when they encounter a communication problem.
Khanji, Rajai	1996	36	EFL students at an intensive English language programme of the University of Jordan	To link both interactional and psychological perspectives in analysing CS.
Russell, George	1997	21	Native speakers of Japanese	To test the reliability of Kellerman's procedures and findings
Liskin- Gasparro	1996	30	Spanish speakers of English	Analyse overall use of CSs used by intermediate and advanced speakers of Spanish
Duff	1997	Audio- taped	Non-native speakers of Chinese who had been in China for a few months	To examine the use of circumlocution strategies in Chinese as a second language

The subjects in the majority of the reported studies were adults who were learning English to pursue their higher studies in different fields. The subjects of this study, it is true, are adults, but they were English language majors who were taking English as a field of study and some of them, three months after the time of the data collection, would be teachers of English in schools, and would be responsible for developing school English language learners' communicative competence. Furthermore, they had never been to an English -speaking country and were studying in a FL environment.

The only studies reported in the literature review that investigated the communication strategies used by English majors were those of Chen (1990), Dechert (1983) and Bongaerts and Poulisse (1989). Chen (ibid) investigated the relationship between learners' proficiency level in L2 and their strategic competence. Her sample consisted of 12 English majors at Guangzhou Foreign Language Institute, six postgraduates and six undergraduates, who were asked to describe abstract and concrete objects. Bongaerts and Poulisse's (1989) interest was to examine the referential CSs used by the subjects in describing shapes with no names.

6.7.2 Sample background

The subjects of our study were freshmen, sophomores, seniors and graduates whose ages ranged from 20 to 24. They all lived with their parents where the home language is Arabic. At the time of data collection, June 1999, the subjects had been learning English as a foreign language for between 9 and 12 years. They were studying different topics at the university, such as linguistics, and American and English literature. Some of them were English Majors specialising in “Degree in Education – English Field Teacher”. Those who are registered in this programme must study 75 credit hours in the English Language Department (linguistics and literature), with an additional faculty requirements of 39 credit hours that include education and methodology and an additional 18 credit hours as university requirements. These include 9 hours in Computer Studies, Military Sciences, and Arabic. Another 9 credit hours must be taken from any faculty other than Education. The total number of credit hours that must be taken by a BA student is 132. Other students were Single English majors, where the departmental credit hours are 96 and no minor is taken. The

students must take the same university requirements as the English Field Teachers (18 credit hours). The faculty requirement is 18 credit hours.

The medium of instruction at Yarmouk University and other Universities in Jordan is Arabic except for the English Language courses and in the Science, Medicine and Engineering departments, where courses are all taught in English. This means that one-third of the university courses for English language majors is taught in Arabic. In addition, the English Language Department professors are native speakers of Arabic, but they are UK or US graduates. For more information about the subjects' learning and teaching environment and educational context, see Chapter One and Chapter Two.

6.7.3 Audio - Recording

The main data of this study were taken from cassette-recorded performances of the three tasks: object-identification/naming task, picture story-telling task and role-play task in English L2 and Arabic L1. First, the subjects were asked to perform all the tasks in their native language/Arabic, and then in the target language. This was done to make the subjects feel more relaxed since it is very easy for anyone to perform such tasks in his/her first language.

The subjects were audio-recorded in performing the three tasks in a private faculty office in the English Language Department in June 1999. The subjects were told that they were required to perform certain tasks that would be used for research purposes. Before starting recording, the author chatted with the subjects about different topics to make them feel comfortable and relaxed. This chat was a mixture of both languages English and Arabic.

The tasks were performed individually rather than in a classroom setting because a private office gives the best acoustic quality. Sometimes, in a classroom setting, it is difficult to transcribe some utterances because they might not be clear and sometimes they might be overlapping which creates difficulty in assigning these to which student. Performing a task in a private office will ensure that the real performance of the learner is recorded. In a classroom, sometimes learners who are not involved, for

example, in the picture being described try to provide help to those who are responding and this, in turn, affects the learners' performance. It was therefore decided that using a private office was the most effective way of getting an accurate and true production.

6.7.3.1 Object identification/naming Task

The first task was a picture description or object-identification/naming task. The subjects were given 15 pictures of familiar objects such as *an escalator, a vending machine, a vacuum cleaner*, etc. First, the subjects were asked to name the objects in their native language, Arabic. Then, they were asked to look at the photographs one by one and to make it clear in English which object they saw either by naming it, or in any other way, so that any one who would read their description later would be able to identify the objects or name them. During this task the subjects were not given any feedback or help in order to ensure that none of the subjects would be helped more than the other and that our interference would not influence the language produced. The subjects' oral production in both languages was audio-recorded and transcribed for the purpose of the analysis.

6.7.3.2 Picture Story-telling Task

This task was an oral narrative concerning an accident, in which the subjects were asked to assume the role of a witness telling the story to a friend who did not have any idea about the accident. The author was assumed to be their friend. The subjects' knowledge about the story was provided by a strip cartoon of six pictures taken from Heaton, 1966. See Appendix III. The steps followed were:

1. They were given three to four minutes to study the pictures and arrange their ideas.
2. The cassette recorder was switched on.
3. They were asked to tell the story first in Arabic. They were asked to begin the story with "Yesterday...."
4. Then they were asked to tell the story in English. Also, the subjects were not given any help.

5. Their oral production in both languages was audio-recorded and transcribed for analysis.

6. The researcher used key events to identify the CSs. See appendix VII. Pictures were useful for the purpose of controlling the key events that we expected our subjects to produce. Besides, pictures are good for stimulating the subjects to produce language. Again, the researcher did not provide verbal feedback while the subjects were telling the story so as not to influence the language produced.

6.7.3.3 Role-play Task

The subjects were divided into pairs of the same proficiency level so that we could study the CSs used by both learners in asking and answering questions. They were asked to assume the roles of a stranger who has arrived in London and someone who lives in London and knows it very well. The subjects were given a chart that explained their roles in both languages. See appendix IV. Arabic was used to make sure that the subjects understood their roles. The author explained the roles to the subjects once again to make sure that they understood the situation. The learner playing role A was given a chart to fill in the information that he got from his partner during the conversation. The pairs were given a few minutes to prepare themselves for the conversation. The cassette recorder was switched on. Then they were asked to start the conversation in Arabic. Finally, they were asked to play the roles in English and their oral production in L1 and L2 was recorded and transcribed for analysis.

6.8 Data analysis framework

6.8.1 English Transcription

Transcription is the best way to represent the oral production of learners as it makes it easy for the researchers to study, examine and analyse the transcripts closely. There are a number of transcription systems. Van Lier (1988) believes that “Transcription is never finished. Labov and Fanshel (1977) found that after years of working on one relatively short recording, they were still making non-trivial changes to the transcription”. He also adds “a transcription of a lesson can never be entirely accurate” (Van Lier:142).

Every researcher tries to use a set of symbols that seem to be convenient for the purpose of his research. Van Lier (1988) used a transcription system that was appropriate for his research to represent classroom interaction. The system of transcription used in this study is an adapted version of Van Lier's (The Classroom and the Language Learner, Longman, 1988). Because this transcription system was developed for L2 classroom interaction, a few additions and modifications that were appropriate for transcribing the oral production of the subjects in this study were made. This system was adopted in this study since it is well-known, meticulous work and uses simple conventions. The three tasks were transcribed using conventional spelling. It is only when pronunciation (or mispronunciation) leads to difficulties, that phonetic transcription was used.

In this study, all the learners' performances on the three different tasks were transcribed, but no attempt was made to indicate the subject's accent, tone of voice, or stress. As far as intonation is concerned, Falling, Low-rising and Rising patterns are considered to indicate the subjects' intentions. Rising was used to indicate questions; Low - rising to suggest continuation and Falling to indicate the end of sentences. Non-linguistic speech sounds such as coughs and laughs were included. False starts, pauses, repairs, repeats, and drawls were also shown for the purpose of identifying the problems the subjects encountered while communicating in L2.

Conventions to be used in transcribing the oral production of the three tasks are listed below:

Symbol	Meaning
LS1/ LS2	To indicate the student's number in the low level Group.
IS1/IS2	To indicate the student's number in the intermediate level Group.
AS1/ AS2	To indicate the student's number in the advanced level Group.
((coughs))	double brackets indicate comments about the typescript.
e:r, the:::, etc.	one or more colons indicate lengthening the preceding sound.
?	A question mark indicates rising intonation suggesting a question.
, .. , ... , etc.	pause; three periods approximate one second. These periods are separated from the preceding word by a space.

(6 sec)	To indicate pauses in seconds
{ }	non-existing word in L1 or L2
[seikl]	Square brackets indicate phonetic transcription when the word is mispronounced.
ve (ry)	Sounds in brackets are not pronounced
<i>ascenseur</i> (tr: lift)	Foreign or Arabic words are italicised and are immediately followed by an English translation. <i>Ascenseur</i> is a French word that means lift, but this word has become part of the Arabic language and used in everyday life.
go to Barclays Bank	Capitals are only used for proper nouns , not to indicate the beginning of a sentence.
ok. well.	A period indicates falling intonation
then, he continued	A comma indicates low-rising intonation suggesting continuation.

6.8.2 Arabic Transcription

The subjects' Arabic oral production in performing the three tasks was transcribed using the Roman alphabet. Utterances including communication strategies were translated into English. The Arabic transcript was used only for the purpose of analysing the use of communication strategies in the subjects' native language.

6.8.3 Analysing the Strategic Behaviour

The strategic behaviour of Arabic-speaking English Majors at Yarmouk University/Jordan in both English L2 and Arabic L1 in performing the three tasks was studied and analysed. No consensus has been reached on a classification of communication strategies. For example, Bialystok (1983) developed a taxonomy that divides the CSs into two types L1-based and L2-based CSs. Faerch and Kasper (1983a) also developed another taxonomy of CSs which divided them into reduction strategies and achievement strategies. In this study, I adopted a taxonomy of CSs to suit the purposes of the study (see section 6.8.4).

6.8.4 Communication Strategies Taxonomy

The taxonomy of CSs adopted for this study was based on existing taxonomies, most notably those of Tarone (1977), Faerch and Kasper (1983a), Bialystok (1983), Bialystok and Frohlich (1980), while excluding some strategies from these taxonomies such as non-behavioural strategies, since this behaviour needs to be video-recorded, and this technique was not used in this study.

The taxonomy was also 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 the 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 CSs used could be categorised under the adopted taxonomy. 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 learner's native language which is referred to as an L1-based strategy, or the information may derive 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. Furthermore, as a researcher and a native speaker of Arabic, I have an intuitive judgement of whether a certain strategy is Arabic-based or not. Non-linguistic or contextual information will not be considered because the oral production was only audio-recorded, and not video-taped to account for such behaviour as mime. The examples given in the adopted taxonomy below are taken from the data of this study.

6.8.4.1 The Adopted Taxonomy

A. L1-Based Strategies

1. **Literal translation:** translating literally a lexical item.

e.g. “It is electrical stairs” for “Escalator”.

e.g. “the boy e:r wake up and e:r he: go” The student used “wake up” to mean “get up”. The learner means "After that, the boy got up and continued his journey".

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 (15 sec) *qiyas* (tr: measure) (6 sec) e:r ((unintel 3 sec)) 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.* The 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 used by the learners.

ascenseur (tr: lift) ((the researcher asked "In English?")) the subject insisted *hia ascenseur* (tr: it's 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 trying to recall what items they have. The following is a clear example of L1-retrieval strategy.

Hathi bisamouha (tr: this is called) (20 sec) 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 don't 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 didn't do anything to em to prevent er em or to ... he didn't 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. So, 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 ,,,, ,,,, it's 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.

e.g. he just complete his road or his way er his direction.

5. Approximation: Using an alternative lexical item that shares certain semantic features with the target item, or using a generalised TL item.

e.g. 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.

e.g. “damaged” for “broken down” in the following utterance:

er he saw the man fixing his car his own car, the car was damaged and didn't 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 don't know. Electric e:r (13 sec) electric,,,,,, ladder? Electric ladder? Electric steps? Step? I don't 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 didn't ca(re) he didn't care for him when he fell.

e.g. er he saw the man fixing his car his own car, the car was damaged and didn't work.

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 learner’s admission of his lack of the required knowledge when he says that he does not know.

e.g. e:r em I don’t know, tell me.

False starts and hesitation phenomena such as pauses, drawls (lengthening the sounds as a time - gaining device) and fillers (*er, em*), repeats, slips of the tongue (lapses and speech errors) and self-repairs may be evidence of a problem in the learner’s language proficiency, although native speakers also pause, hesitate, repeat words or phrases, which is an indication that they also use communication strategies.

6.8.5 Identification procedures

In order to identify the CSs, with the help of a colleague, I marked and then labelled relevant parts of the data that contained strategic behaviour. This was done to maximise the dependability (reliability) of our classification. Both of us read the texts at the same time and agreement was reached. In addition to the use of the performance features as an indication of an existing CS use, a comparison of the performances in L1 and L2 helped in identifying the CSs. The performance of the Jordanian students in their native language provided an indication of what Varadi (1983) refers to as “optimal meaning” – what they really want to say – whereas some of their target language performances may represent an “adjusted meaning”– what they are actually able to say. As I am a native speaker of Arabic, it was easy for me to infer the optimal meaning by making such a comparison. To provide an example of an optimal meaning, the performance of two native English speakers who were asked to perform all three tasks was compared with that of the subjects. Self-identifying strategies are strategies that can be found easily without too much effort, such as language switch, self-repetition, self-correction and appeal for help. However, the following step-by-step procedure was used:

6.8.5.1 A step-by-step procedure

1. The self-identifying strategies were listed.
2. Other communication strategies were identified on the basis of:
 - a. Comparing L1 performance with L2 performance.
 - b. Comparing the subjects' performance with that of the native English speakers who performed the same tasks.
 - c. Pauses, hesitations and other temporal features in the English majors' communicative behaviour.
 - d. Noticeable deviance from native speaker norm in the interlanguage syntax, word choice or discourse pattern.
 - e. Control over the content of the oral production by means of the specification of key words in the object-identification task, the key events in the story-telling task and the speech acts in the role-play task which were specified in advance.
2. The data was reviewed in order to double-check and assess the possibility of not considering a certain behaviour as strategic.
3. Finally, the strategic utterances were classified according to the taxonomy adopted for the purpose of data analysis.

Bialystok states "I know no study that reports actual reliability data for classifying utterances, indicating the degree of concordance between two (or more) researchers scoring the same data" (1990:77). In order to maximise the dependability (reliability) of our classification, the utterances that included strategic behaviour were highlighted and the strategies were labelled in context according to the adopted taxonomy and given to three independent Arabic-speaking judges, whose job was to see (1) if our classification was reliable and (2) if the taxonomy was reliable. These judges were professors in the English Department at Yarmouk University. They were asked to check the reliability of the researchers' classification on the basis on the performance features and any deviation from the target language form. Their suggestions were taken into consideration. The judges typically agreed on the researcher's classification. In the cases where there was no agreement on a certain CS, it was excluded. On the other hand, some utterances were reclassified. For example, initially "I don't know"

was classified by us as "topic avoidance", but the judges' comment was that it was acknowledgement of ignorance rather than topic avoidance. So this utterance and the like were classified under a new sub-category of L1 - based and L2 based strategies called "L1-ignorance acknowledgement or L2- ignorance acknowledgement strategy". Some utterances had been counted as word coinage, but the judges said that these were literal translation cases. It is true that they are examples of literal translation, but they are also coinages resulting from literal translation.

For the object-identification/naming task, it was very easy to identify the CSs. The subjects were asked to name the object, or to describe what they saw in any way in English. If they could not name the object, this meant that they had encountered a problem and needed to employ a communication strategy.

The CSs for the story-telling task and the role-play task were not so easy to identify and classify. Green (1995) anticipated *information bits* for the story-telling task and speech acts for the telephone conversation task. In this study, to make it easy to identify and classify the CSs, the content of the three tasks was controlled in advance. For example, the content of the object-identification task was controlled as the learners were asked to name the objects shown in the pictures. The subjects were expected to express the key word that gives the intended meaning for each object (Appendix VI). The story-telling task was also controlled through the use of a series of pictures. The subjects were expected to express the key events that were central to the sequence of events in the story. See the list of key and subsidiary events in Appendix VII. The subjects were also expected to perform the communicative acts in the role-play task. See the speech acts listed in Appendix VIII. Our anticipation of the problems in the three tasks proved to be very helpful in identifying the CSs used.

The use of speaker introspection was ruled out, following Faerch et al. (1984), because it is very difficult for language learners to tell why they used a particular strategy and what they meant. Involving native speakers and independent judges increased the dependability of strategy identification and classification. This was also done for the purpose of cross-checking the data by more than one observer.

6.8.6 Success in Message Transmission/Comprehension

We hoped that the data collected in this study would answer the question posed in section 6.2.1.1.4 “Are the subjects successful in getting their message across to achieve their goals by means of their use of communication strategies and despite linguistic errors committed? ”

Bialystok's (1990) criterion for measuring communication success was whether the matcher could position all the cards on the board. The director had to describe her picture to the matcher so that she could reproduce the ordering on the director's board.

Why do people communicate? They communicate in order to pass certain messages to the listener. During the communication process, learners face linguistic problems, so they resort to CSs to solve them. Tarone and Yule (1989:107) state that "in the interest of successful communication, learners seem to attempt to build in redundancy, to send a bigger signal, perhaps to ensure that the basic message does get across". One of the aims of this study is to examine whether or not the messages transmitted by the English majors were successful and comprehensible.

In order to investigate communication success and the effectiveness of CSs in achieving the communicative goals of the learners, some researchers have set up a task for the learner in which the successful transmission of a message is 'criterial' (e.g., Bialstok and Frohlich, 1980, Chen, 1990 and Ellis 1984), but other researchers have not attempted to study whether or not the messages transmitted were successful (e.g., Khanji, 1996; Yarmohammadi and Seif, 1992; Poulisse and Schils, 1989).

Ellis (1984) conducted a comparative study of L1 and L2 communicative performance where the learners were asked to tell a story depicted in pictures. According to Ellis:

In order to compare the two groups of avoidance and paraphrase strategies, a number of key 'information - bits' were identified by anticipating what information ought to be included in a notionally 'good' account of the story (1984:41).

Bialystok and Frohlich (1980) examined oral communication strategies for lexical difficulties. To elicit CSs, they used a reconstruction task and picture description task. They examined the communicative effectiveness of the CSs. In the first task, the subjects were asked to describe a picture in French, to a native speaker of French. The communicative effectiveness of the strategies used by the speaker was spontaneously assessed by the reconstructor (native speaker) who provided feedback by selecting either the correct item or an inappropriate object. The information given by each subject was given on separate cards to a native speaker whose job was to rank-order all the cards in terms of their effectiveness in conveying the meaning of a certain item. In the second task the subjects were asked to describe the picture in detail.

Chen's (1990) method for examining the effectiveness of the use of CSs to convey meaning was that each concept was evaluated by the native speaker during the interview and by an independent native speaker who listened to the tapes later. The subjects' communicative effectiveness was assessed by a native speaker according to the following scheme:

- | | |
|---|--|
| 5 | Effective - identified the words immediately |
| 4 | Quite effective – easy to identify the word |
| 3 | Moderately effective – hard to identify the word |
| 2 | Less effective – very hard to identify the word |
| 1 | Not effective – unable to identify the word |
- (Chen, 1990:161)

Green (1995) measured the learners' success in message transmission by anticipating the information bits that each task might produce. In order to assess the comprehensibility of the subjects' performance, 44 erroneous utterances were chosen from the production of a number of German pupils. 109 native speakers of English were asked to "judge whether the meaning of each item was "clear", "vague" or "distorted" (Green, 1995:109). Then the judgements were reduced to "clear" and "unclear".

The methodology adopted in this piece of research to measure success or failure in message transmission was different from all of the above. Choosing only 44 erroneous

utterances (Green, *ibid*) for analysis is not an ideal procedure to give us a clear picture of whether CSs are successful for transmitting a comprehensible message or not, because a certain utterance which includes a particular CS may be successful on one occasion by one particular learner, but may be unsuccessful on a number of occasions when used either by the same learner or by another learner. The difference in our methodology lies in the fact that key words, key events and speech acts that were expected to be produced by the subjects were prepared in advance. These key words, key events and key words were examined by the researcher and two native speakers of English to decide whether the messages transmitted were successful and comprehensible or not.

When a subject resorts to a communication strategy, his strategy may succeed or fail to solve the problem encountered and to get his message across to the listener to achieve his communicative goals. For example, the subject who produced “It’s an electric ladder that is used to take people to the other floors”, will be understood by most native speakers of English who might hear this utterance to refer to ‘an escalator’. In this case we can say that this learner was successful in transmitting his message to the listener to reach his communicative goal. On the other hand, when another learner was identifying the picture of a ‘baby walker’, he said “article used to childrens ...find on it many of games for sleep his noisy”. In this case, I believe that a native speaker of English will not be able to determine what the subject was talking about or describing. Thus, we can say that his attempt was unsuccessful in getting his transmitted message across to reach his communicative goal, although he used circumlocution as a CS to solve his problem.

However, there are borderline cases. Not only do listeners need the linguistic code to get the meaning, but they also need knowledge of the outside world, general background, and shared knowledge to grasp the intended meaning. For example, if two mechanics are talking about something in a car and it happens that I am the listener, for me their talk might be incomprehensible, but for them or for a third mechanic, it is comprehensible because they share the same knowledge and they have

a mutual understanding of the topic discussed. However, such cases are rare in this study.

Success in task 1 'Object-identification/naming task' was measured by assessing whether the description given to each picture was comprehensible or not. We quantified how many pictures were attempted and how many were transmitted successfully (Key words-Appendix VI). Task 2 was divided into key events and subsidiary events that accounted for the telling of the picture story. We also quantified whether all the key events were attempted or not and how many were successful (Key events-Appendix VII). When a learner attempted the subsidiary events, this would give more details to the story. Task 3 was divided into speech acts that each pair of learners was instructed to perform (Appendix VIII). Seven speech acts were derived from the role-play chart which was given to each learner. Learners playing role (A) were given a chart and instructed to fill it with the information required during the conversation (Appendix V). We quantified first how many speech acts each learner attempted, and then how many attempts were successful.

Attempts can be counted, but the problem is how to measure the success of these attempts. Attempts were judged to be successful in transmitting or comprehending the message according to whether the content of the message was comprehensible or not irrespective of the linguistic errors committed or the type of communication strategies used. To ensure the reliability of this decision, two English native-speaker judges studied the data with the researcher to decide whether the messages transmitted were comprehensible or not. When two of us considered a message unsuccessful, it was classified as such. In the role-play task, we tried also to examine the subjects' ability in comprehending the messages transmitted to them. The students, who played role A, were supposed to fill in a chart with the information required during the course of communication. If they filled in correct information, this is an indication of their comprehension, but if they failed to fill in the correct information, this is an indication of lack of comprehension.

Some areas of difficulty arose in classifying an utterance produced as successful or not. To illustrate, let us take the following example:

LS1: I [went] to: change er some er travel che::ques e:r cheques where is where are you er ,,,,,,, exist these banks?

LS2: you is these bank e:r in, ,,,,,,,er *eish*? (tr: what?)

LS1: where is the where [dres] where is the ...,whose name?

LS2: er Barcle: Barcla:ys Barcla:ys bank.

Learner A (LS1) is supposed to perform speech act (1): “inquiring about where to change cheques”. Learner B (LS2) is supposed to perform speech act (1) tell the name of the bank: Barclays Bank. During the conversation, learner A is also required to write the information he gets in a chart (Appendix IV). Learner A (LS1) filled in the name of the bank on the chart. The first box of the chart looks like the example below.

Name of the bank:	Bartlice bank
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From the above, we can say that learner A (LS1) was successful in transmitting the message because of the use of CSs and despite the grammatical mistakes committed, but it is difficult to decide whether LS2 was successful or unsuccessful in comprehending the message transmitted. If such a learner gets such a word as “Bartlice” and asks a passerby, saying “ Bartlice Bank”, he could be directed to Barclays Bank.

Another learner (IS10), in filling in the name of the newspaper, wrote "Rash mans international news agenet". Though this learner failed to decode the message transmitted by his partner, I think "Rash mans international news agenet" might be successful if said to a local living in the same area, who might correct the foreigner saying, "Ahh, You mean Rachman's Newsagents. It's over there."

6.9 Methodological Issues

6.9.1 Validity and Reliability

There are two kinds of validity relevant to the present research, internal and external validity. Internal validity refers to the extent to which an investigation is actually measuring what it is supposed to measure. This type of validity answers the question: Are the differences found related to the treatments. External validity answers the question: Can the findings be generalised to other groups.

In quantitative research, the term 'reliability' is referred to as dependability. Nunan defines the term reliability as follows:

Reliability refers to the consistency and replicability of research. Internal reliability refers to the consistency of data collection procedure, analysis, and interpretation. External reliability refers to the extent to which independent researchers can reproduce a study and obtain results similar to those obtained in the original study (Nunan, 1992:14).

Bialystok claims (1990:77) "that reliability is elusive. I know no study that reports actual reliability data for classifying utterances, indicating the degree of concordance between two (or more) researchers scoring the same data". In this study, however, the English transcripts were all given to three independent judges who were associate English language professors in the English Department at Yarmouk University. They all had a PhD in Applied Linguistics or in TEFL, and they had been teaching at the university for over 15 years. The three independent judges were asked to cross-check the researcher's classification of CS types on the basis of problem indicators in the data and any noticeable deviance from the native speaker norm. They were also asked to check the classification code, which was then reconsidered and modified following their suggestions and comments.

Two native speakers of English worked with the researcher to check the learners' success in transmitting and comprehending messages. This method was followed as a

conservative way of preventing me from drawing unsupported conclusions from my study.

To maximise the validity of the instruments used in the present study, I adapted a TOEFL Test to place the English majors into three proficiency levels. It was used because it is regarded as having a high degree of validity or reliability world-wide (Appendix I).

Besides, the sample of the study was randomly selected in which a total of 160 English majors representing freshmen, sophomores, seniors and graduates sat for the placement test out of which a sample of 30 subjects were chosen to perform the tasks. The sample was representing three proficiency levels (low, intermediate and advanced). The sample may be said to be small, but I can say that it is quite enough to represent the population as the subjects were also asked to perform three different tasks (picture naming, story telling and a role-play) in their L1 Arabic and L2 English.

Seliger and Shohamy recommend that “the data collection procedures be tried out in the pilot phase of the study”(1989:184). For this reason, the tasks designed for the purpose of eliciting the subjects’ strategic performance were piloted to see whether they were measuring what was supposed to be measured. Certain changes and modifications were then made to these tasks. This also maximised the dependability (reliability) of the data collection procedure by means of which accurate data were elicited.

The research environment, the data collection methodology and the interaction between the subjects and the researcher can all threaten the credibility (internal validity) and transferability (external validity) of the research. To avoid this danger, the subjects were audio-recorded. The researcher’s aim was *not* to make the subjects hesitant or uncomfortable, so they were audio-recorded rather than video-taped. First, video-taping may have made the subjects, especially the female subjects, hesitant and they may have refused to take part in the study because of social and cultural constraints. It is also natural that the subjects might refuse or hesitate since they had

never been video-taped before. Videotaping might have created an inconvenient atmosphere, which would have affected the credibility (validity) of the data collected. Since video-taping is the only way of recording their non-verbal strategic behaviour, such as mime, non-verbal strategic behaviour was not studied.

In the end, the subjects were actually happy to take part in the tasks. Low-level students, it is true, were a little bit hesitant, and afraid that their results would be reported to their professors. I therefore gave the participants promises that the results of this study would not be passed on to their professors, that they would be kept confidential, and that no names would be mentioned in order to make them feel relaxed. Before starting recording, I had an informal chat with the subjects since I am a graduate of the same university and live in the same city. Getting acquainted with the researcher may have minimised their fears and made them feel relaxed and pleased to do the tasks. To reassure the students that their names would not be used in the study, and their results would not be reported to their professors, when I started recording, I did not use the subject's names, but used numbers instead, for example, student number 1, student number 2, etc.

All of the above measures were taken to maximise the reliability of data collection and data analysis procedures. As a result of contextualising this research, the findings may be generalised to Arabic L1 English majors in Jordan and to some extent other Arab countries, since they have a similar educational context.

There are four public universities, Yarmouk University, University of Jordan, Muata University and Zarka University, which offer the BA degree in English language and literature. This is in addition to the private universities, which also offer this degree, such as Jerash Private University, Irbid Private University and many others. The only university in Jordan that requires the passing of a placement test in order to be admitted to the English Language Department is the University of Jordan, but with no exceptions, all the other universities in Jordan accept students in their English language departments without an admission test. These universities take the students' average at high school as the criterion for admission, though all school subjects at

schools in Jordan are taught in Arabic, which might affect the student's average markedly. This means that a student who has got an average of 80% might be weak in English because the Arabic subjects affect his average. Low level students join the English language departments thinking that choosing this field of study will make it easy for them to get a job as a school teacher. We may, therefore, conclude that all English majors at universities in Jordan are similar, and that the results of this study may be generalised to the whole population of the English Language Department at Yarmouk University, and to all English majors at the universities in Jordan as well, except for the University of Jordan for the reason stated above. I think also that the results of this study may be generalised to other Arabic L1 countries due to the fact that all Arabic L1 speakers face similar problems in communicating in the target language. For details of these problems, see sections 2.1.2 and 2.1.4.

6.10. Limitations of the adopted methodology

First, this study is limited to Yarmouk University in Jordan, although there are seven government universities in the country and more than fifteen private universities. Yarmouk University was selected as a representative university, as it was the second government university established in Jordan, and it has been offering the BA in English language and literature for 19 years. It can be claimed here that because of the similarities between the universities in terms of curriculum and the students' educational background, generalisations can be made to other universities in Jordan and even to some other Arab countries.

Second, the subjects of the study were audio-recorded and not video-recorded, so non-behavioural strategies, such as mime and gesture were not studied. Third, the gender variable was not included, although the sample consisted of male and female subjects, since many studies conducted on Jordanian students to investigate their syntactic errors and other areas have shown no effect for gender.

Another limitation of this piece of research might be that during data analysis, utterances were only classified according to the pre-prepared adopted taxonomy, which means that there might be other CSs found in the data which were not studied.

6.11 Originality of Methodology

The methodology adopted in this study incorporates some improvements on previous methodologies used in previous research on communication strategies. First, as shown in the literature review, CS studies rarely provide detailed background information about the educational context where the learners study. Most of them provide us only with sample number, nationality, age and nothing more. This improvement over previous methodologies lies in the fact that, because the approach adopted in this research was qualitative, a detailed background to the educational context was given to the reader so that the findings of the research may be examined with reference to this educational context.

In the literature review, it was shown that no previous researchers have piloted their tasks except for Chen (1990), who did this to check that the experiment will run smoothly. In this study, the tasks were piloted to check their credibility and transferability (reliability and validity) for the research. Changes and modifications were made as a result of this pilot study. Having other people check the classification code and taxonomy is another improvement, since a very limited number of previous research studies have employed this method. The focus on the learners' success or failure in transmitting and comprehending messages is another important area to which few research studies have paid attention.

Furthermore, English majors have been under-represented in previous research into CSs. This is the first study on Arabic-speaking English majors learning English in a non-English speaking country, where the native and formal language is Arabic.

The use of the same subjects to perform the three tasks first in Arabic, and then in English, was made in order to compare the learners' CS use in their performance in both languages. This is also part of the originality of this piece of research, since our extensive examination of the literature review has revealed that no research has been conducted on Arabs performing the same tasks in their native language and in their L2.

Finally, the use of CLT classroom tasks is another feature which distinguishes this methodology from that used by other researchers, whose focus was either to elicit CSs by tasks which were designed for that purpose, or by communicative tasks, which as they claimed, represented real life. The tasks used in this research are CLT classroom tasks which have real-life characteristics, especially the role-play task. The reason for using CLT tasks was because these tasks represent the daily tasks the subjects practise in the classroom setting.

6.11 Ethics of the present research

1. Reducing tension and fear

The subjects selected were happy to take part in the tasks. The low-level students were a little bit hesitant and afraid that their results would be reported to their professors. I therefore promised the participants that the results of this study would not be passed on to their professors, that they would be kept confidential, and that no names would be mentioned in order to make them feel relaxed. When I started recording, I did not use the subject's names, but instead used numbers, for example, student number 1, student number 2, etc.

2. Video -taping

Females will under no circumstances agree to be video-taped due to cultural and religious constraints. So audio-recording was used instead and non-verbal CSs were excluded.

3. Male - Female pairs

It was not possible for us to ask a male and a female to act out the role-play together. This was due to the females' shyness and the unwillingness of many of them to perform such tasks or to play such roles together in the classroom at university level. Professors are aware of this. When such tasks are to be performed the roles are played by members of the same sex. Co-education is not a feature of Jordanian government schools, which could be another reason for this fact. For Ethical Issues, see Appendix XIII.

In this chapter, we have presented our qualitative methodological approach in terms of the data collection instruments, the strategic behaviour analysis procedures, and methodological issues such as credibility, transferability, dependability and triangulation have also been discussed. Ethics related to the methodology and data collection procedures and subjects have been presented at the end of the chapter. In Chapter Seven we shall present a qualitative analysis of the subjects' Arabic and English performance in the three CLT communicative tasks designed for this research, according to the taxonomy of CSs adopted. Then various issues, such as message comprehensibility, the effect of proficiency level and task on strategy choice and strategy use will be discussed. Finally, comparisons will be made between the subjects' English and Arabic performance to determine what, if any, are the differences.

Chapter Seven

Analysis of Strategic Performance

7.1 Introduction

According to Canale (1983:339) strategic competence is the “mastery of verbal and non-verbal communication strategies both (a) to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to insufficient competence or to performance limitations and (b) to enhance rhetorical effect of utterances”.

As a result of not being able to video-tape the subjects’ performances on the three tasks, non-verbal communication strategies such as mime, gestures and facial expressions will be excluded from this study despite the fact that they might have been used by the subjects.

All 90 oral texts that constitute the main data produced by the thirty English majors at Yarmouk University were examined to identify the verbal communication strategies found in them. Each strategy was assigned to one of the categories in the adopted taxonomy of communication strategies. Then the learners’ success or failure in transmitting and understanding messages was studied. Each of these stages was triangulated.

In Chapter Six, I outlined the questions of the study, methods of data collection, data analysis procedures, and described how the communication strategies in the data were identified and categorised. It is the purpose of this chapter to describe the communication strategies found in the data both qualitatively and quantitatively to see what answers they provide to the research questions. The CSs found in the same subjects’ performance in their native language/Arabic will also be discussed and elaborated with examples, followed by an English translation.

In Chapter Eight, the results will be discussed in relation to those of previous research, and reflections on the methodology adopted, pedagogical implications and suggestions for further research will be presented. First, each CS will be discussed and illustrated with examples.

7.2 Communication Strategies

As we saw in Chapter Three sections 3.6 and 3.7.2, no consensus has been reached on the classification of communication strategies. For the purpose of this study a taxonomy based on current taxonomies and the pilot study was used to identify and classify the strategies. These strategies were divided into L1 Arabic-based strategies and L2-based strategies. See section 6.2.1.

7.2.1 Frequency of communication strategies

Table (7.1) shows the overall frequency of communication strategies used by the subjects in performing the three different tasks, giving the percentage.

A total of 1637 instances of communication strategy were identified from the data. The key group of most widely used strategies were circumlocution 18.87 %, self-repetition 17.40%, approximation 15.27 %, self-correction 11.66 %, literal translation 11.60 % and language switch 7.57 %. This key group accounted for 82.37 % of the overall CS use. All the learners resorted to at least one of the above communication strategies.

In the following sections, each strategy will be discussed individually and illustrated with examples taken from the data as categorised in the adopted taxonomy. See section 6.8.4.1. More examples will also be shown at the end of the discussion.

Table (7.1) Frequency of Strategy Use for all subjects

Type of Strategies	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency Rank
Literal Translation	190	11.606%	5
Language Switch includes:	124	6.574 %	6
a. L1- Slips and immediate insertion	54	3.298%	
b. L1- Appeal for Help	33	2.015%	
c. L1- Optimal Meaning	21	1.228 %	
d. L1- Retrieval Strategies	8	0.488 %	
e.L1- Ignorance Acknowledgement	8	0.488 %	
Message Abandonment	79	4.825 %	7
Topic Avoidance	44	2.687 %	9
Word Coinage	45	2.748 %	8
Circumlocution	309	18.875 %	1
Self-correction/restructuring	191	11.667 %	4
Approximation	250	15.271 %	3
Mumbling	20	1.221%	11
Appeal for Help	44	2.687 %	9
Self-repetition	285	17.409 %	2
Use of Similar-Sounding Words	35	2.138 %	10
Use of All-Purpose Words	19	1.160 %	12
L2- Ignorance Acknowledgement	2	0.122 %	13
Total	1637	100 %	

7.2. 2 L1-Arabic Based Strategies

7.2.2.1 Literal translation

Literal translation was recorded when learners transferred their native Arabic language system to the target language. Tarone (1983:62) states that literal

translation takes place when the “learner translates word for word from the native language (e.g., *He invites him to drink, for They toast one another*)”.

What is meant by this category is that the production of the learners (on both word and sentence level) is a word-for-word translation from Arabic into English. This literal translation is based on colloquial spoken Arabic rather than on standard Arabic. In expressing the intended meaning of the following two key events in the story-telling task: (1) *The car driver didn't stop to help the boy when he was knocked off his bicycle* and (2) *The boy kept on cycling without helping the car driver*, many subjects translated these events literally, but in different ways. The following phrases which are given in the context below were translated literally and they all mean roughly the same thing:

without the: er driver careful with him (LS3)

e:r but em he is not e:r e:r ,,,,,,, important about the e:r (8 sec) the ma:n (LS5)

the driver er er,,,,,, don't interest of the er boy or the my bike (LS4)

er the boy let e:m the man by himself (AS6)

All of these utterances mean “He didn't take care of the other person” “He didn't pay attention to that person”.

The English word “let” and the Arabic word “*taraka*” are regarded as equivalents. If Arabs, who are not aware of English language usage, want to translate literally “*taraka*” into English, they will produce either “let” or “leave”. But, our subject used “let” to mean “left” as he was describing a past event. Besides, the English

phrase “take care of” in Arabic is “*yahtam bi*”. So morphological derivations in Arabic for the word “*yahtam*” are: *ihtimam*, *ahameyah*, *muhem*, and *háem*. If these words are kept in mind when producing English language items, the output will be “important”, “interest” and “careful” which all mean literally “*yahtam*” or “*ihtimam*”. As a result of translating from colloquial Arabic, erroneous phrases were produced. The contexts, in which the above cases occurred are shown below:

and er,...., when the car is er,....,...., hit the boy and he
came the boy became in the er between the [greis] er without
the: er driver careful with him. (LS3)

there is the driver e:r fixed my car because e:r ,....,e:r it er
damaged er er..., so he er ..., don't interest er in the driver and
e:r he felt of ((sigh)) [háebi] ,....,...., becau:se in the first the
e:r the driver er er don't interest er of you. (LS4)

this man was stuck in with his car and needed help. but er the boy let
e:m the man by himself and e:r the man was furious again. (AS6)

In trying to convey the key events in the story-telling task: “the boy kept on his journey without helping the car driver” “the car driver didn’t stop to help the boy”, the phrase “continuous his road” was repeated three times in one of the learner’s productions.

the er and the boy ,....,...., will be continuous er,....,, he is
road.(LS2)

The pause and hesitation that precede and follow the word “continuous” are an indication of the learners’ struggle in producing the correct language item. Also, the use of an adjective “continuous” instead of a verb is another indication of the

problem encountered and may be evidence of the learner's awareness of the problem that he was encountering and of the communication strategy he used.

Native speakers of Arabic produce such English as a result of translating literally from Arabic into English. In colloquial Arabic, when telling a story, we use the literal meaning of the verb "take" to express a key event as in "He continued/went on/kept on his trip". A learner translated this key event from Arabic into English saying:

the boy could get up and fixed his bicycle and er take his way (IS7)

Another learner wanted to say, "the boy continued his journey or he went on his trip". He used "way" which was translated literally. The output was "continue his er his em way".

and in his way, e:r way he saw the same man er and er he had a trouble with his car er but the little bo:y e:m ...,continue his er his em way without pay attention to: e:r the driver. just (IS 6)

In the object-identification task, the learners used the literal translation strategy less. In identifying an "escalator", most of the subjects used word-for-word translation from Arabic into English: "electric stairs, electrical stairs, electric ladder" and the like. In Arabic, "escalator" is "*sulam Kahraba'i*" or "*Daraj Kahraba'i*". Literally, the first word "*Sulam/Daraj*" means "stairs" or "ladder" and the second word where the adjectival form "*Kahraba'i*" is used means "electrical". The learners did not know the English equivalent, so they translated the two words to express the target language item.

In the role-play task, which registered the smallest number of cases of this strategy, learners used literal translation in expressing some speech acts which

were given to them on a chart. For example, in giving the telephone number, one learner said the following:

er number of telephone e:r ,..., forty nine er forty nine er twelve,
fifty nine, six (LS3)

Another learner, who intended to ask his last question, produced “the end question”. The repetition of the definite article 'the' suggests the difficulty that the learner had.

e:r International School, ok, e:r em I have er the em the end
question about I want to ask you about the accomon er
accommodation and how much it costs (IS1).

Politeness is social aspect of language, but it is expressed incorrectly in the following example where the learner produced a polite request, but translated this politeness from Arabic into English. The use of “if you please” at the end of the utterance is an example of literal translation. Though “if you please” does exist in English, it is very old-fashioned.

aha, e:r I will ask you another que(stion) other two two questions
if you please (AS5)

Telephone number is “*Raqam el telephone*” in Arabic. The word “telephone” is now used as part of the Arabic language in every day situations. “*Raqam*” means “number”. If the Arabic words are translated word for word and the two words are coined, the output will be “number telephone”. One learner produced this structure:

e:r ,..., ,..., and er are you know the number telephone? (LS3)

When speaking or writing English, lower level Arabic speakers usually think in Arabic and not in English. Thus, the result is word-for-word translation.

Table (7.2) shows the distribution of literal translation strategy cases by task and level. 190 instances of literal translation were observed in the data, accounting for 11.60 percent of the total number of communication strategies.

Table (7.2) Distribution of instances of literal translation according to level and task.

Proficiency Level	Task			
	Story-telling	Object-identification.	Role-play	Totals
Low	34	21	10	65
Intermediate	27	16	14	57
Advanced	25	28	15	68
Total	86	65	39	190

The most striking feature of Table (7.2) is the much larger number of literal translation strategies that the story-telling task yielded (86), accounting for 45.3 percent compared with the object-identification task (65), accounting for 34.2 percent and the role-play task (39 cases), accounting for 20.5 percent. The role-play task registered the lowest number of cases (10) for the low level students, accounting for 15.4 percent. The analysis of variance showed that these differences were significant at (α 0.05). These differences are most probably due to the demands of the story-telling and object-identification tasks, which required a wider and more difficult range of vocabulary items than the role-play task. Another reason for registering the lowest number of cases in the role-play task might be that the subjects stuck to the chart given to them and they did not use vocabulary items of their own. They limited their performance to their available linguistic resources.

The second striking fact revealed by this table is that low level subjects recorded the highest number of literal translation occurrences in the story telling-task (34), accounting for 52.3 percent of the total number of strategies they used. This can be attributed to their limited vocabulary and exposure to the target language. This could also be due to the false teaching strategy adopted in schools because teachers teach vocabulary items, for example, in isolation, which is probably due to an inability to teach them in context. As a result, these vocabulary items will be easily forgotten, and even if they are not, when used in communication, they will be not be contextually correct.

It is also very obvious from the table that the advanced group produced the highest percentage of CS cases (68), which accounts for 36 percent of the total number of literal translation strategy occurrences in the data. This is most probably because the advanced group had a wider range of vocabulary, but the Arabic mother tongue affected the strategy use. It was also noticed that the advanced subjects registered more cases in the object-identification and role-play tasks than in the story-telling task. This might be because one of the main features of these two tasks is that if the target language item is lacking, learners need to use sentences to describe things. Because the advanced subjects had a wide range of vocabulary, they took risks in describing things when the target language item was lacking.

7.2.2.2 Language switch

The second most frequently used L1-based communication strategy was language switch, which according to Bialystok and Frohlich (1980:10), refers to the insertion of a word or phrase in a language other than the target language. In our study, all the code-switching instances observed were to the learners' native language-Arabic. New sub-categories, which are classified under the language switch strategy, have been added to the taxonomy. They have been classified according to the factors resulting in this switch. These sub-categories are *L1-slips and immediate insertion*, *L1- appeal for help*, *L1-optimal meaning*, *L1-retrieval*

strategies and L1-ignorance acknowledgement strategy (see section 6.8.4). They are all language switch strategies and each was used for a particular reason. The total number of language switch cases observed in the data was 124, accounting for 7.57 percent of the total CSs found in the data, distributed among the above five sub-categories.

There are obvious reasons why native Arabic speakers use language switch when they communicate in English. They insert Arabic words or phrases during the course of communication, and these are considered to be slips of the tongue where learners intend only to fill the gap in communication. Another possible reason is the limited linguistic resources of learners. Lack of exposure to the English language which causes a lack of confidence among the learners could be another reason. This lack of confidence will cause learners to hesitate and be poor language performers. If English teachers resort to using Arabic, this also might affect their students' communication outside the classroom. Table 7.3 below shows the distribution of language switch among the three proficiency levels and tasks.

Table (7.3) Distribution of Language Switch Strategy by task and level

Proficiency level	Task			
	Story-telling	Object-identification	Role-play	Totals
Low	16	43	10	69
Intermediate	3	31	6	41
Advanced	0	12	2	14
Total	19	86	19	124

The immediately noticeable feature of Table (7.3) is the far higher number of language switch strategy cases that the object-identification task registered (86), accounting for 69.4 percent of the total strategy occurrences in the data, many more than either the story-telling task or the role-play task, which registered only 15.3 percent each. The analysis of variance revealed significant differences

between the object-identification task and the other two tasks at α (0.05). These differences might be due to the demands of the object-identification task that requires a lot of difficult vocabulary items.

The other surprising feature is the much larger number of language switch strategy cases produced by low level subjects (69 cases, accounting for 55.7 percent) more specifically in the object-identification task, which yielded 43 cases, accounting for 62.3 percent of the total number of cases produced by the low level subjects. There is a tendency among low level subjects to resort to switch strategy more than the other two groups. The reason for this significant difference is most probably the linguistic resources that low level subjects have and their low confidence in communicating in L2. The advanced subjects registered the least number of cases, which can be attributed to their confidence and their linguistic resources, which enabled them to communicate without too much switching very much to Arabic.

An equally significant feature is that no language switch cases were used by the advanced level subjects in the story-telling task, and this group had the least tendency to resort to switch in the other two tasks compared to the other two groups. This is probably because the linguistic resources were adequate to meet the needs of the advanced subjects. There was no need for them to switch, since they were able to express what they wanted in the target language. They were confident and sure to a certain extent of the vocabulary they had acquired. Therefore they did not resort to the use of language switch as a communication strategy.

To be a successful strategy, language switch requires that the listener knows Arabic and understands it. If the listener is a native speaker of English who does not know Arabic, this requirement is unlikely to be met, and it is therefore a strategy that is largely condemned to failure and therefore no better than the

message abandonment strategy. The listener in this study was the researcher, who is a native speaker of Arabic. It is true that in the case of the researcher, the subjects' performance, whether there was switch or not was understood, but if a native speaker listened to their performance, he/she would not understand any of these switches unless he/she knew Arabic.

In the following sections, each sub-category will be discussed individually and elaborated with examples.

7.2.2.2.1 L1- slips and immediate insertion of Arabic words

This occurs when learners insert a word to fill the gap during the course of communication. This can be as a result of a slip of the tongue, where the learners are conscious of these slips and try to correct them, or as a result of the lack of the target language item needed urgently in order to communicate.

The learners resorted to such a strategy due to a lack of knowledge of the target language item. In telling the story, for example, one learner encountered a lexical difficulty, that is, to retrieve the meaning of "honked his horn". So, he inserted the Arabic word "*Zammar*" followed by an L1-appeal for help "*Shu ma'na zammar*" (tr: what is the meaning of "honked the horn?"). Other similar cases also appeared in the data.

the child is e:r,..., walk fr(om) behind and he did not care ful er
about er (5 sec) not careful about him and then he: *zammar, shu
mana zamar?* (tr: honked the horn, what is the meaning of
honked the horn?), (LS3)

the driver hit the boy, and e:r the boy e:r e:r [ful] to: the: e:r
wadi. (tr: valley) (LS4)

Nasi (tr: I forgot) ,,,,,, skin scan e:r (15 sec) *qiyas* (tr: measure) (6 sec) e:r ((unintel 3 sec)) em temperature degree?
(LS1)

group of knife and e:r,,,,, em knife *ma'aleq* (tr: spoons) ,,,,,,stainlesses stainlesses *Shuka* (tr: fork) ,,,,,, *Mush aref* (tr: I don't know) (LS1)

e:r e::r (15 sec) ((unintel words) e:r ((cough)) ,,,,,, something e:r like a can a big can used for e:r {masha} er used for ,,,,,, *yutafi* (tr: put out),,,,,, for the fire used for ((unintel words)) I think putting out putting out fire (IS7)

In the utterances above, learners inserted the Arabic words: *wadi*, *qiyas*, *ma'aleq*, *shuka*, *yutaffi*, *kilmeh* *mush arefha* as a result of facing a difficulty in producing these items in the target language. Sometimes learners switched to an L1 item without much thought by simply inserting words whose counterparts they knew in the target language. This could be due to lack of mastery of the English language or a lack of vocabulary resources in the target language or could be resulted from tiredness, anxiety and carelessness, etc. Some learners were aware of these slips and they immediately inserted the equivalent. This is clearly shown in the following example, where the learner used the Arabic word “*ah, ah*” and when he realised that he was using Arabic, he produced the target language item immediately “*yeah*”. *Yes* is not a difficult word that requires much thought in order to say it. The second example also illustrates this fact. This learner inserted the word “*after*” immediately after the Arabic word '*bae 'd*'.

A. do you want the telephone number?

B. *ah, ah* (tr: yes, yes) ,*yeah, yeah*. (AS9)

the car doesn't er ,....., make and the e:r boy when *baed* (tr: after that) er after er er ma(ke) er ,....., check er your er bicycle, the bicycle wez wa:s er ,....., marched.(LS1)

Table (7.4) below shows the distribution of L1- slips and immediate insertion of Arabic words strategy according to task and level. 54 cases were registered in the data.

Table (7.4) Distribution of instances of L1-slips and the immediate insertion of Arabic words according to level and task.

Level	Task			
	Story-telling	Object Identification	Role-play	Totals
Low	11	17	5	33
Intermediate	3	5	7	14
Advanced	0	5	2	7
Total	14	27	13	54

The most interesting feature revealed by table (7.4) is that low-level learners had tendency to produce more L1-slips and cases of immediate insertion of Arabic words, accounting for two-thirds of the overall strategy occurrences, than the other two groups. The reason for this might be because of the low-level subjects' limited linguistic resources and their lack of communicative ability.

Another noticeable feature is that the object-identification task yielded the highest number of occurrences (27), accounting for 50 percent of the total strategy use. But the analysis of variance showed no significant differences between the tasks.

An equally outstanding feature is that the advanced subjects did not resort to this strategy at all in the story-telling task whereas the low level subjects registered

78.6 percent of the total number of cases distributed among the groups. The intermediate subjects registered 21.4 percent. This also can be attributed to the task demands, which required the subjects to use difficult vocabulary items.

It is also obvious from the table that the intermediate subjects yielded one more case in the role-play task (6), accounting for 46.2 percent, than the low-level subjects. This slight difference might be due to the classification system of assigning the subjects to three groups. Those who got 0-20 in the exam were classified as low, and those who scored from 21-40 were classified as intermediate. It may be that the level of the intermediate subjects was very close to that of the low subjects.

7.2.2.2.2 L1-appeal for help

The learners asked the researcher for help by using their Arabic native language, either directly or indirectly. 33 cases of this strategy were observed, where learners appealed for help as a result of lacking the appropriate linguistic resources. Table (7.5) shows the distribution of L1-appeal for help by level and task.

Table (7.5) Distribution of instances of L1-appeal for help according to level and task.

Proficiency Level	Task			
	Story-telling	Object Identification	Role-play	Totals
Low	5	9	2	16
Intermediate	0	14	0	14
Advanced	0	3	0	3
Total	5	26	2	33

The most obvious feature shown in Table (7.5) is that neither intermediate nor advanced subjects had any tendency to resort to appeal for help in L1 in the story-telling task and role-play task, and only two cases were registered in the role-play

task altogether, which indicates that the subjects did not have a tendency to resort to L1-appeals in this task. This could be because the vocabulary items required in both tasks might have been within the range of the intermediate and advanced subjects' ability.

Another significant feature is that the object-identification task yielded the highest number of cases (26), accounting for 74 percent of the total number of cases registered in the three tasks. The analysis of variance revealed significant differences between the object-identification task and the other two tasks at α (0.05). These differences might be for the same reason as discussed in section 7.2.2.2.1, that is, the task demands, which required the subjects to use difficult vocabulary items.

The fact that intermediate subjects used the appeal for help strategy much more than the other 2 groups, 14 cases, accounting for 53.8 percent, is also a surprising feature of this table. I think that this might be due to the fact that the experimenter (the researcher) was a native speaker of L1 Arabic, which could have affected the subjects' use of such a strategy.

It is also revealing that low-level and intermediate subjects had a tendency to use more L1-appeals than the advanced subjects. This might be a result of the fact that the linguistic resources of the subjects had not yet developed significantly. Another reason might be that the low level subjects were less confident in using the target language for communication. For example, one learner (LS4) resorted to this strategy five times in the object-identification task.

er tools of er (8 sec) cleaners? *Heik yani?* (tr: Isn't it?)

er *ascenseur r kilmeh ingilizia?* (tr: Is " *ascenseur* " an English word?) (7 sec) er this thing can used in the er em trans people from,..., under and to up
 e:m er ((sigh)) e:m this can used in e:r((sigh)),.....,....., *shu daraj?*(tr: What is the meaning of 'stairs'?) (7 sec) *Mush arfeh daraj* (tr: I don't know it.)
 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 (LS4)

In these examples, the learner was facing a problem in recalling the target language items, so she appealed for assistance by using her native language. Her use of the phrases: “*Heik yani? ascenseur kilmeh ingilizia? ascenseur kilmeh ingilizia? Mush arfeh daraj, shu?*” indicate that she was seeking the researcher’s help while performing the task because she lacked the necessary target language items.

7.2.2.2.3 L1-optimal meaning strategy

The learners resorted to the use of the native language, Arabic, to give the exact target language item. The total number of registered cases in the data was 21.

One learner (LS1) used this strategy three times in his production. The use of the word “*freiza*” is a clear example. *Freiza* is originally English; it means “freezer”. Nowadays, *freiza* is used in conversations in Arabic and has become part of the Arabic language. *Freiza* can be seen to be an approximation of the target language item “vending machine” because it shares some of its characteristics, such as keeping things cold. This learner also produced the word “carriage”, but failed to pronounce it correctly led him to produce the Arabic form “*arabah*”. Repetition is often an indication of having a problem. So his use of the word “*arabah*”, which means “carriage”, is also an approximation to the target language item

"pushchair". Carriage shares some characteristics of the optimal item 'pushchair' which the learner could not produce. The following are sample cases in context:

[freizen] , *freiza* , *freiza* (tr: freezer) (LS1)

er a [krDDʒ ,krDDʒ , krDDʒ]*arabah* (tr: carriage) (5 sec) small
[krDDʒ] (LS1)

Repetition is often a sign of encountering a problem. The following learner was recalling the target item, but it was a failure. He was trying to retrieve the TL item, so he produced a similar-sounding word – the non-existent “trambator” which is close in sound to “thermometer”. Having great difficulty in retrieving or recalling the target language item, he produced the Arabic optimal item “*meqyas hararah*”. Maybe this strategy was used by the learners because the researcher was a native speaker of Arabic, or it could have been used to fill in communication gaps.

e:r {tram trambator , trambator? trambator} ((laugh)) *kainha*
meqyas hararah (tr: as if it were a thermometer) (LS10).

Table (7.6) shows the distribution of instances of L1-optimal meaning according to proficiency level and task:

Table (7.6) Distribution of instances of L1-optimal meaning according to level and task.

Level	Task			
	Story-telling	Object-identification.	Role-play	Totals
Low	0	7	1	8
Intermediate	0	8	1	9
Advanced	0	4	0	4
Total	0	19	2	21

The overuse of L1-optimal meaning strategy in the object-identification task (19 cases, accounting for 90 percent of the total registered cases in all the tasks) is

very noticeable. The role-play task yielded only 2 cases, accounting for 10 percent, whereas no cases of this strategy were registered in the story-telling task. 19 cases were observed in the object-identification task, where learners tended to give the name of the object in Arabic rather than in English because they lacked the necessary target language items. The differences as measured by the analysis of variance are highly significant at α (0.05). This was due to the nature of the task, which required the subjects to give the name of the object, which in turn required recalling difficult vocabulary items.

The most prominent feature shown by Table (7.6) is that intermediate and low level subjects tended to use the L1-optimal meaning strategy in the object-identification task much more than the advanced level subjects. The intermediate group registered 9 cases, accounting for 43 percent of the total number of cases in all the tasks (21).

Another noticeable feature is that the story-telling task did not register any cases of this strategy. This task did not require the subjects to use very difficult items, whereas the object-identification task required recalling difficult vocabulary items. Another possible reason might be that the researcher told the subjects that they would not be given any help, and that they should tell the story the way they wanted, and also that they should not bother about vocabulary items. They were asked to use their resources whatever they were.

7.2.2.2.4 L1- retrieval strategy

L1-retrieval strategy is another newly-invented strategy which was added to our taxonomy of communication strategies. Only 8 instances of L1-retrieval strategy were encountered. Learners used their native language, Arabic, to retrieve the target items. According to Faerch and Kasper (1983a:52), in executing the plan “learners may have difficulties in retrieving a specific TL item”. So the learners started searching for the target item through the use of the native language by

saying things like “*hathi bisamouha...*” (tr: this is called...) to give them time to retrieve the target language item.

The following is a sample list of L1-retrieval strategies used by the subjects of this study.

Hathi bisamouha (tr: this is called) (20 sec) to light the room
 ,,,,,, e:r to light the room (LS1)

magmouaa baddi ahkeelak (tr: a set, I want to tell you) ,
 cleaners? *Laa?* (tr: No?) (LS2)

e:r ,,,,,, *shu bisamouha?* (tr: what is it called) to carry the
 [b3:rson] fo:r high high building (LS7)

for little boys (11 sec) *shu ahki anha* (tr: what can I say?) ,,,,,,
 it used for carrying the baby carrying the baby from place to
 place (IS10)

er ((sigh)) ,,,,,, *shu badi ahki anha hai?* (tr: what can I say
 about it?) (16 sec) [ni:f] and spoo:n which we found in the
 chicke(n) in the chicken, yeah (IS10)

Table (7.7) below shows the distribution of L1-retrieval strategy according to proficiency level and task type. Only 8 cases were registered in the data.

Table (7.7) Distribution of instances of L1-retrieval strategy according to level and task.

Proficiency Level	Task			
	Story-telling	Object-identification	Role-play	Totals
Low	0	4	2	6
Intermediate	0	2	0	2
Advanced	0	0	0	0
Total	0	7	2	8

The most significant aspect of Table (7.7) is that only 8 cases were registered, and that 75 percent of these were registered by low-level subjects. 4 cases, accounting for 75 percent of the registered cases by low level subjects occurred in the object-identification task. Another fact revealed by the table is the lack of a tendency among any of the groups to resort to L1-retrieval strategy in the story-telling task, in which only 8 cases were observed.

An equally striking feature is that the advanced level subjects did not register any cases of this strategy in any of the tasks. This might be due to their use of strategies other than the L1- retrieval strategies and their proficiency level.

7.2.2.2.5 L1-ignorance acknowledgement strategy

The third least frequently-used strategy was L1-ignorance acknowledgement where the learners admitted their ignorance using their Arabic native language, by saying *Mush aref, mush arfeh* (tr. I don't know) or *Nasi* (tr: I forgot).

Table (7.8) below shows the distribution of L1-acknowledgement strategy according to proficiency level and task type.

Table 7.8 Distribution of instances of L1-ignorance acknowledgement strategy according to level and task.

Level	Task			
	Story-telling	Object-identification	Role-play	Totals
Low	0	6	0	6
Intermediate	0	2	0	2
Advanced	0	0	0	0
Total	0	8	0	8

The most significant feature seen in Table (7.8) is that 6 out of the 8 cases observed were registered in only three low level learners' production, accounting

for 75 percent of strategy use in the data. This might be because of their noticeable weakness in the target language which was manifested in the placement test results.

Another distinctive feature is that these cases were registered only in the object-identification task. This could also be attributed to the nature of the task as discussed earlier which required the subjects to use difficult vocabulary items which were not within the range of low-level subjects.

An equally noticeable feature is the lack of the tendency among the advanced subjects to resort to this strategy. This strategy was only used by those subjects who were unable to use any word to describe the objects, but the advanced level subjects had vocabulary knowledge that enabled them to avoid saying “I don’t know” in Arabic.

These cases were registered in the object identification task where the learners lacked the knowledge to give the correct word, or to describe the objects, in the target language. Their use of the native language might be justified on the basis of not having had much practice in the target language. The following are examples:

tafayeh, Hai ma baarafesh (tr: fire extinguisher, I don't know this.) ,,,,,, to: protect from the: fire (LS1)

e:m *shu?* (tr: what?) (23 sec) *mush arfeh* (tr: I don't know) light up the room (LS3)

7.2.3 L2 -English based Strategies

7.2.3.1 Message abandonment

The cases of message abandonment were registered following Tarone’s (1980:429) definition of message abandonment. It occurs “when the learner begins to talk about a concept but is unable to continue due to lack of meaning structure,

and stops in mid-utterance”. 79 instances were registered in the English majors’ oral production.

In the following examples taken from the story-telling production, the learners became frustrated in the middle of the utterance and they were unable to continue and gave up after long pauses. Some of them replaced the message with another one when they realised that they were facing a problem. Long pauses in the learner’s production are deemed to be indications that problems are being encountered. For example, one learner wanted to transmit a key event in the story-telling task (The car broke down). During the process of transmitting that piece of information, the learner found out that his resources were insufficient. He was planning to say, “The car broke down”. So he resorted to literal translation intending to say, “The car was not moving because it broke down”, but being unable to produce this as a result of his limited linguistic resources, he transmitted part of the information, that is, “it e:r don’t e:r drive”. He wanted to transmit the reason why the car had stopped, but his resources could not help him. He was unable to continue, so he abandoned the message and moved to another topic.

suddenly he find ,,,,,, e:r the dri:ving e:r ,,,,,, er is er
stop,,,,, because the car is er er because the car it e:r it don’t
e:r drive ,,,,,, drives becau:se he it ,,,,,, the boy when he:
see say ,,,,,, when he saw the e:r e:r the driver e:r in his
situation er he wa:s fine and er ,,,,,, ni:ce (LS9)

Another learner wanted to say where the driver wanted to go, but in the middle of the utterance he abandoned the message “mad driver want to: er drive his car ..., quickly to:,,,,, to: his e:r,,,,,”. Lengthening the vowel in 'to:', then pausing, and trying again to express the message in another way without success are indications of encountering a problem. When the learner found out that there was no way of succeeding, he abandoned the message.

the child this e:r er will be confuse in this case, and mad driver
want to: er drive his car ...,quickly to: ,,,,,,, to: his e:r ,,,,,,,
for some reasons may be to him (IS8)

In the object-identification task, to identify the 'speedometer', 'lift', and 'pedestrian crossing', several learners gave up their message in the middle of their utterances. The existence of long pauses (AS2, 10 seconds; LS3, 7 seconds; IS1, 12 seconds) and their shift onto a different piece of information is an indication of strategy use. One learner, after a long pause, abandoned the message completely "I don't know". Eventually, she admitted her ignorance of that target language item.

e:m white steps for er for the walkers e:m em (10 sec) I don't
know((laugh)) (AS2)

e:r ,,,,,,, you can count er the e:r ..., the distance of e:r (7 sec)
found it in the car (LS3)

e:m some kind off ((the subject holds 'f' for a long time)) e:r (12
sec) something transfer from place to place in the er er building
(IS1)

In the role-play task, one learner was responding to a question about a newsagent. He wanted to pass on a message to his partner, but he encountered a problem that was difficult for him to solve. He therefore abandoned the message.

you, you can go Rachman's International e:r [nju:z³ei, njui:z d³
eints,] you ,,,,,,, you, (LS5)

One advanced learner wanted to say the name of the post office. In the middle of telling her partner about where to find stamps and post cards, it was clear that she faced a problem, and she did not complete her idea, saying: "they are e:r you could find that...".

okay. stamps you could e:r get them from High Street Post Office
 e:r and they er e:r they are available all the time the Arab world
 and they are e:r..., you could find that in Monday, Tuesday (AS8)

The following Table (7.9) shows the distribution of instances of message abandonment strategy according to task type and level of proficiency. 79 cases were registered in the data, accounting for 4.82 percent of the total number of strategies used.

Table (7.9) Distribution of instances of message abandonment according to level and task.

Proficiency Level	Task			Totals
	Story-telling	Object-identification	Role-play	
Low	13	17	5	35
Intermediate	11	15	6	33
Advanced	2	4	5	11
Total	26	36	17	79

The most salient point shown in Table (7.9) is that low-level subjects used message abandonment strategy more than the other groups (35 cases accounting for 44.3 percent). This can be attributed to their limited linguistic resources, their limited exposure to the target language and their lack of confidence.

Another significant feature is the fact that the advanced subjects tended not to abandon their messages. This can be best explained on the basis of their proficiency level which helped them to communicate and complete their thoughts without giving up. It may also have been because of their self-confidence and the vocabulary items they had available.

It is also striking that the object-identification task yielded 36 cases, accounting for 46 percent of the total number of message abandonment cases registered in the data.

A fourth striking feature is that there were noticeable differences between the advanced group and the other two groups, but there was little difference between the intermediate and low-level group.

The last most noticeable feature is that the role-play task registered the lowest number of cases (17), accounting for 22 percent of the total number of cases found in the data from the three tasks. This could be because the subjects were guided by the speech acts that were to be performed. Therefore it was difficult for them to skip any question or an answer to a question. Another possible reason is that Jordanian English textbooks concentrate on role-plays in teaching.

7.2.3.2 Topic avoidance

Topic avoidance was one of the most difficult strategies to identify from the evidence provided by the learners' utterances and the context. Instances of topic avoidance were identified according to the definition given by Tarone (1980:429): "the learner simply doesn't talk about the concepts for which the vocabulary or other meaning structure is not known". The problem is how to decide that the learner did not talk about a topic because he lacked the language items. The only way to do this was by comparing the learners' performance in their native language with that in English. Such a comparison yielded 44 cases. The comparison of the learners' performance in both languages for the picture storytelling task showed that whenever a key event was not attempted in their L1 performance, the same key event was not attempted in their L2 performance, either. This could be because the key event was not clear enough in the pictures to be noticed by the subjects.

In one of the learner's (IS2) performance in Arabic, the following four key events were not mentioned: The car driver honked the horn. He didn't stop. The boy rang the bell. He kept on without helping the car driver. After studying the same learner's English performance on the same task, it was found that he avoided all of the above here, as well. I do not think that native speakers would have any difficulty in describing these four key events in their native language in such a simple picture story-telling. It may have been because the subjects were trying to give the general meaning of the whole story, rather than because of any lack of linguistic knowledge in their L1. If it were due to a lack of knowledge in L2, would it be the same in L1? No. It might be attributed to carelessness rather than to a lack of knowledge. Two key events were not attempted by 23 learners out of a total of thirty in English and Arabic performance. These are (1) The car driver honked the horn and (2) The boy rang the bell. Maybe they did not attempt them because these two events need the learners' inferencing skill. The sound of the horn was represented by the words "*Parp Parp*" in front of the car headlights. Two learners (LS3, IS8) attempted these two events in their Arabic performance, but in their English performance they were not attempted. This might be a case of avoidance, since they inferred these key events and then produced them in the Arabic version, but could not produce them in English. In expressing the key event: "The car driver honked the horn", one learner said: "*Sar yateeh intharat, intibahat, ya'teeh zamour*" (tr: The driver started warning the boy, he started honking the horn) (IS8).

Two other learners (LS9, IS7) attempted "The boy rang the bell" in Arabic and English, but they did not attempt "The car driver honked the horn" in either language. This also means that they inferred the first event, but not the second.

Since 23 learners out of 30 did not attempt two key events at all and as some events were not attempted in either Arabic or English performances, it may be claimed that these were not cases of topic avoidance, but may be attributed to the

learners' lack of attention to the words "*Parp Parp*" that showed these events. These pictures required the learners to infer two key events: "The car driver honked the horn" and "The boy rang the bell".

One learner (AS10) did not attempt "The car driver honked the horn" in Arabic performance, but she attempted it in her English performance: "he was using the horn so that the boy would get out of his way". I think this supports the idea of the learner's lack of inferencing ability. Her attempt to describe the event in English, though she did not attempt it in Arabic, means that the learner was not avoiding the topic. Maybe she forgot to talk about it. For these reasons, these two key events were excluded, and were not counted as instances of avoidance.

Avoidance strategy was then registered on the basis of attempting a key event in Arabic and not attempting it in English. In this case, it may be assumed that the learner did not talk about the topic in the target language because he/she lacked a vocabulary or structural item. Following this procedure, no topic avoidance cases were registered in the object-identification/naming task because of the nature of the task which limits the possibility of avoiding the topic since learners were shown each object and they were asked to attempt it in any way they could. All fifteen pictures had therefore to be attempted. As a result of the control of the learners' production in the role-play task by giving the learners a chart with speech acts to be performed, no avoidance cases were registered. All the registered cases of avoidance were in the story-telling task.

Table (7.10) shows the distribution of instances of topic avoidance strategy in the story-telling task according to proficiency level. A total number of 44 cases were registered in the subjects' performance in the story-telling task.

Table (7.10) Distribution of instances of topic avoidance according to level.

Proficiency Level	Task
	Story-telling
Low	21
Intermediate	16
Advanced	7
Total	44

A distinctive feature of this table is that low level subjects have more tendency to avoid topics (21 cases, accounting for 47.7 percent) than the other two groups. Another significant feature is that the advanced subjects recorded only 7 cases, accounting for only 16 percent of the total.

7.2.3.3 Word coinage

When learners find it difficult to recall a certain target language item, they resort to the creation of new words. Sometimes these are non-existent words. Tarone (1983:62) defines word coinage as “when the learner makes up a new word in order to communicate a desired concept (e.g. *airball* for *ballon*)”.

In our study, the learners resorted to this strategy when they encountered a problem to which they could not find a solution other than in coining words. To generate new words and expressions to convey their meaning, learners used a number of devices. These devices were primarily compounds and affixation.

Prefixes and suffixes are used in English to create/derive new words The following are examples taken from Green (1995) and Varadi (1973/1983) to illustrate this strategy.

Affixation: (e.g. Translationese, *deschool* - Green, 1995).

Compounding: (e.g. ‘daisy wheel’ for *cupboard* - Green, 1995; ‘airball’ for *balloon* – Varadi, 1973/1973).

When Arabic-speaking learners of English encounter a difficulty, they translate elements of a native language compound and put these elements together to form a compound in the target language. The result might be a non-existent compound or expression. The following are examples provided by informants in this research.

In the story-telling task, one learner wanted to say that the car broke down or the car stopped, but he coined a negative prefix “un” to create a non-existent word “unmove”.

he found this the man who dr(ive) who hit them er find him his
car is er is,....., it's unmove (LS3)

Adding the plural suffix is another example of coinage. One learner, for example, added the plural suffix to the adjective “stainless”.

group of knife and e:r,....., em knife *maaleq* (tr: spoons)
.....,stainlesses stainlesses *Shuka* (tr: fork),....., *Mush*
aref (tr: I don't know) (LS1)

Compounding is clearly illustrated in the object-identification task. For example, one learner resorted to this strategy three times in describing objects: “cleans bottle” for “detergents”, “cleaning machine” for “vacuum cleaner”, and “automatic e;r,....., road” for “escalator” (LS1). This strategy might be a result of the mother tongue interference, because none of these words has an exact Arabic equivalent, so the subjects tried to translate literally from Arabic to make new words.

In the role-play task, all the 11 cases of coinage were repeated cases of the same target language item “traveller’s cheques”, but with different ways of coining, e.g. travelling cheques, travel cheques, and travel’s cheques. The following are examples in context:

[went] to: change er some er travel che::ques e:r be che:ques
(LS1)

e:r ,.....,er please I want e:r I want what? I want to: know where
the travel's cheques (LS5)

Only one case of coinage strategy was registered in the Intermediate learners' performance.

I have some che(ques) er travel cheques and I want to change it
to change er some of them. (IS5)

The learners are aware of the technique of word formation by adding a suffix or a prefix. This tells us how creative the learners are. But this creativity might lead to wrong generalisations and wrong output.

Table (7.11) shows the distribution of word coinage strategy according to proficiency level and task type. 45 cases of coinage were observed in the production of the research subjects.

Table (7.11) Distribution of instances of word-coinage strategy according to proficiency level and task.

Proficiency Level	Task			
	Story-telling	Object-identification	Role-play	Totals
Low	1	9	4	14
Intermediate	2	6	1	10
Advanced	0	15	7	21
Total	3	31	11	45

A striking feature of the data shown in Table (7.11) was that the analysis of variance revealed significant differences in the number of cases registered in each task at α (0.05). These differences were due to task effect. For example, the object-identification task yielded 31 cases, accounting for 69 percent of the total number of cases registered in the data, whereas the story-telling task yielded only 3 cases, accounting for 6.6 percent. The fact that the highest number of cases was yielded by the object-identification task might be due to the nature of the task, which required the subjects to use difficult words which were not in their linguistic repertoire.

It is also very obvious that the advanced subjects tended not to resort to word coinage strategy in the story-telling task. The reason for this could be because of the simple vocabulary needed to express the key events.

An equally noticeable feature is that the advanced subjects had a tendency to use much more word coinage strategy overall (21 cases, accounting for 46.7 percent) than the other two groups. This might be expected because the advanced learners have the ability to coin. As a result of the low-level learners' limited resources, it was difficult for them to resort to this strategy, and instead they resorted to other communication strategies, such as circumlocution, which do not require such creativity.

The table also reveals that low level subjects registered more instances of word coinage strategy (14 cases, accounting for 31.1 percent of strategy use) than the intermediate level subjects. No justification can be stated here.

The following are more examples of this strategy use.

7.2.3.3.1 Sample list of word coinage strategy

Object-identification task

1. baby's car

Optimal meaning: pushchair

Context: e:m baby's car (LS3)

2. bottle fire

Optimal meaning: fire extinguisher

Context: e:r er fire e:r bottle, bottle fire (LS6)

3. vehicle children

Optimal meaning: baby walker

Context: er small vehicle children (LS7)

4. electric machine

Optimal meaning: vacuum cleaner

Context: electric machine used for e:r clean the floor (IS7)

5. fresh drinks machine

Optimal meaning: a vending machine

Context: e:r a fresh e:r fresh drinks machine(IS7)

6. pacing e:r e:r lines

Optimal meaning: pedestrian crossings

Context: a pacing er pacing e:r e:r lines for e:r ,,,,,, used for e:r ((cough)) (7 sec) white lines in the street in e:r in horizontal e:r er se(tting) e:r setting or vertical(IS7)

7. baby coach

Optimal meaning: baby walker

Context: a baby coach e:r used just in hou(se) e:r in the house e:r for entertaining e:r the baby (IS7)

8. cleaning liquids

Optimal meaning: detergents

Context: e:r cleaning liquids (AS2)

9. cleaning brush

Optimal meaning: broom

Context: cleaning brush (AS2)

10. electrical lamps

Optimal meaning: chandelier

Context: er electrical lamps or e:r (6 sec) or er electrical lamps I guess(AS2)

Role-play task

1. School for English

Optimal meaning: English school

Context: there is an excellent e:r school for English, it is called the International School.(AS10)

2. travels che::ques

Optimal meaning: traveller's cheques

I want to know some information about the travels che::ques che::ques (AS9)

3. Travelling cheques

Optimal meaning: traveller's cheques

Context: 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? (AS3)

7.2.3.4 Circumlocution

When speakers cannot recall a target language item, they try to describe its characteristics or its use. Both native and non-native speakers of English resort to circumlocution when they cannot for the moment recall a word or an expression, or when they do not have the exact word for a certain concept. In this study the Arabic-speaking English majors sometimes used circumlocution in the Arabic performance of the three tasks. One learner, in identifying the picture of a vending machine, produced "*Makeena mawjoudeh fi mu'tham al muden wa tustakhdam li wathi' al nuqood fiha wa tu'tina olab al cola*" (tr: A machine that is found in cities where people put money and it gives them cola) (LS9). It was difficult for

the learners to find an Arabic equivalent for it since this machine does not have a straightforward word. It was noticed that most learners used the word 'fridge' as an approximation strategy because this is the closest word in meaning.

Non-native speakers of a language resort to circumlocution strategy, but more frequently. Tarone (1983:62) considered circumlocution as a sub-category of paraphrase and she defined it as:

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 don't know what's its name. That's, uh, Persian, and we use in Turkey, a lot of.')

Faerch and Kasper (1983:49) refer to circumlocution as paraphrase and they add that "paraphrase can also be exemplification". According to Varadi (1983:84), learners resort to *formal replacement*, that is, to paraphrase or circumlocution". He considers paraphrase and circumlocution to be two separate strategies:

"the latter [*circumlocution*] is understood to involve substantial restructuring of the message, often resulting in awkward verbosity. A paraphrase, on the other hand, is a much more felicitous and concise rendition of the original form than is circumlocution, although it is still not a distributional equivalent of the form it replaces".

Here, no attempt is made to distinguish between circumlocution and paraphrase. Circumlocution is defined in this study as describing the object, rather than using the exact target language item and talking about the problematic topic in more general terms, which results in awkward wordiness.

One learner tried to produce “The car broke down” but as a result of his limited resources, he uttered “car was er ,,,,,,not er not er continue.., to: ,,,,,, drive”. The same learner continued telling the story, but he was faced with another problem when he wanted to produce the subsidiary event “The boy fixed his bicycle.” He could not produce it, so he resorted to circumlocution to solve his communication problem:

the boy ,,,,,, er will continue to: er ,,,,,, to: make er good
or to er check er this er a bicycle (LS1).

Another learner used “calling with he is bicycle” to mean “The boy rang the bell”. This learner was also beating about the bush to make his message comprehensible by resorting to the same strategy:

the boy ,,,,,,will be continuous er ,,,,,, he is road .., after the:
driver
and he: is looking to him ,,,,,, er and er calling with he is bicycle
{*pum, pum*} ((a sound used in colloquial Arabic to refer to the
sound of the “horn”)) (LS2)

The most noticeable use of circumlocution strategy was in the object-identification task, which yielded 171 cases out of a total of 309. Learners tried to describe the functions of the object. For example, in describing “thermometer”, many learners resorted to circumlocution strategy. The following are examples of the learners’ performances:

ca:n e:r found the temperature of the: in the body ,,,,,, under the
we put under the tongue (LS3)

er this is a machine which is used to,..., to know the temperature (IS3)

e:r something used to: to express the,....., the heat e:r of the weather or we can use it for e:r with patient (IS7)

In the role-play task, which yielded the least number of circumlocution strategies, low level learners registered the highest number. For example, one learner wanted to produce the speech act "Where can I find stamps and post cards?" or "Where is the post office?". Instead he produced "and I e:r I need e:r ,....., know where er the stamps and er post cards" (LS5).

Table (7.12) shows the distribution of circumlocution strategy according to proficiency level and task type. Circumlocution was found to be first most used strategy. 309 cases of circumlocution were identified in the data accounting for 18.87 % of the total communication strategy use.

Table (7.12) Distribution of instances of circumlocution strategy according to level and task.

Proficiency Level	Task			
	Story-telling	Object-identification	Role-play	Totals
Low	38	68	26	132
Intermediate	26	70	14	110
Advanced	20	33	14	67
Total	84	171	54	309

The most distinctive characteristic of Table (7.12) is the much greater number of circumlocution strategies used in the object-identification task (171 cases, accounting for 55.3 percent of the total number of strategies used in the data). The differences as measured by the analysis of variance were highly significant at (α

0.05). These differences are due to the effect of the task. This might be because in the nature of the object-identification task, if learners could not identify the objects by name, they were told to describe them in English, or to make them clear somehow by using English.

Another impressive fact is that low level subjects had a tendency to use much more circumlocution strategy (132 cases, accounting for 42.7 percent of the total registered cases in the data). The subjects' lack of the target language items, which resulted from their limited linguistic resources, might be the reason. Another probable reason is the nature of the task.

It is also very obvious from the table above that the role-play task yielded the lowest number of strategy cases (54, accounting for 17.5 percent).

The following are examples from the subjects' performance in the three tasks:

7.2.3.4.1 List of circumlocution strategy examples

Story-telling task

1. Zaid also continued his way without just noticing the man he was very happy while the man was angry (AS9)

Optimal meaning: He did not stop to help the man.

2. in the middle of the way he found the dri(ver) the same man has some problem in his car (AS5)

Optimal meaning: The car broke down.

4. the driver, his car stopped and er and ..., there was something wrong with it, (AS1)

Optimal meaning: The car broke down.

5. he saw the same man er and er he had a trouble with his car (IS6)

Optimal meaning: He saw the man and his car had broken down.

6. then the boy ,,,,,,, is sta:nding is stand up er and then dr. e:r ride er the bicycle and dri:vi:ng on a way (LS9)

Optimal meaning: The boy set off on his journey.

Object-identification task

1. these machine er ..., used er to clean carpet ,,,, in any house (LS2)

Optimal meaning: vacuum cleaner

2. this machine used to: er e:r protect people e:r er from e:r a fire that occur in house or any place (LS2)

Optimal meaning: fire extinguisher

3. a [mætSi:n] er..., which er which has er pe pepsu pepsu cans and er er we get the we get can pepsu er by putting em money on a certain place in a certain place and it er give us er pepsu (LS3)

Optimal meaning: vending machine

4. er em ,,,,,,,ec this e:r (5 sec) e:m using to: to to count the er er the fa:st of the the car....(LS3)

Optimal meaning: speedometer

Role-play task

1. the time of the: bank e:r we are e:r found it to: the Barclays Bank. we are fi the time of the bank Monday e:r er er at the thur Frida:y at half past e:r ..., nine at half past nine (LS10)

Optimal meaning: It opens from Monday to Wednesday from 9:30 to 3:30.

2. er ok. I would like to study in a er a goond a good English school. can you [helb] me: to show e:r the school? (LS10)

Optimal meaning: Can you tell me where the school is? / Can you tell me the name of a good school?

3. an experienced e:r ,,,,,,, e:r English es teachers for specially to tho:se who who are foner foreigners e:r an the:y are give a good e:r,,,,, ((cough)) job (IS8)

Optimal meaning: They provide a good education. / You will receive a good education.

7.2.3.5 Self –correction/restructuring

Self-correction or restructuring is defined by Faerch and Kasper (1983a:50) as follows:

A restructuring strategy is used whenever the learner realizes that he cannot complete a local plan which he has already begun realizing and develops an alternative local plan which enables him to communicate his intended meaning without reduction.”

According to Faerch and Kasper (ibid), restructuring occurs as a result of a problem that learners encounter at either the planning stage or the execution stage, and refers to self-restructuring.

What do learners do when they encounter a problem during the course of communication? They may resort to self-correction after discovering that they do not have the required lexical or grammatical language item. One learner, for example, used self-correction 11 times in the story-telling task. His corrections were not all successful. Self-correction does not necessarily mean getting the correct form or the correct target language item; on the contrary, sometimes learners produce the correct language item to begin with, but because they are not sure of that language item, they correct themselves and the result might be the wrong form or the wrong item. One learner, for example, wanted to say “stay”; he produced this utterance “the driver don’t e:r stop ..., and er (5 sec) sta:y em [sti:] the high speed”. He pronounced the word correctly the first time. Lengthening the vowel is an indication that the learner is not sure of the pronunciation, so he corrected himself and the result was mispronunciation of the word [sti:]. The long pauses and hesitations are indications of the existence of the problem that this

learner encountered. This learner's production of the story is transcribed below and all the self-correction cases are underlined.

yesterday was a dri:ve ..,a driver is edriving er a car ,,,,,,, in one of a road ,,,,,,, er: that out of the ,,,,,,, of the city or the college or the village ,,,,,,, e:r er that the drivy the driver was ,,,,,,, er put high er a high speed when he e:r is near of the bo:y the: boy was driving a bicycle when he er is near of the boy er: make ..,with he: with him, ..,traffic accident e:r the drivy the driver don't e:r stop ..., and er (5 sec) sta:y em {sti:y} the high speed ...,then the boy .., is sta::nding is stand up er and then dr. e:r ride er the bicycle and dri:vi:ng on a way, then er wa:s the boy (5 sec) er then the boy ,,,,,,, er driving the bicycle ,,,,,,, and er go away .., go on suddenly he find ,,,,,,, e:r the dri:ving e:r ,,,,,,, er is er stop,,,,,, because the car is er er because the car it e:r it don't e:r drive ,,,,,,, drives becau:se he it ,,,,,,, the boy when he: see say .., when he saw the e:r e:r the driver e:r in his situation er he wa:s fine and er ,,,,,,, ni:ce and ,,,,,,,er he ek wa:s hit of the bell because the driver don't stop and er get he to the hospital (LS9).

In the object-identification task also the learners registered a number of cases of self-correction. The following are examples of this strategy:

1. it can put er er chil(dren) baby baby and move (LS4)
2. this that is e:r ..., er a machine from the cleaning the house and but er it's from hand (LS5)
3. e::r cleaners or chemical cleaners used for e:r chemical cleaners used for cleaning e:r anything (IS7)
4. er electrical electric ,,,,,,, electric machine used for e:r clean the floor or the carpets (IS7)

5.e:r usual e:r usual (6 sec) a tools tool used e:r for cleaning the floor, too (IS7)

6.it used to go up and down for e:r to stop in every e:r floor ,,,,,,, and it e:r works on e:r it work in electric (IS7)

In the role-play task, the subjects also resorted to this strategy. The following are sample examples taken from the English majors' performance in the role-play task:

1. where is where are you er ,,,,,,, exist these banks? (LS1)
2. the address is one seventy four Bank Street opposite the police ma(n) the police station(LS2)
3. finally I want to ask you about the accommodation. How I can how can I have accommodation here? (AS6)

Table (7.13) shows the number of self-correction strategy cases distributed according to proficiency level and task type. 191 cases of self-correction or restructuring strategy were identified in the learners' output. It was the fourth most used strategy, accounting for 11.66 percent of the cases observed.

Table (7.13) Distribution of instances of self-correction according to level and task.

Proficiency level	Task			Totals
	Story-telling	Object-identification	Role-play	
Low	41	14	22	77
Intermediate	35	10	28	73
Advanced	12	7	23	41
Total	88	30	73	191

The use of self-correction, which is considered very significant, might be for a number of reasons. First, the limited linguistic resources of the learners; second, lack of self-confidence or certainty, which are caused by a lack of exposure to the target language; the third reason might be to do with the language monitor, suggested by Krashen (1982), as a result of learning and paying too much attention to accuracy rather than fluency. Self-correction is also a strategy used in L1 Arabic. It is a combination of these factors that cause such a wide use of self-correction strategies by the subjects.

One of the most noticeable features of Table (7.13) is the tendency of low-level subjects to resort to self-correction (77 cases, accounting for 40.3 percent), compared with the intermediate (73 accounting for 38.2 percent) and the advanced (41, accounting for 21.5 percent). Significant differences exist between the means of the low level subjects and the advanced subjects on the one hand, and between the intermediate and the advanced subjects on the other hand.

Another distinctive feature revealed by the table is that the story-telling task registered many more self-correction cases (88 accounting for 46 percent of all cases found in the subjects' performance in the three tasks). It is also very noticeable that the object-identification task yielded the lowest number of self-correction cases (30, accounting for only 15.7 percent). This may be attributed to the nature the task, which did not require a lot of ideas to be put together. This task did not require a flow of information as the other two tasks did. The differences as measured by the analysis of variance were highly significant at α (0.05). These differences are due to the effect of task.

Equally surprising is that many more cases were registered in the performance of both the intermediate (38.4 percent) and advanced subjects (31.5 percent) in the role-play task than in that of the low-level subjects (30.1 percent).

7.2.3.6 Approximation

Tarone (1980:428) defined approximation as:

“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”).

Learners make inductive generalisations about the target language system on the basis of the data to which they are exposed (Corder, 1975). Learners tend to produce incorrect forms by false analogy (Blum-Kulka and Levenston, 1978). Generalisations and false analogy are therefore the causes of approximation strategy use.

The approximation strategy cases observed in the data of this study fell into two sub-categories: synonymy and over-extension. In the following sections, these two sub-categories will be discussed and illustrated with examples from the data.

7.2.3.6.1 Synonymy

Learners tend to use synonyms to replace the target language item needed. This does not necessarily mean that they are aware that they are using the strategy. Sometimes learners might think, because of their lack of exposure to the target language, that the target language item they are using is the most appropriate one for the situation.

One learner who said, “a small [bi:s] e:r use for cleaning the earth” (LS7) used ‘earth’ which has a similar meaning to ‘ground or floor’. This might be because of the mother tongue interference. Such cases were produced as a result of translating literally from Arabic into English. Few synonyms were found in the data. The majority of cases of approximation were registered in the over-extension sub-

category. The following are examples of synonyms found in the oral performance of the English majors.

7.2.3.6.1.1 List of synonym strategy examples

Story-telling task

1. quicker

Optimal meaning: faster

Context: becau:se he is er ,,,,,,, very ,,,,,,, er quicker ,,,,,,, in spee(d) er very speed em in driving (LS1)

2. bank

Optimal meaning: side

Context: then these boy er er ,,,,,,, may accent the the in a bank of the road (LS2)

3. wound

Optimal meaning: hurt

Context: we found the er chi(ld) the child,,,,,, is not er..., sick or e:r wou wound (LS3)

4. kicked

Optimal meaning: hit/ knocked down

Context: the man er kicked kicked the boy e:r the inside the: the road (LS8)

Object-identification task

1. materials

Optimal meaning: substances

Context: e:m chemical materials (LS7)

2. calculate

Optimal meaning: measure

Context: use it to: calculate the: e:r thermometer (LS7)

3. earth

Optimal meaning: ground

Context: a small [bi:s] e:r u:se for cleaning the earth (LS7)

Role-play task

1. poor

Optimal meaning: weak

Context: I am er poor in English where do you: e:r er find er a good schools to: learn e:r er, ..., English skills (LS1)

2. bring

Optimal meaning: get or buy

you can bring it from High Street Post Office (IS2)

7.2.3.6.2 Over-extension

The other sub-category of lexical approximation is over-extension where learners extended the use of a certain language item in order to compensate for communication breakdowns. The English language learners extended the use of some words to include other target language items. For example, one learner extended the use of “housing” and “house” to mean “accommodation” or “hostel”.

A distinction should be drawn here between an error and over-extension. An error is any deviation from the target language norms. Over-extension is a sub-category of approximation strategy which Varadi (1973/1983) refers to as generalisation. Richards, (1971) in his article “A non-contrastive approach to error analysis”, suggests that overgeneralisation results when the learners create a deviant structure on the basis of other structures in the target language (e.g., come – comed).

Overgeneralisation is a natural tendency in the process of learning. If learners do not know a rule, they hypothesise about the rules of the language and make deductions from the rules they have already learnt before and apply them to new words which they learn in a new context. That is why they produce original forms such as ‘comed’ or even ‘childs’.

Thus error is different from over-extension. Errors, although numerous in the data, were not counted as CS occurrences.

The following are examples of over-extension in their contexts:

7.2.3.6.2.1 List of over-extension strategy examples

Story-telling task

1. drive

Optimal meaning: ride

Context: a sma(11) baby drive em a bicycle in the road (LS1)

2. speed - attacked

Optimal meaning: drive - knocked down

Context: when the driver are speed very quickly e:m he: e:r e:r attacked er or he: making accidentally with the er the bicycles (LS1)

3. crushed

Optimal meaning: hit/knocked

Context: the bicycle was er e:r crushed (LS1)

4. marched

Optimal meaning: went on / went straight ahead

Context: your er bicycle, the bicycle wez wa:s er ,,,,,,, ,,, , marched. (LS1)

5. exceed

Optimal meaning: overtake

Context: then the driver er ,,,,,,, ,,, , exceed the er e:m the: er boy and er (7 sec) em hit er the boy (LS4)

6. wake up

Optimal meaning: get up

Context: the boy finished e:r the boy e:r wake up and e:r he: he go (LS6)

7. rebuild

Optimal meaning: fix

Context: the child e:r try to: rebuild his bicycle and he rebuilt it (LS7)

Object-identification task

1. vehicle for children

Optimal meaning: pushchair

Context: vehicle for chil(dren) for young children to carry him (LS7)

2. [freizər]

Optimal meaning: vending machine

Context: [freizər] (LS8)

3. dot

Optimal meaning: lines

Context: a signal e:r where ,..., e:r dot in the road (LS8)

4. watch

Optimal meaning: speedometer

Context: e:m it's a watch from the car? (LS5)

5. count

Optimal meaning: measure

Context: e:r ,,,,,,....., you can count er the e:r ..., the distance of e:r (7 sec)
found it in the car (LS3)

6. o'clock

Optimal meaning: speedometer

Context: e:m (19 sec) this o'clock can e:r e:r put in *shu?* (tr: what?) er in the car
to: er to: limit the: the speed (LS4)

7. general people

Optimal meaning: pedestrians

Context: it's line use in e:r,...., e:r used to em ,,,,,,....., to: er ,...,general people
(LS4)

Role-play task

1. housing

Optimal meaning: accommodation

Context: how much er did you you want to,....., *Laa* (tr: no) ,.....,....., to housing er in e:r in e:r a week (LS1)

2. housing

Optimal meaning: hostel

Context: I [went] to: li:ve in e:r in the house, in the housing where I can find er the house? (LS1)

3. workers

Optimal meaning: working

Context: workers er you can tell me about er workers? [hauərz] (LS1)

4. your

Optimal meaning: my

Context: I want to: buy a newspaper from er your country (LS3)

5. sitting

Optimal meaning: address

Context: er okay this bank e:r e:r where the sitting of this bank? (IS7)

6. [spesəlaizd]

Optimal meaning: specialists

Context: they are e:r [spesəlaizd] for the newspapers from all countries (IS8)

7. advice

Optimal meaning: advise

Context: can you advice me? (IS7)

8. student hotel

Optimal meaning: hostel

Context: ok e:r you can go to: the student hotel and they have e:r a good ,.....,....., e:r and they ha:ve e:r a good er and cheap rooms for students (IS7)

Applying Tarone's given definition (ibid) to our data, as Table (7.14) shows, 250 cases of approximation strategy (including the two sub-categories: synonymy and over-extension) were observed in the oral production of the English majors. It ranked as the second most used strategy after circumlocution. Table (7.14) shows

the distribution of approximation strategy according to type of task and proficiency level.

The most distinctive feature revealed by Table (7.14) is the significant differences between the groups. Low level subjects seemed to use more approximation than the other two groups, accounting for 40 percent of the total number of cases registered in the data. This is most probably because of their limited vocabulary repertoire, which was inadequate to enable to accomplish the tasks without considerable use of communication strategies.

Table (7.14) Distribution of instances of approximation strategy according to proficiency level and task.

Proficiency Level	Task			Totals
	Story-telling	Object-identification	Role-play	
Low	41	46	13	100
Intermediate	28	37	18	83
Advanced	26	32	9	67
Total	95	115	40	250

It is also striking that the object-identification task registered 115 cases, accounting for 46 percent of the total number of cases yielded by all the tasks. The differences as measured by the analysis of variance were highly significant at α (0.05). These differences are due to the effect of task. That is, because the object-identification task required learners to identify or name objects in pictures, the learners tried to approximate language items either by the use of over-extension of a target language, or by the use of synonyms.

The frequency of occurrences of approximation strategy was ordered hierarchically: low, 40 %, intermediate, 33.2 % and advanced, 26.8 % in all the

tasks. However, in the role-play task, the intermediate subjects registered a higher number of approximation strategy cases (18, accounting for 45 percent) compared with the low subjects (13, accounting for 32.5 percent) and the advanced (9 cases, accounting for 22.5 percent).

7.2.3.7 Mumbling

This strategy was only referred to in the literature by Dornyei and Scott (1997:188), who defined it as “swallowing or muttering inaudibly a word (or part of a word) whose correct form the speaker is uncertain about”.

In this study the cases registered were identified on the basis of the above definition. 20 instances of mumbling strategy were identified in the learners’ production.

One learner muttered, and because he was not sure of the word that he wanted to produce, he repeated the phrase and then switched into Arabic. The context is as follows:

there was a boy riding a bicycle, e:r ((cough)) er when the car
e:r ((unintel word)) ca(r) when the car (12 sec) *Marat bejaneb*
(tr: passed by) (10 sec) when the car come beside the er the
boy with the bicycle the boy confused (IS7)

Two other learners wanted to produce “broke down”, but they were uncertain of that language item, so they produced an unintelligible utterance in order to keep the story going on.

he's see the someone is er ,,,,,, in the car e:r the car is em ...,
have some ,,,,,, ((unintel word)), ok? e:r but em he is not e:r e:r
,,,,,, important about the e:r (8 sec) the ma:n (LS5)

this moment the boy was very e:r very [hæbi] because that man
((laugh)) his car e:r ((unintel word)) (IS2).

Another subject (IS7) resorted to this strategy three times in the object-identification task. The long pauses and switches to Arabic are all indications of the size of the difficulties the subject encountered.

e:r e::r (15 sec) ((unintel words)) e:r ((cough)) ,,,,,,, something
e:r like a can a big can used for e:r {masha} er used for ,,,,,,,
yutafi (tr: put out),,,,,,, for the fire used for ((unintel words)) I
think putting out putting out fire (IS7)

e:r ((sigh)) *masaad* (tr: lift) ((unintel word)) (5 sec) a machine e:r
we ca(n) we can find it in e:r big buildings e:r and it used to go up
and down for e:r to stop in every e:r floor ,,,,,,, and it e:r works
on e:r it work in electric (IS7)

The role-play task yielded only one case where the subject paused for a long time and as a result of her lack of the target lexical item, she muttered and continued her conversation.

yes, ,,,,,,, uh ,,,,,,, also e:r er can e:r e:m (7 sec)
((unintel)) also I like to buys e:r a newspaper e:r ..., it my
country (IS5)

The following are more examples of mumbling strategy:

1. *Nasi* (tr: I forgot) ,,,,,,, skin scan e:r (15 sec) *qiyas* (tr:
measure) (6 sec) e:r ((unintel 3 sec)) em temperature degree? (LS1)

2. these machine used to carry people from one floor to another floor, floor er (5 sec) like in,,,,,, airport or in any ((unintel word)) (LS2)
3. baby e:r (8 sec) you put er the baby in it and he will be same ((unintel word)) (IS8).

Table (7.15) shows the distribution of mumbling strategy occurrences according to proficiency level and task type.

Table (7.15) Distribution of instances of mumbling according to proficiency level and task.

Proficiency level	Task			
	Story-telling	Object-identification	Role-play	Totals
Low	2	6	0	8
Intermediate	3	6	1	10
Advanced	1	1	0	2
Total	7	13	1	20

The most unsurprising feature of Table (7.15) is that the object-identification task registered the highest number of cases (13, accounting for 65 percent of the total number of cases). This can also be explained by the difficulty of vocabulary items required to perform the task. The most notable feature is the fact that the role-play task registered only one case of mumbling strategy, in one of the intermediate subject's performances, which could be as a result of the chart which guided the subjects through the speech acts to be performed. The differences as measured by the analysis of variance were highly significant at α (0.05). These differences are due to the effect of the task as stated above.

An equally striking feature is that the lowest number of mumbling strategy cases was registered by the advanced subjects. This was to be expected since the advanced subjects' vocabulary repertoire would have helped them in this regard.

7.2.3.8 L2 - appeal for help

L2-appealing for assistance from the interlocutor was identified when the learners asked for help directly or indirectly. Most of the appeals for assistance were expressed implicitly by means of rising intonation.

Tarone and her colleagues (1983:10) define appeal for help and refer to it as "appeal to authority". They say that it "occurs when the learner asks someone else to supply a form or lexical item, asks if a form or item is correct". Faerch and Kasper (1983a) refer to this strategy as a 'co-operative strategy', used by the speaker to draw the listener's attention to the problem, and the latter tries to help.

Appeals for help can be direct or indirect. Some learners appealed for help directly when they asked the researcher for confirmation or to provide the correct target language item. For example, two advanced learners resorted to this strategy. The first learner (AS5) appealed directly and indirectly. The second learner (AS7) resorted to this strategy directly when he said "What do we call them?".

e:r ,,,,,, ,,,,,, {anguisher?} we can say? {anguisher?} can we say? of e:m a machine it can be used to: pause fire (AS5)

baby carriage or baby er ,,,,,, ,,,,,, baby small ss er seat e:r what do we call them? What's their name? I can't remember. (AS7)

44 cases were identified in the production of the research subjects. Table (7.16) shows the frequency of L2-appeal for help occurrences distributed according to proficiency level and task type.

Table (7.16) Distribution of instances of L2- appeal for help according to level and task.

Proficiency Level	Task			
	Story-telling	Object Identification	Role-play	Totals
Low	3	13	2	18
Intermediate	3	8	3	14
Advanced	0	10	2	12
Total	6	30	8	44

The most distinctive feature of Table (7.16) is the many more appeals for help registered in the object-identification task (31 cases, accounting for 70 percent of the total number of cases registered in all tasks). The differences as measured by the analysis of variance were highly significant at α (0.05). These differences are due to the effect of task. The difference between the number of cases yielded by the object-identification task and those in the other tasks are most probably due to the nature of the task, which required difficult vocabulary items.

That the advanced subjects did not have any tendency to appeal in the story-telling task is another prominent feature. This could be because all the subjects, before they started performing the tasks, had been told *not* to ask for help, and it could also be because of their high proficiency level. Another significant feature is that there were no differences between the low and intermediate subjects' appeals in the story-telling task. Each group yielded 3 cases.

It is also obvious from the table that there were great differences in appeal strategy use due to the type of task, mainly between the story-telling task and role-play tasks on the one hand and the object-identification task on the other. The object identification task yielded 70.4 percent, the role-play task 16 percent and the story-telling task 13.6 percent of the cases registered. The reason for this was probably the demands of the object-identification task, which required the subjects to use difficult vocabulary items.

Indirect appeal for help is illustrated in the following examples where learners used rising intonation pattern to ask for help. Rising intonation was marked by a question mark.

7.2.3.8.1 List of indirect appeal for help strategy examples

Story-telling task

1. e:r yesterday e:m ..., the guy? *ghalat?* (tr: wrong) drive er ,,,,,, er drive the [baisklet] and er in the street (LS5)
2. see he's see the someone is er ,,,,,, in the car e:r the car is em ..., have some ,,,,,, ((unintel)), ok? e:r but em he is not e:r e:r ,,,,,, important about the e:r (8 sec) the ma:n ,,,,,, the student? oh, , no ,,,,,, the person (LS5)

Object-identification task

1. automatic e;r ,,,,,, road we can say? o:r,,,,, automatic (15 sec) I don't know (LS1)
2. *Nasi* (tr: I forgot) ,,,,,, skin scan e:r (15 sec) *qiyas* (tr: measure) (6 sec) e:r ((unintel 3 sec)) em temperature degree? (LS1)
3. hand clean, hand cleaner? hand cleaner? (LS2)
4. e:r the fi(re) stop the fire? ,,,,,, right? ,,,,,, or stop e:r from the st stop the fire (LS5)
5. e:m it's a watch from the car? (LS5)
6. e:r carriage? *Arabayah heya?* (tr: is this a carriage?) ,,,,,, a small carriage for e:m a baby (IS2)

Role-play task

1. e:m Rachman's, repeat again, (LS3)
2. you can find a very er dev(eloping) developing [eskui:l] it is called International [eskui:l] (IS6)
3. the name of the school again? (IS5)

4. you can find a very er dev(elope) developing [eskui:l] it is called International [eskui:l] (IS6)

7.2.3.9 Self-repetition

The second most widely observed strategy was repetition (285 cases) which accounted for 17.4 percent of the total number of instances of strategy use found in the data. This strategy was registered when learners repeated what they had already said in order to bridge the gap in communication, and to gain time to produce a target language lexical or structural item. This strategy was used as a time-gaining device, and shows that they were still focussed on the task and were continuing with their turn.

Self-repetition was thus a clear indication of the fact that the learners encountered a problem and was planning the next utterance or idea. For example, one learner repeated 'was' twice because he was looking for a suitable word to use, and finally he used the word 'marched' to substitute 'went on', after a pause and lengthening the vowel which are indications of having a problem in recalling a required target language item.

the car doesn't er ,,,,,,, make and the e:r boy when *ba'ed* (tr: after that) er after er er ma(ke) er ,,,,,,, check er your er bicycle, the bicycle was wa:s er ,,,,,,, marched. (LS1)

Another learner who was describing one of the key events in the story-telling task repeated the relative pronoun 'who' followed by a hesitation. This was an indication that he had a problem and that he was thinking of the appropriate verb that should come next.

yesterday er there is er a boy who e:r e:r who ride er a bicycle (LS4)

Table (7.17) shows the distribution of self-repetition cases according to proficiency level and task type. 285 cases were registered.

Table (7.17) Distribution of instances of self-repetition according to level and task.

Proficiency Level	Task			
	Story-telling	Object-identification	Role-play	Totals
Low	48	34	37	119
Intermediate	41	27	44	112
Advanced	19	18	17	54
Total	108	79	98	285

The most significant fact revealed by Table (7.17) is that low-level subjects used more self-repetition than the other groups (119 cases accounting for 42 percent of the total number of those registered in the data). One reason for this probably lies in the limited linguistic resources of the low-level subjects. It may also be attributed to a lack of self-confidence among these learners, resulting from their limited exposure to the target language.

Another interesting fact revealed by the table is that the advanced group registered the lowest number of cases (54, accounting for 19 percent). There was little difference between the low and intermediate groups, but there was a great difference between the advanced group and the other two groups. These differences are obviously due to the proficiency level of the learners. When the learners' proficiency level is high, they resort less to the use of communication strategies.

It is also notable that the story-telling task yielded the highest number of self-repetition strategy cases (108, accounting for 38 percent of the total number of strategies registered in the data) when compared to the object-identification task

(79 cases, accounting for 28 percent) and the role-play task (98, accounting for 38 percent).

The most surprising feature is the object-identification task yielded the smallest number of cases of self-repetition (79 cases, accounting for 28 percent). This might be because the learners were only asked to identify the objects shown in pictures. They were not asked to expand their expressions or to use more than one word which, in turn, might have limited the possibility of repeating words to gain time, or to restructure ideas or grammar as was the case in the story-telling task.

The last noticeable feature is that the intermediate level subjects tended to resort to self-repetition strategy in the role-play task more than the other two groups.

7.2.3.9.1 Self-repetition strategy examples

Story-telling

1. about the bo:y how to: how to the e:r how to the help the boy. e:r the man the man of the ride of car we a:re e:r quickly about the street ..., (LS 10)
2. suddenly we are founded the: man e:r the the ma we are founded the: man e:r but the man is very very sa:d because they didn't do how do they make about the: car. the car is very , ..., er is very ,...,damage (LS 10)
3. because the car is er er because the car it e:r it don't e:r drive ,...,..., drives (LS9)
4. and mad driver want to: er drive his car ...,quickly to: ,...,..., to: his e:r ,...,..., for some reasons may be to him (IS8)

Object-identification task

1. a small a small [bi:s] e:r u:se for cleaning the earth (LS7)
2. e:r astr instrument fo:r e:r for fire (LS7)

3. e:r em we u:se it in the ca:r to: calculate the: the speed (LS7)

4. and the e:m the: [reid] the ride of the: em baby in the earth or em any any place (LS10)

5. a group of knife and er fork and em ,,,,,,, knife and fork ,,,,we use in,,,,, e:m in the food, (IS2)

Role-play task

1. ok, where is the address? er where is the address? (LS1)

2. I [went] to er buy e:r a news[peibər] ,,,,,,, where I I er ca:n find it? (LS1)

3. er how e:r er ,,,,,,, how much er did you you want to,,,,,, *Laa* (tr: no) ,,,,,,, to housing er in e:r in e:r a week (LS1)

4. yes. you can found that in Rachman's International News News ,,,,,gents (LS5)

5. they have e:r ((cough)) an experienced e:r ,,,,,,, e:r English es teachers for specially to tho:se who who are foner foreigners (IS8)

6. ok e:r you can go to: the student hotel and they have e:r a good ,,,,,,, e:r and they ha:ve e:r a good er and cheap rooms for students (IS8)

It is obvious that students resorted to this strategy when they repeated a word or a phrase in order to give them time to think of the next syntactical or lexical item, or to improve their utterance.

7.2.3.10 Use of similar-sounding words

Dornyei and Scott (1997) use this term to refer to:

“compensating for a lexical item whose form the speaker is unsure of with a word (either existing or non-existing) which sounds more or less like the

target item" (1997:189) *It can also include errors, guesses and approximations* (Our italics).

The use of similar-sounding words is different from the use of approximation the words used are similar only in sound to the target language items, but if they are existing words, they give different meaning, and if they are non-existing words, they give no meaning at all. On the contrary, they might cause misunderstandings and failure in message transmission.

Most of the registered instances were non-existing words which sounded like the target language item and which the learners used in an attempt to solve their communication problems and pass their messages across to the listener. For example, one subject (LS8) resorted to this strategy by repeating the same word three times in the story-telling task, which tells us much more about the size of his problem than it adds to the story. He produced:

the man er kicked kicked the boy er e:r the in inside the: the road
and er {escaving} the man and {escaving} the man and
{escaving} into the road going to: ,....., another place (LS8)

When this subject had finished performing this task, as a result of hearing him produce this word "escaving", which I thought at first could be due to pronunciation problems, I was curious enough to ask him to say the spelling of the word for me by playing his recording back to him. The subject spelt it for me as (E S C A V I N G). His intended meaning was 'escaping', to express the key event in the story-telling task "The driver went away without helping the man".

Adopting the above definition, 35 instances of similar-sounding words were registered. Table (7.18) shows these instances distributed according to proficiency level and task.

Table (7.18) Distribution of instances of use of similar-sounding words according to level and task.

Proficiency level	Task			Totals
	Story-telling	Object-identification	Role-play	
Low	11	8	1	20
Intermediate	6	3	2	12
Advanced	0	3	0	3
Total	18	14	3	35

The most salient feature shown in Table (7.18) is the least number of similar-sounding words were used in the role-play task (3 cases, accounting for 9 percent of those registered in the data).

Another revealing feature is that the advanced group did not use similar-sounding words in the story-telling and role-play tasks. When learners use non-existent words, and these words are similar in sound to the word they are looking for, this might be because of memory failure.

It is also obvious that the advanced level subjects registered the least number of cases (3), and these were registered in the object-identification task, accounting for 9 percent of the total number of registered cases in the data. This might be because of the demands of the object identification task, which required the subjects to express difficult words.

The last revealing fact shown by the table above is that the story-telling task yielded many more cases of similar-sounding words (18, accounting for 51.4 percent) than the other two tasks. No explanation can be supplied here.

7.2.3.10.1 List of examples of similar-sounding words strategy examples

Story-telling task

1. **accent**

Optimal meaning: **accident**

Context: after the accent the boy will e:r (8 sec) er the boy will (7 sec) after the taxi will be: helt and then he make fix his bicycle (LS2)

2. **weak**

Optimal meaning: walk/ cycled

Context: suddenly if the baby the boy is e:r weak about the street (LS10)

3. **preparing**

Optimal meaning: repairing

Context: after that he trying to er to: get up and preparing his his bike, er er then he con continue his way (IS9)

4. **winded**

Optimal meaning: mended

Context: the child e:r ,..., winded the: bicycle and he: [w lkid] on the street (IS10)

Object-identification task

1. {frðugðr}

Optimal meaning: refrigerator

Context: the {frðugðr} of coca cola (LS10)

2. {instruint}

Optimal meaning: instrument

Context: e:r about the clean of the kitchen. the ma , no they *adawat adwat* (tr: tools, tools) ((laugh)) (15 sec) *muidat* (tr: instruments) (10 sec) *yala* (tr: OK) {instruint } about the kitchen. (LS10)

3. {instreint}

Optimal meaning: instrument

Context: {instreint} about the kitchen [nif] or e:m . I don't know. (LS10)

4. organise

Optimal meaning: recognise

Context: er this is picture e:r which it use in the cars er er to: recogni(se) organise the [sped] of the car (IS2)

5. {ekstenture}

Optimal meaning: extinguisher

Context: this is {ekstenture} (IS6)

6. {therbobeter}

Optimal meaning: thermometer

Context: er em {therbobeter} no. it is not. thermometer? (AS1)

Role-play task

1. went

Optimal meaning: want

Context: ok , thank you. I [went] to: li:ve in e:r in the house, in the housing where I can find er the house?

2. sits

Optimal meaning: site/place

Context: the school is this school sits one hundred six, Dover Street,...., W1 for tuition, (IS6)

3. sitting

Optimal meaning: site/place

Context: er okay this bank e:r e:r where the sitting of this bank?

7.2.3.11 Use of all-purpose words

Dornyei and Scott (1997:188) use the term “use of all-purpose words” to refer to “extending a general, “empty” lexical item to a context where specific words are lacking”.

19 instances of the use of all-purpose words were encountered in the data. They were registered when the learners resorted to words like 'something', 'thing', 'stuff', 'make' and 'do', when specific target language items were lacking. For example, one learner (AS5) resorted to this strategy to describe the chandelier: “a group of electrical *things* can be used for lightening house”. This is a result of the learner’s lack of the key word ‘chandelier’.

Table (7.19) shows the distribution of all-purpose words by task type and proficiency level.

Table (7.19) Distribution of instances of use of all-purpose words according to level and task.

Proficiency Level	Task			Totals
	Story-telling	Object-identification	Role-play	
Low	2	4	0	6
Intermediate	1	2	1	4
Advanced	2	3	4	9
Total	5	9	5	19

Table (7.19) shows that there are few differences among the groups and the tasks. The most noticeable feature is the equal number of all-purpose strategy cases used in the role-play and story-telling tasks (5, accounting for 26 percent of the total number).

Another obvious fact is that the low level subjects did not resort to the use of all-purpose words strategy at all in the role-play task. This might be because of their lack of exposure to the target language and their lack of knowledge of problem-solving devices.

Role-play task

1. e:r I would like to: buy a newspaper from my country and other *stuffs* like e:r er chocolates ,,,,,,, and e:m sweets ,etc. something like this, from from where can I get these *things*? (AS1)
2. is it near to school or far a way or *something*? (AS7)

7.2.3.12 L2-ignorance acknowledgement strategy

This strategy was registered when learners admitted their ignorance by saying “ I don’t know” or “I forget”. Only 2 instances of L2 - ignorance acknowledgement were identified in the English majors’ performance on the three tasks, compared with 8 cases of L1-ignorance strategy. The high number of L1 instances might be due to the fact that the experimenter (the author) was an Arab, which might have made the subjects use Arabic more. Two low-level learners registered two instances of L2 - ignorance acknowledgement in the object-identification task. One example was where the learner could not name “thermometer” and said “e:r I don’t know, tell me (LS5)”. This was the same for cases of L1 - ignorance strategy, in that they were only registered in the object-identification task. This could be because of the nature of the task which required the use of difficult vocabulary.

In the previous sections, we discussed the communication strategies used by the subjects of the study. As stated earlier, strategies have been classified into L1-based and L2-based strategies. Therefore, the main concern of the following section is to discuss these two sub-categories in relation to task type and learners’ proficiency level. We will see which strategy type was used more by the subjects: L1-based or L2-based.

7.3 L1-based or L2-based Communication Strategies

The communication strategy taxonomy was divided into two main sub-categories: L1-based strategies and L2-based strategies. For details see section 6.2.1. The subjects of the study used L1-based CSs as well as L2-based CSs. However, the data showed that the strategies of the latter type occurred much more frequently than strategies of the former type. The three tasks yielded 1323 instances of L2-based strategies, accounting for 80.8 percent of total strategy use, compared with 314 L1-based strategies, accounting for 19.2 percent. This means that the CSs used by the subjects were based mainly on the target language. This also shows that the subjects were trying hard to communicate in L2, using whatever means were at their disposal.

The differences between the subjects' use of L2-based and L1-based CSs was found to be significant across the three tasks. Table (7.20) shows the distribution of L1-based strategies and L2-based strategies according to task type.

Table (7.20) Frequency of L1- and L2- based strategies for all students by task

Type of Strategies	Story-telling Task	Object- Identification Task	Role-play Task	Total	Mean
L1- Based Strategies	105	143	58	306	3.40
L2 – Based Strategies	479	548	304	1331	14.78
Total	584	691	362	1637	18.18

The most striking feature shown by Table (7.20) is the high number of L2-based strategies used in the object identification task (548, accounting for 41.17 percent of the total number of cases registered in the data).

Another obvious feature is that the object-identification task registered the highest frequency of L1-based and L2-based strategies (691 cases, accounting for 42.21 percent of the total number of strategies recorded in all tasks). The analysis of variance by task is shown in Table (7.21) below.

Table (7.21) Analysis of variance by task

Strategy Type	Sum of squares	Mean squares	F ratio	F prob.
L1-based	120.866	60.433	10.50	.001
L2 based	1092.02	546.01	11.90	.001

The analysis of variance results shown above reveal the fact that there were highly significant differences between L1-based and L2-based strategies due to the effect of task type. The differences between the means were found to be significant at (α 0.05). These significant differences were found between the role-play task and the object-identification task. The difference was also significant between the story-telling task and the role-play task. Another significant difference was found between the object-identification task and the story-telling task. The reason for the difference is most probably the effect of task on the use of a particular strategy, for example, the object-identification task yielded the highest number of strategy cases registered in the data (691) due to the difficulty of vocabulary items required by the subjects. By contrast, the role-play task registered the lowest number of cases (362) in both L1-based and L2-based strategies, accounting only for only 22.12 percent. The reason for this might be the control over the speech acts which were performed by the subjects and which were given to the subjects. The subjects may have limited their performance to the expressions used in the speech acts, so the registered number of cases was lower than it was in the other two tasks. Another reason might be that the speech acts could be performed by using a wide range of linguistic forms, whereas in the object-identification task, they had to produce very specific forms.

Table (7.22) shows the frequency of L1-based and L2-based strategies according to level.

Table (7.22) Distribution of L1-based and L2-based strategies by proficiency level.

Type of Strategy	Low	Intermediate	Advanced	Total	Mean	SD
L1- Based Strategies	136	96	82	306	3.19	3.64
L2 – Based Strategies	550	474	299	1331	14.78	5.36
Total	686	570	381	1637	8.98	4.5

The most striking feature of Table (7.22) is the higher number of L2-based strategies used by the subjects, especially by the low level subjects. Another noticeable feature is the fact that the advanced subjects registered the lowest number of cases of both L1-based and L2-based strategies. It is also noticed that all the groups resorted to more L2-based strategies than L1-based strategies. The following table shows the results of the analysis of variance.

Table (7.23) Analysis of variance by proficiency level

Strategy Type	Sum of squares	Mean squares	F ratio	F prob.
L1-based	37.066	18.533	2.758	.068
L2 based	1166.288	583.144	12.954	.001

The results of the analysis of variance shown in Table (7.23) above reveal the fact that there were no significant differences between the L1-based strategies at (α 0.05) due to the effect of proficiency level of the subjects. But it also reveals that there were highly significant differences at (α 0.05) between L2-based strategies due to the effect of the subjects' proficiency level. These significant differences

were found between low level and intermediate subjects, and between low-level and advanced subjects. See Table (7.22). The reason for these differences lies in the effect of the language proficiency level of the subjects. The higher the proficiency level, the lower the number of L1-based strategies used. Low-level subjects, as a result of the limited linguistic resources and vocabulary items at their disposal, resorted to L1-based and L2-based strategies more than the other two groups. The high number of L-2 based strategy cases used by the subjects might be due to their desire to communicate in L2 rather than by using L1- or L1-based strategies.

7. 4 Message Comprehensibility

In this study, in order to decide whether the message was transmitted successfully, the researcher assessed whether the key events in the story-telling task, the description in the object-identification task and the speech acts in the role-play task were attempted or not. Then the researcher and two native English speakers studied the subjects' utterances and decided whether they were comprehensible or not. If two of us agreed that an attempt was comprehensible, this attempt was considered successful.

In the following sections, I will discuss how many information bits (object-identification, key events in the story-telling task and speech acts in the role-play task) were attempted in the tasks. Then we will show which attempts were successful and comprehensible.

7.4.1 Object-identification task

In the object-identification task, all pictures were attempted due to the nature of the task. All the picture descriptions were studied to decide whether they were comprehensible or not. The following table shows the results:

Table (7.24) Number of incomprehensible description instances

Picture No.	Low Level	Intermediate Level	Advanced Level
1	9	4	4
2	9	5	0
3	4	3	0
4	3	1	0
5	4	4	0
6	2	3	0
7	0	0	0
8	4	2	0
9	8	7	1
10	7	5	2
11	3	2	0
12	7	4	0
13	6	6	2
14	5	1	2
15	3	2	0
Total	75	47	11

The table shows that 75 attempts of the low-level learners' (of a total of 150 attempts) were incomprehensible and unsuccessful. In the cases of the intermediate learners, 47 attempts were incomprehensible. The advanced learners' descriptions were almost all comprehensible, apart from 11 attempts. The data also show that 10 pictures were attempted successfully by all the advanced learners and that their attempts were all comprehensible. All low level and intermediate learners attempted picture 7 successfully.

7.4.2 Story-telling task

The following tables show the distribution of unattempted key events (Appendix VII) in the story-telling task for the three proficiency levels.

Table (7.25) Distribution of unattempted key events by low-level subjects

No	Key event	Student Number										Total	
		1	2	3	4	5	7	7	8	9	10		
1	A boy was riding his bicycle.						√						1
2	A driver was driving very fast.		√										1
3	He honked the horn.	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	10
4	He knocked the boy off his bicycle.										√		1
5	The driver did not stop.			√		√		√					3
6	He set off on (went) on his journey.												
7	The car broke down.	√											1
8	The boy rang the bell	√			√	√	√	√	√		√		6
9	He kept on without helping the car driver.												
	Total	3	2	2	2	3	3	3	2	2	2		24

Table (7.26) Distribution of unattempted key events by intermediate level subjects

No	Key event	Student Number										Total	
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10		
1	A boy was riding his bicycle.												
2	A driver was driving very fast.											√	1
3	He honked the horn.	√	√	√	√		√	√	√		√	√	8
4	He knocked the boy off his bicycle.										√		1
5	The driver did not stop.		√		√	√			√				4
7	He set off on (went) on his journey.												
6	The car broke down.												
8	The boy rang the bell	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	10
9	He kept on without helping the car driver.												
	Total	2	3	2	3	3	2	2	3	1	3		24

Table (7.27) Distribution of unattempted key events by advanced level subjects

No	Key event	Student Number										Total	
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10		
1	A boy was riding his bicycle.												
2	A driver was driving very fast.												
3	He honked the horn.	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	10
4	He knocked the boy off his bicycle.										√		1
5	The driver did not stop.	√			√								2
7	He set off on (went) on his journey.												
6	The car broke down.												
8	The boy rang the bell	√	√	√	√	√	√	√	√		√		9
9	He kept on without helping the car driver.												
	Total	3	2	2	3	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	22

The above tables show that low level and intermediate level learners registered the same number of key events that were not attempted, a total of 24 cases each. The advanced level learners registered 22 unattempted key events. It is notable that the two key events which were not attempted by most learners were key events 3 and 8, which required deductive skills on the part of the learners, since these two key events were not very clear in the pictures, except for the drawings for the sound of the horn and the bell.

After studying the events attempted, it was found out that few learners transmitted incomprehensible messages. The following table shows the subjects whose attempts were incomprehensible.

Table (7.28) Incomprehensible attempts in the story-telling task

Student No.	Speech Event No.
Low S3	8
Low S5	7
Low S10	4, 5, 6
Intermediate S5	3
Intermediate S10	7

It was found that the advanced learners' attempts were all successful and comprehensible. Some of the low-level learners' attempts, however, were not successful or comprehensible. They registered 5 incomprehensible messages transmitted by three learners. The intermediate level learners' attempts were all successful and comprehensible except for two cases where two subjects transmitted one incomprehensible message each. The following are examples of the incomprehensible messages transmitted by the learners as decided by the native-speaker judges and the researcher.

1. he did not care ful er about er (5 sec) not careful about him and then he:
zamar, shu mana zamar? (tr: honked the horn., what is the meaning of "honked the horn.?"?) (LS3)

Key event: The driver honked the horn.

2. he's [l^k] or see he's see the someone is er ,,,,,,, in the car e:r the car is em
, have some ,,,,,,, ((unintel)), ok? (LS5)

Key event: The car broke down.

3. em suddenly we are (6 sec) *shu maana sadam* (tr : what is the meaning of knock or hit) ((laugh)) the car e:r the car about the bicycle er ,,,,,,, ((laugh)) (LS10)

Key event: The driver knocked the boy off his bicycle.

5. the: car e:r ..., wek quickly about the street *ow* (tr: and)..., didn't [nau] ,,,,,,,
((sigh)) [ʌndðrsted] about the bo:y how to: how to the e:r how to the help the
boy. e:r the man the man of the ride of car we a:re e:r quickly about the street
..., *ow* (tr: and)(LS10)

Key event: The driver did not stop to help.

5. the bo:y he: e:r he: not er he didn't found the:: em the:: [helb] me [helb] me you
((sigh)) (6 sec) but e:r the baby is e:r [helb] you [helb] me and we do about the
bicycle e:r ..., and er and weak about the street. *Ow* (tr : and) (LS10)

Key event: The boy set off on (went) on his journey.

6. the driver try...,to to tell to the the boy to be a way from the the road in order to:
,,,,,,, to go on, on walking (IS5)

Key event: The driver made a honk.

7. suddenly he saw..., e:r the owner of the cars ,,,,,,, e:r in this time the ca(r)
the owner of the car wound wounded he wounded the: his car (IS10)

Key event: The car broke down.

It was sometimes difficult to decide whether the attempt matched the key event or not. The following is an example of a learner's interpreting the picture in his own way.

when the car come beside the er the boy with the bicycle the boy
confused was confused and e:r he: flow in e:r he flow e:r and the car,
..., take it way (IS7)

This example was interpreted by the native speaker judges as “The boy was confused and he fell down”. What was shown in the picture was that the driver knocked the boy off his bicycle. This is a case where it was difficult to tell whether the key event had been attempted or not. I decided that the key events had been attempted in such examples. This attempt was therefore considered

unsuccessful, since although he passed on a message, that message was incorrect and misleading.

The majority of messages transmitted by the English majors were judged to be comprehensible and successful. The translation of the Arabic utterances was taken out when the scripts were given to the native speaker judges so as not to affect their judgement. Despite the use of different CSs (i.e. circumlocution and literal translation, approximation), the following two examples were judged to be comprehensible and successful.

1. and the boy ,,,,,,will be continuous er ,,,,,, he is road .., after the: driver and he: is looking to him ,,,,,, er and er calling with he is bicycle {*pum, pum*} ((a sound used in colloquial Arabic to refer to the sound of the “horn”)) (LS2)
2. there is the driver e:r fixed my car because e:r ,,,,,e:r it er damaged er er..., so he er ..., don't interest er in the driver

The first example was interpreted by the two native speaker judges as: “The boy went on his trip without helping the driver and he rang his bell.” The second example was interpreted as “ the driver was trying to fix his car because it broke down.”. Their interpretations matched the key events in the story-telling task.

7.4.3 Role-play task

In the role-play task, speech acts were decided in advance (Appendix VIII) and given in a chart to the subjects. It was found that two subjects did not attempt the question about the bank working hours and that consequently there was no response (LS3) and (LS5).

One learner (LS9) asked a question about accommodation, and his respondent, LS10, said everything about the accommodation except for its name. This could be

because the learner did not know, due to his low level of proficiency, which was apparent, that “Student Hostel” is a type of accommodation. Another mistake that the same learner made was in communicating the cost of the accommodation, when he read the numbers in the wrong way. This also affected the comprehension of his partner who was supposed to fill in the chart about the cost. He wrote “thirty thirty pounds”, but it was thirty-three pounds. It seems that the second partner did not resort to confirmation checks because of his own weakness.

LS9: er ok. can you tell me: about it cost?

LS10: cost? cost about what?

LS9: about accommodation, how e:r?

LS10: how much it cost?

LS9: yes. thirty thirty a [baund] e:r a week.

Another learner (LS7) made a similar mistake, saying “ thirty thirty pound” and it was written by his partner (LS8) in the chart as “30 30 a week”. This is also evidence of the learners' weakness.

Sometimes it was difficult to decide whether a certain speech act was comprehensible or not. For example, in asking about a newspaper from the foreigner's country, 5 learners (2 low level, 2 intermediate and 1 advanced) were content with asking questions that did not specify which type of newspaper, as follows:

1. em please, I would like er to: buy er em a newspaper from your country but I don't know er e:r where e:r (LS5)
2. okay. I would like to buy a newspaper. can you help me e:r e:r to show the place can I buy? I don't know the place of this. if you know the [bleis] to buy. I can buy the newspaper in any place or? (LS9)

3. yeah. okay. e:m could you please tell me about e:r newspapers here if they are available near here? (AS7)

What the subjects were required to do was to ask about where to find a place that sold newspapers from their native country, not British newspapers. But these attempts could have been successful in negotiating meaning and leading to comprehension.

In order to decide whether the learners playing role B were good at comprehension, two native speaker judges and the researcher studied the charts filled in by each learner. It was found that the low-level subjects registered a total of 8 incorrect pieces of information. That is, LS5 registered 4 incorrect pieces of information, LS7 registered one case and LS9 registered 3 incorrect pieces of information on the chart. Only one learner from the intermediate level (IS1) registered 1 incorrect piece of information on the chart. The advanced learners did not register any incorrect information. This means that they comprehended all the messages transmitted to them. As has been noted, the lower the language proficiency level of the subject, the higher the possibility of producing incomprehensible messages or not comprehending transmitted ones. The results of this analysis show that all the subjects were good at comprehension, especially the advanced subjects, despite resorting to communication strategies in their production. We can conclude also that advanced subjects were more successful at the tasks than low level subjects.

7.5 Proficiency Level

Previous research has shown that the learners' proficiency level has an important effect on the frequency of use of particular communication strategies. Table (7.29) below shows the frequency of strategy use according to the subjects' proficiency level as found in this piece of research.

Table (7.29) Frequency of strategy use according to proficiency level

Type of Strategy	Low	Inter.	Adv.	Total
Literal Translation	65	57	68	190
Language Switch includes:	69	41	14	124
a. L1- Slips and immediate insertion	33	14	7	54
b. L1- Appeal for Help	16	14	3	33
c. L1- Optimal Meaning	8	9	4	21
d. L1- Retrieval Strategies	6	2	0	8
e. L1-Ignorance Acknowledgement	6	2	0	8
Message Abandonment	35	33	11	79
Topic Avoidance	21	16	6	44
Word Coinage	14	10	21	45
Circumlocution	132	110	67	309
Self-correction/restructuring	77	73	41	191
Approximation	100	83	67	250
Mumbling	8	10	2	20
Appeal for Help	16	11	17	44
Self-repetition	119	112	54	285
Use of similar-sounding words	20	12	3	35
Use of all-purpose words	6	4	9	19
L2-Ignorance Acknowledgement	2	0	0	2
Total	684	572	381	1637

It was found that there is a correlation between proficiency level and CS use. The higher the level, the fewer strategies are used. The results showed that there were significant differences between the three groups due to proficiency level at ($\alpha .05$). The low proficiency level subjects obtained a mean score of 22.7, which was significantly higher than the mean score of 19.5 achieved by the intermediate level learners. This means that they used more communication strategies. The high proficiency group (the advanced) obtained the lowest mean score, 12.7. It was also

found that the advanced level learners used some strategies more frequently than the other two groups. For example, 68 cases of literal translation were registered for this group, but only 65 for low-level subjects and 57 for intermediate level subjects.

It was also noticed that advanced learners produced more utterances and they tried to make themselves understood by means of the vocabulary items available to them, but these target language items were influenced by the native language Arabic where learners translated their ideas literally. Another strategy, which registered a higher use by the advanced subjects, was that of word coinage, where the advanced group registered 21 cases, the low group 14 and the intermediate group 10 cases. This can be explained on basis of the fact that advanced learners have a greater ability to coin words and to produce new words than the other two groups. The advanced group also registered 381 cases of strategy use, whereas the intermediate registered 572, and the low group 684 cases.

The results of the analysis of variance revealed highly significant differences in the uses of literal translation, topic avoidance, circumlocution and repetition. These differences may be due to the proficiency level of the subjects. The higher the proficiency level of the subjects, the less he or she will resort to the strategy use. As a result of the linguistic resources available to the advanced subjects, they used communication strategies less, apart from in the cases of the literal translation strategy.

In the low-level group, circumlocution (132), self-repetition (119), approximation (100), self-correction (77) and language switch (69) appeared were the most frequently used strategies.

In the intermediate level group, self-repetition (112), circumlocution (110 cases), approximation (83) and self-correction (73) were the most frequently used

strategies. Among the advanced level subjects, literal translation (68), circumlocution (67), approximation (67), literal translation (57), self-repetition (54) and self – correction (41) were the most frequently used strategies.

The learners exploited similar sources to compensate for their insufficient knowledge of the target language, but the sources they drew upon differed according to their language proficiency.

There were differences in the frequency of use of particular strategies depending on proficiency level. Literal translation and word coinage were favoured more at the advanced level. This could be because of their greater formal control over the target language, which put them in a better position to rely upon their knowledge of the target language in order to join words to create new ones or to translate from their native language into English.

Language switch, topic avoidance, circumlocution and approximation were favoured at the low level. The reason for this could be the students' lack of exposure to the target language. Another reason is probably the limited linguistic resources available to the low level subjects, who thus found it difficult to identify, for example, the objects, by using one word. They tried to describe the object, give another word that might fit, avoid the topic, or switch to their native language due to their lack of the target vocabulary items.

Message abandonment, self-correction, mumbling, using similar-sounding words, appeal for help and self-repetition were favoured by low and intermediate level subjects. This may also be explained by the fact that their linguistic resources could not help them communicate without considerable use of communication strategies to solve their communication problems. With regard to the all-purpose words strategy, few differences were found among the three levels. These findings

are consistent with those of Russell, 1997; Corrales and Emily, 1989; Poulisse and Schils, 1989; and Chen, 1990.

7.6 Task Effect

Previous research has shown a strong relationship between task and both the use of a particular communication strategy and strategy use in general. The following table below shows the distribution of strategy use by task type.

The most noticeable feature of Table (7.30) is the many cases of CSs that the object-identification task yielded (681). The lowest cases of strategy use were registered in the role-play task 368, whereas the story-telling task yielded 588. It was as result of the nature of the object-identification task, which required the subjects to use difficult language items, that the subjects used such a high number of CSs. The story-telling task was also a little bit difficult, so it yielded more cases than the role-play task, in which the speech acts given to the subjects on a chart helped them to communicate without much use of CSs.

The analysis of variance revealed significant differences between the tasks in terms of strategy choice (e.g., choosing circumlocution rather than word coinage) at α (0.05). These differences are due to the effect of task. For example, literal translation, language switch, L-1 slips and immediate insertion strategy, L1-appeal for help, L1-optimal meaning, word coinage, circumlocution, approximation, mumbling and L2-appeal for help were all used in the object-identification task, which registered higher strategy instances than the other two tasks. This can be attributed to the task demands, which required the subjects to use difficult vocabulary items which possibly had not been acquired.

Table (7.30) Frequency of strategy use according to the task

Type of Task	Story-telling	Object- identification	Role-play	Total
Literal Translation	86	65	39	190
Language Switch includes:	19	86	19	124
a. L1- Slips and immediate insertion	14	27	13	54
b. L1- Appeal for Help	5	26	2	33
c. L1- Optimal Meaning	0	19	2	21
d. L1- Retrieval Strategies	0	6	2	8
e.L1-Ignorance	0	8	0	8
Acknowledgement	26	36	17	79
Message Abandonment	44	0	0	44
Topic Avoidance	3	31	11	45
Word Coinage	84	171	54	309
Circumlocution	88	30	73	191
Self-correction	95	115	40	250
Approximation	6	13	1	20
Mumbling	6	30	8	44
Appeal for Help	108	79	98	285
Self-repetition	18	14	3	35
Use of similar-sounding words	5	9	5	19
Use of all-purpose words	0	2	0	2
L2-Ignorance	0	2	0	2
Acknowledgement	588	681	368	1637
Total				

Significant differences were also found between the tasks with regard to the self-correction and topic avoidance strategies, in that more occurred in the story-telling

task. This also may be attributed to the relationship between a particular strategy and the type of task. For example, the object-identification task required the subjects to attempt all the separate pictures, which did not allow for avoidance. In the role-play task, speech acts specified in the chart given to the subjects to help them play the roles guided them to move from one speech act to another without having any opportunity for avoidance. Repetition strategy recorded the highest number of cases in the story-telling task. The reason for this probably lies in the nature of the task, which required the learners to tell a story. Narratives always require self-repetition and self-correction as a result of the flow of information needed to be produced.

The analysis of variance showed no significant differences between the communication strategies yielded by each task in L1-retrieval, L1-ignorance acknowledgement, message abandonment, self-repetition, similar-sounding words, use of all-purpose words, and L2- ignorance acknowledgement strategies. No explanation can be given here.

Another aim of this study was to find out which CSs native speakers of Arabic use while communicating in their native language. The learners were asked to perform the tasks in Arabic before performing them in English. In the following section, the CSs used in the learners' Arabic performance will be discussed and illustrated with examples from the data.

7.7 Communication Strategies in the Native Language/Arabic

Many studies have shown that native speakers use communication strategies in their speech. In this study, five communication strategies were registered in the subjects' Arabic performances in the three different tasks. These strategies were message abandonment, circumlocution, self-correction, approximation and repetition.

Avoidance strategy was ruled out because some subjects did not attempt certain key events in their Arabic performance, although they did in English. I believe that they were not trying to avoid these events, but that it was simply because of their lack of inferencing ability, or because they did not intend to give a detailed description of what happened in the story. This explains why this strategy was excluded.

Word coinage, language switch, appeal for help, all-purpose words, similar-sounding words and literal translation were not recorded in the data.

269 instances of CSs were identified. Table (7.31) shows the communication strategies used in the Arabic performance distributed among the five categories with the frequency of each.

Table (7.31) Distribution of communication strategies used in the native language/Arabic for each strategy.

Strategy Type	Frequency	Mean	SD
Message abandonment	8	.09	.32
Circumlocution	74	.82	.95
Self-correction	70	.78	1.01
Approximation	63	.70	1.09
Self-repetition	54	.60	.83
Total	269	2.99	2.02

The most noticeable feature of Table (7.31) is the low number of message abandonment strategies used by the subjects, accounting for only 3 percent of the total cases registered in the Arabic performance. Another prominent feature is the much greater use of circumlocution strategy by the subjects (74 cases, accounting

for 27.5 percent). The second most used was the self-correction strategy, which registered 70 cases, accounting for 26 percent.

In the next section we shall show the frequency of CSs by task. Then the results will be discussed.

7.7.1 Communication strategies according to task type

The following table shows the distribution of the communication strategies used in Arabic according to task.

Table (7.32) Distribution of communication strategies used in Arabic performance by task

Strategy Type	Story-telling	Object-identification	Role-play	Total
Message Abandonment	4	1	3	8
Circumlocution	28	36	10	74
Self- correction/restructuring	39	16	15	70
Approximation	15	47	1	63
Self-repetition	25	9	20	54
Total	111	109	49	269

The most striking feature is that more communication strategies were used in the story-telling and role-lay tasks than in the role-play task. In the English performance, the subjects registered many more communication strategies in the object-identification task than the other two tasks (677, accounting for 41.3 percent).

Another striking feature is that the role-play task yielded the lowest number of strategy uses (49 cases, accounting for 18.2 percent), which is similar to the

strategy use in the English performance of the same subjects in the same task (362, accounting for 19.4 percent).

The results of F-test showed significant differences in the above five communication strategies due to task type between the story-telling and both the role-play and the object-identification tasks. In the English performance, significant differences were also found due to the effect of task. This means that even in the native language the use of a particular strategy is influenced by the type of task being performed.

It is also very revealing that the frequency of strategy use in Arabic was hierarchical. Story-telling yielded the highest (46.2 percent), then role-play (37.2 percent) and finally object-identification (16.7 percent). In the English performance, the frequency of strategy use was also hierarchical, but the object-identification task yielded the highest (681 cases). It was also observed that these five strategies were registered in the English performance, but with much greater frequency.

In the following section, I will discuss each strategy and illustrate it with examples from the data. The examples will be shown using the Roman alphabet. These examples are also followed by an English translation, and when an Arabic word is repeated in the Arabic version, it is also repeated in the translation.

7.7.1.1 Message abandonment

Message abandonment takes place when learners find it difficult to complete a certain thought, and as the learners were using their native language, this could explain why it was the least used. Table (7.33) shows the message abandonment strategy cases distributed according to the task type.

Table (7.33) Distribution of message abandonment according to task

Strategy Type	Story-telling	Object-identification	Role-play	Total
Message Abandonment	4	1	3	8

The most revealing fact is that the object-identification task registered only one case of message abandonment, accounting for 12.5 percent of the strategy use in the data, whereas the story-telling task yielded 4 cases, accounting for 50 percent. There were only slight differences in the number of strategy cases registered by each task.

One subject (LS1) wanted to complete his idea “*ba’da thaleka-* after that”, he then added another word “*thumma-* then”, but for one reason or another he abandoned his message and shifted into another topic. This learner also used the strategy of approximation when he used ‘*tahatama*’, which means ‘damaged’, although the bicycle was not damaged at all.

dharab al sabi ela janeb al tareeq wa ba’da thaleka thumma ar ma hasal li ladarjeh howa an tahatamat aldarajeh (LS1) (tr: he knocked the boy to the side of the road. after that er then er what happened to the bicycle was that it was damaged)

Another learner tried to describe the driver’s feelings. He described him as “*Kana ghadheb gedban – he was angry*”. Then he tried to describe the driver’s action “*asbaha alrajul asbaha sar - the man became became got*”, but was unable to complete his description. So he shifted to another topic by describing the boy’s action: “*sar altefl yadhak aleeh - the boy started laughing at him*”

kana ghadheb gedban lema alamma behi asbaha alrajul asbaha sar altefl yadhak aleeh wa istamar fi al mashi (IS10). (tr: he was

very angry. Because of what happened to him, the man became
became the child started laughing at him and he went on
cycling.)

The following are examples taken from the data to illustrate this strategy. These
examples of message abandonment strategy are followed by the English
translation.

thumma thahaba al walad ar ar farhan ya'ni li.....khalas (LS6).
(tr: then the boy went on and he was happy. I mean to that is
enough.)

*aidhan uhebu an astafser an..., um,..., ureed an ashtari al
tawabe' al bareediah* (LS7). (tr: moreover moreover, I want to
ask about em I want to buy some stamps.)

7.7.1.2 Circumlocution

Circumlocution as defined earlier refers to description of shape or use and
exemplification. The following table shows the distribution of circumlocution
strategy according to task type.

Table (7.34) Distribution of circumlocution strategy by task

Strategy Type	Story-telling	Object-identification	Role-play	Total
Circumlocution	28	36	10	74

It is obvious that many more circumlocution strategy cases were registered in the
object-identification task than in the other tasks. It is also notable that the role-play
task yielded the lowest number of cases, accounting for 13 percent. There were
significant differences between three tasks. This is also the case with the learners'
performance in the tasks in English where it was noticed that the object-
identification task yielded the highest number of cases. In the English

performance, the number of circumlocution strategy cases was observed to be higher in the object-identification task than in the other two tasks. This means that circumlocution strategy use is influenced by task type.

One of the subjects wanted to say “the driver”, but instead he produced “*al rajul alathi yasouq al sayarah*” (LS9). (tr: the man who was driving the car). The use of a relative clause to describe the man is a circumlocution.

The following are examples of this strategy for illustration.

adah lila’b al sagheer bi hutu fiha alwalad al sagheer (AS6). (tr: An instrument used to put the child in.)

al walad I yala’ab fi darajeh (LS7). (tr: The boy was playing on a child’s bicycle.)

adawat tustakhdam fi al matbakh (LS9). (tr: tools used in the kitchen)

alah li itfa’ al hareeq (AS2). (tr: a tool that is used to put out fire)

makena mawjoudah fi mu’tham al muden tustakhdam li wadhe’ nuqoud al nas yada’oun al nuqoud fiha wa tu’tehim automatikeyan ulab al kola (LS9). (tr: a machine found in most cities. People put money in it and automatically it gives them cola cans.)

7.7.1.3 Self-correction

The second most used strategy in the Arabic performance was that of self-correction. It registered 70 instances, accounting for 26 percent. Table (7.35) shows the distribution of these instances according to task.

Table (7.35) Distribution of self-correction strategy according to task.

Strategy Type	Story-telling	Object- identification	Role-play	Total
Self-correction	39	16	15	70

The most prominent feature of Table (7.35) is that the story-telling task yielded the highest number of cases (39, accounting for 55.7 percent of the total strategy use in the data). Another distinctive feature is that the other two tasks yielded nearly the same number of self-correction instances as each other: the object-identification task yielded 16 cases, accounting for 22.8 percent and the role-play task yielded 15 cases, accounting for 21.4 percent.

One learner, for example, in the role-play task, wanted to express the speech act “to ask for information about where to buy stamps and postcards”, and produced:

“men wein bagdar ahaselhum” means “Where can I get them?”.

The subject probably remembered that stamps are bought not got, so he corrected himself producing the corrected version *“men wein bashtareehum”* which means “where can I buy them?”

The following are examples from the data for illustration.

fa fa fastaiqatha fa ar faqama al tifel wakhatha bi aldarajeh al hawaeyeh wa rakebha (LS9). (tr: Then the boy woke up er er got up and he rode his bicycle.)

wa yadhrif ala al jaras ala jaras albaskaleit (LS9) (tr: and he hit the bell on the bell of the bicycle)

badi ashtari majmou'et tawabe' bareedeyeh men wein bagdar ahaselhum men wein bashtareehum (LS1) (tr: I want to buy some stamps, where can I get them, where can I buy them?)

hai ar sura'ah addad sura'ah (LS6) (tr: this is speed, speedometer)

makenah, mukenseh kahraba'eyeh (IS10) (tr: machine, vacuum cleaner)

addad sayarah addad sura'ah (LS4) (tr: car meter, speedometer)

wa qama yusaleh sayaratahu aw darajatahu (LS3) (tr: then he started repairing his car or his bicycle).

7.7.1.4 Approximation

The third most widely used strategy was that of approximation, where learners tried to give approximations of the exact utterances or words. This strategy registered 63 cases, accounting for 23.3 percent. Table (7.36) shows the distribution of approximation strategy according to task type.

Table (7.36) Distribution of approximation strategy according to task type

Strategy Type	Story-telling	Object-identification	Role-play	Total
Approximation	15	47	1	63

The most noticeable feature of Table (7.36) is the much higher number of approximation strategy instances registered in the object identification task (47, accounting for 69.8 percent of the strategy use in the data). Another distinctive feature is that the advanced level subjects tended not to resort to approximation strategy in the role-play task. Only one case was registered, accounting for 1.5 percent. When compared to the English performance, the subjects registered the lowest number of cases in the role-play task, whereas the object-identification task registered the highest number of cases.

One learner wanted to say ‘driver’, but he approximated it to “*sa’iq taxi ar ar* (LS1) (tr: taxi driver)”. In the object-identification task, another learner, in identifying the picture of cutlery, produced “*Adawat matbakh*” (tr: kitchen tools) (AS9). For illustration, the following are examples taken from the data.

mashouq al ghaseel litantheef a awa’i wal adwat al manzeleyah waghayrha (LS9) (tr: washing powder for cleaning clothes, utensils and others)
- to describe ‘detergents’

sa’it sayarah (LS2) (tr: a car watch) – to describe ‘speedometer’
furshat tantheef (LS6) (tr: cleaning brush)
– to describe ‘broom’

sadaf an wajada al sayarah eli sadmatuh waqfeh ela janeb la tareeq wa wa rajul me amamuha yuhawel eslahuha (IS9) (tr: he found the car which hit him and it was stopping on the side of the road and a man was trying to repair it)
– to express the key event ‘The car broke down’.

al madraseh aldawleyah eli heyah betahtawi ala khubara’ le ta’leem al lughah al engeleezeyah (IS8) (tr: The international school which includes experienced English language teachers)
– to respond to a question about where to find a good school “the International School”.

Wa laf steering al darajeh (AS9) (tr: then he turned the steering of the bicycle) – ‘steering’ to mean “the handle bars”.

sar ya’ti intharat intibahat lil tifel al sagheer (IS9) (tr: he started warnings the little child)
- to mean “he honked the horn”.

7.7.1.5 Self - repetition

Self-repetition is also used when people speak their native languages. The results in Table (7.37) show that this strategy registered 53 cases distributed among the tasks used to collect the data.

Table (7.37) Distribution of self-repetition strategy according to task

Strategy Type	Story-telling	Object-identification	Role-play	Total
Self-repetition	25	9	20	54

A distinctive feature is that the object-identification task yielded the lowest number of cases of repetition (9 cases, accounting for 16.6 percent). There were significant differences between the object-identification task and the other two tasks. But, in the subjects' performance in English, it was found that the subjects had a tendency to resort to more repetition strategy in the story-telling task (25 cases, accounting for 46.2 percent).

One subject, in telling the story, repeated the word “*Haawal*” which means “tried” to gain time to complete his thought.

*haawal inuh yusaleh al ajalah ar am wa ba'da thaleka haawal
haawal haawal yusaleh ajlatuh wa qeder yethaluh mashi (AS8)*
(tr: he tried fixing his bicycle er em and after that he tried tried
tried to fix his bicycle and he could go on).

The following are examples taken from the data for illustration, with the repetition cases are underlined.

*fi muntasaf al tareeq eltaqa altfel maratan ukhra bi alrajul bi
alrajul thatuh (AS5) (tr: in the middle of the road, the child met
the man the same man)*

faja'atan sadam al sadam al rajul al tefel ala al darajeh (AS6)

(tr: suddenly, the man hit the hit the boy on his bicycle)

binesbeh li Altawabe' wal bitaqaat al bareedeyah men wein

mumken mumken ahassel maktab bareed (AS9) (tr: regarding

stamps and post cards ,where can I can I find a post office?)

amma al tifel fa istamarra istamara fi suwagat al darrajeh (LS6)

(tr: but the child continued continued riding his bicycle)

oreed an ashtari jareedah fa aina fa aina astatee' al husoul

alayha (LS5) (tr: I want to buy a newspaper, where where can I

get it from?)

mezan em mezan hararah (IS2) (tr: meter meter thermometer)

ma'bar ma'bar li muroor al mushah (IS7) (tr: crossings,

crossings for pedestrians)

7.8 Communication strategies used in L1 Arabic and L2 English

Table (7.38) Distribution of communication strategies used in L1 and L2

Strategy Type / Subject	Message Abandonment	Circumlocution	Self-correction/ Restructuring	Approximation	Self-repetition	Total
L1 Arabic	8	74	70	63	54	269
L2 English	79	309	191	250	285	1114

Table (7.38) above shows the distribution of strategies used by English majors in both L1 Arabic and L2 English. These five strategies were identified in the Arabic performance of the subjects. The table thus presents a comparison with the same strategies as found in their English performance.

From this comparison, it is very noticeable that the subjects used many more instances of CSs in the English performance in all the strategies shown in Table (7.38) above. The most used strategy in both languages was that of circumlocution, of which 74 cases were registered in Arabic and 309 in English. These are very significant differences. The second most used strategy in Arabic was that of self-correction (70 cases), but it was self-repetition in English, which registered 385 cases. Approximation was the third most used strategy in both English and Arabic. Approximation registered 63 cases in Arabic, whereas it registered 250 cases in English. Message abandonment registered the lowest number of cases in both performances. This might be due to the subjects' willingness to be risk-takers. To conclude, there are significant differences between the subjects' performances in L1 Arabic and L2 English.

7.9 Conclusion

In this chapter the subjects' strategic performance has been analysed and explanations have been given for the occurrence of their communication strategies. It has been shown that the task type has a great impact on learners' strategy use. Language proficiency level seems to be another factor that affects the use of communication strategies. The subjects' transmitted messages were made comprehensible to the listener because they resorted to CSs. Another clear finding in this chapter is that Arabic native speakers use communication strategies in English extensively, and in their native language as well, but to a lesser extent.

In the following chapter, I will attempt to answer the research questions raised in section 6.2. Results, reflections on the methodology adopted, recommendations for further research and pedagogical implications will also be presented.

Chapter Eight

Findings and Discussion

8.1 Introduction

In Chapter Six, the questions of the study were raised, and research methods and methods of data analysis were specified. In Chapter Seven, the communication strategies used in the English majors' performance in both languages, Arabic and English, in the three tasks were presented, exemplified and analysed.

It is the purpose of this chapter to bring together the results of the analysis of the subjects' strategic behaviour to see what answers they offer to the research questions raised in Chapter Six and to consider the data collected in terms of the existing literature. We shall also reflect on the methodology adopted: the problems encountered, how suitable it was, and what improvements we could make to it. We shall also put forward the pedagogical implications and suggestions for further research.

8.2 Frequency and type of CSs and the effect of task

It was hoped that the following questions would be answered from the data by this research project.

- (1) *Which communication strategies do English majors use while communicating in English?*
- (2) *What is the frequency of communication strategies used in the three tasks designed for the purposes of the study?*
- (3) *Is there a relationship between the task being performed and the choice of communication strategy?*

All the English major subjects encountered problems at some point in their production in the target language, and they all had recourse to communication strategies to solve their communication problems. It was found that English majors used more CSs on the same task in their L2 performance than in their Arabic performance. Use of CSs was clearly related to problems involved in using L2.

It was discovered that English language majors at Yarmouk University in Jordan used a number of communication strategies, here ranked in order according to their frequency: circumlocution 309, self-repetition 285, approximation 250, self-correction 191, literal translation 190, language switch 124, message abandonment 79, word coinage 45, topic avoidance 44, use of similar-sounding words 44, mumbling 20, use of all-purpose words 19, and finally L2-ignorance acknowledgement 2 cases. The total number of registered cases was 1637.

The English majors in this piece of research resorted to a wide range of communication strategies. Circumlocution was the most frequently used strategy, registering 309 cases, accounting for 18.87 percent of strategy use. The least used was L2-ignorance acknowledgement, which was added to the taxonomy adopted in this study. It registered only two cases.

These findings concur with those of Khanji (1996), Duff (1997) and Yarmohammadi and Seif (1992), who found that self-repetition, self-correction, literal translation, circumlocution and approximation are among the most widely and frequently used strategies. More than 4/5 of the communication strategy cases registered in the learners' performance on the three CLT tasks was registered in six main categories. These were circumlocution, self-repetition, approximation, self-correction, literal translation and language switch. The remaining strategies together represent 17.63 percent of the CSs recorded in the data.

All the subjects resorted to at least five categories of communication strategy. Because the advanced subject (AS2) registered the lowest number of strategy uses (25 cases), she can be considered the most proficient informant in the sample. The object-identification task yielded 14 cases, accounting for 56 percent of this subject's (AS2) strategy use. This was due to the nature of the task, which required the subject to use difficult vocabulary items.

Green (1995) found out that a few learners did not encounter a problem in their production and that therefore they did not resort to communication strategies. However, 91% of learners had recourse to at least one communication strategy. In our research, the above-mentioned advanced subject was considered the most fluent, but she resorted to 5 categories of communication strategy. This highlights the size of the communication problems that Jordanian learners of English face in communicating in the target language/English, and more specifically the problems that English majors encounter during the course of communication. The reason for this might be the lack of the learners' environmental exposure to the target language. The more the students are exposed to the target language, the faster and easier it will be to assimilate the language. As in any subject, the more time spent in learning the better the progress made. But the case with Arabic-speaking English language learners is critical: they face many problems in communication due to the fact that they lack exposure to the target language. They have never been exposed to the target language produced by native speakers in real-life situations or in an English-speaking country. At schools, Jordanian learners of English are taught by Arabs, who are graduates of universities in Jordan. At university level, all teachers are Arabic speakers, although they are US or UK PhD graduates. This may also affect the communicative competence of the learners who do not have a native-like speaker model.

It was found that task type played a decisive factor in the use and choice of communication strategies. The object-identification task yielded the highest number

of CSs (681, accounting for 41.6 percent of the total number of strategy uses registered in all the tasks), story-telling yielded 588, and role-play 368 cases. These findings are consistent with those of Poulisse and Schils (1989), who found that the picture description or naming task registered more subordinate compensatory strategy cases than the story telling task did. In our study, the most used strategy in the story-telling task and role-play task was self-repetition, which yielded 108 cases in the story-telling and 98 in the role-play. This demonstrates the effect of task on the choice of a particular communication strategy. In the object-identification task, circumlocution registered the highest number of cases (171, accounting for 55.3 percent of the total number of circumlocution strategy uses in the three tasks). All these findings may be related to the effect of the task being performed by the subjects which can affect strategy use in general and the choice of one strategy in particular. For example, the demands of the object-identification task, which required the subjects to use difficult words, resulted in its registering the highest frequency of strategy use. The role-play task, on the other hand, yielded the lowest number of cases. This might be due to the existence of such tasks in the subjects' textbooks, or to having the speech acts specified in advance.

Frequency of CSs used ✕

The results presented and discussed in Chapter Seven revealed that English language majors resort to an enormous number of communication strategies while communicating in English (1637 cases). These findings support the results of previous research. Mabry (1994) found that Arabic speakers used many more communication strategies than the other groups she tested. Green (1995) found 850 cases of communication strategies produced by the German subjects of his study (232 subjects). In this study, where only thirty Arabic speakers were included, 1637 communication strategy cases were registered in the three tasks. This number is very high when compared with Green's subjects (232), who registered only 850 cases of communication strategy use. Chen (1990) conducted her research on Chinese learners of both low and high proficiency levels. Her subjects registered 220 cases. Yarmohammadi and Seif (1992) in their oral task, narration of a picture

story, found 221 cases in the data collected from Iranian English language learners. As we have seen, though their taxonomies were not exactly the same, their separate strategies yielded fewer cases than the studies conducted on Arab learners. For example, Khanji (1996) used only 37 Jordanian Arabic-speaking subjects in his study and asked them to act out a role-play. A total of 494 cases were registered in a single task, which is very high when compared with the findings of Green (ibid). This also supports Mabry (1994), who found that Arabic speakers used more communication strategies than other groups tested in her study. The effect of mother tongue interference is manifested in the cases of literal translation where learners translated literally from L1 to L2. The other reasons were discussed at the beginning of this section.

8.3 Proficiency Level Effect

To investigate the relationship between strategic competence and language proficiency, the following questions were put forward in Chapter Six.

6.2.2.1 Is there a relationship between the learner's proficiency level (low, intermediate, advanced) and their choice of communication strategy?

6.2.2.2 Is there a relationship between the learners' proficiency level (low, intermediate, advanced) and the frequency of use of a particular communication strategy?

The results of this research support previous research results, which found that the learners' proficiency level affects strategy choice and frequency in general. Low-level subjects registered the highest number of cases (686, accounting for 41.9 percent of strategy use in the data), whereas 570 cases, accounting for 34.8 percent, were registered by intermediate subjects, and 381 cases, accounting for 23.2 percent, were registered by the advanced. Table (8.1) below shows the distribution of communication strategies used by the subjects for each level and overall.

Table (8.1) Distribution of mean numbers of strategies used by English Majors for levels, tasks and overall.

Proficiency Level	Task									Overall		
	Picture Story-telling			Object-Identification			Role-play					
	N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD
Low	10	27.1	8.4	10	28.3	7.7	10	12.8	7.9	30	22.7	7.6
Intermediate	10	21.3	5.7	10	23.7	5.4	10	13.7	7.2	30	19.5	6.1
Advanced	10	11.4	5.1	10	17.1	4.9	10	9.7	4.6	30	12.7	4.8
Overall	30	19.3	6.4	30	23	7	30	10.4	6.2	90	18.3	18.5

Table (8.1) above shows that low level subjects registered the highest number of CS uses, accounting for 41.9 percent. This percentage represents more than 2/5 of the strategy use in the data collected for this piece research.

The advanced level subjects resorted less to communication strategies. They registered 381 cases, accounting for 23.2 percent of the total strategy use, with a mean of 12.7. This means that each advanced subject resorted to an average of 12 communication strategy instances in his performance in each of the three tasks. The high percentage of communication strategies used by low level subjects, with a mean of 22.6, can be justified on the basis of the limited linguistic resources of the learners, who were incapable of communicating in the target language effectively without recourse to communication strategies. The advanced subjects resorted less to CSs due to their high proficiency level. As previous research has shown, the higher the proficiency of the learner, the fewer the communication strategies used (e.g. Chen, 1990; Liskin Gasparro, 1996; Poulisse and Schils, 1989; Khanji, 1996). The analysis of variance revealed significant differences between the groups at α (0.05). For details see section 6.5. These differences are due to the effect of the subjects' proficiency level. The more linguistic resources available to learners, the better they will be at communicating without too much recourse to CSs. The high volume of overall communication strategy use can be explained by the subjects'

lack of exposure to the target language, to motivation and teaching practices inside the classroom. Motivation plays an important part in language acquisition. Jordanian English language learners, as mentioned earlier are instrumentally motivated to learn English, i.e. to get a job. See section 2.1.4. The ultimate goal of an English language department major in Jordan and possibly in the Arab world as a whole is to get a job in teaching or translation after graduation.

It was also found that there is a positive relationship between the frequency of a certain CS and the subjects' proficiency level. We discovered, for example, that the advanced subjects favoured word coinage and literal translation, where they registered the highest number of CS use occurrences. This might be attributed to their high proficiency level which assisted them to coin new words or to translate. On the other hand, low level subjects favoured language switch, topic avoidance, circumlocution and approximation. For details see section 7.5. This is most probably because of the limited linguistic resources of the low-level subjects, who were incapable of giving the exact target language items.

8.4 L1-based or L2- based strategies

In Chapter Six we posed the question: “*Are these strategies L1-based or L2-based or a combination?*”. See section 6.2.1.1.3.

The communication strategy taxonomy adopted for this research was divided into two sub-categories: L1-Arabic based and L2-English based. It was found that L1-based strategies decreased as proficiency level increased: low-level learners used 136, intermediate 96 and advanced 82 cases. Furthermore, L2-based strategies increased as the proficiency level decreased, thus low level learners used 550, intermediate 474 and advanced 381 cases. The following table shows the results:

The data revealed that low level learners resorted to both L1-Arabic based and L2-English based strategies more frequently. The results presented in Table (8.2) show that there was a significant difference in the relative frequency of the use of L1-

based and L2-based strategies as discussed in section 7.3. All three proficiency levels preferred L2-based strategies, but there were differences in their use of these according to their level. This means that there is a relationship between proficiency level and the type of CS used whether L1-based or L2-based. These findings are consistent with those of Liskin-Gasparro, 1996, Green, 1995 and Bialystok, 1983, whose results showed a positive relationship between language proficiency level and whether the communication strategy is L1-based or L2-based.

Table (8.2) Frequency of L1- Arabic based and L2- English based strategies for all students by proficiency level

Proficiency Level \ Type of Strategy	Low	Intermediate	Advanced
L1- Based Strategies	136	96	82
L2 – Based Strategies	550	474	299
Total	686	570	381

8.5 Message transmission comprehensibility

One of the questions posed in section 6.2.1.1.4 and which I hoped the research data might shed light on was:

Are the subjects successful in getting their message across to achieve their goals by means of their use of CSs and despite the linguistic errors committed?

In previous studies, this question was answered by setting a task for the learners in which the successful transmission of a message is criterial, e.g., describing a series of pictures so that a listener can pick out matching pictures (Bialystok, 1990).

In this study, in order to decide whether the message was transmitted successfully or not, we assessed whether the key events in the story-telling task, the description in the object-identification task and the speech acts in the role-play task were

attempted or not. Then two native speakers and I studied the subjects' utterances and decided whether they were comprehensible or not. If an attempt was comprehensible, this attempt was considered successful.

It was found that success in message transmission was related to the subjects' proficiency level. The higher the level, the more the comprehensible and successful the messages will be. For example, in the role-play task, it was found that the advanced learners' attempts were all successful and comprehensible, but that some of the low-level learners' attempts were not comprehensible and therefore unsuccessful. The intermediate level learners' attempts were all successful and comprehensible except for two cases.

In the object-identification task, all the pictures were attempted due to the nature of the task. All the descriptions were studied to decide whether they were comprehensible or not. It was found that about 50% of low-level learners' attempts were not comprehensible and therefore unsuccessful. With regard to the intermediate learners, 47 attempts (of 150) were incomprehensible, accounting for 31%. The advanced learners' descriptions were almost all comprehensible, except for 11 attempts.

In the role-play task, speech acts were decided in advance and given on a chart to the subjects. It was found that two subjects did not attempt the question about the bank working hours and that consequently there was no response (LS3) and (LS5).

Sometimes, success or failure of message transmission is related to the type of strategy used. For example, language switch proved to be an unsuccessful strategy when heard by the native speakers of the target language. Sometimes it depends on which subjects used which strategy. For example, circumlocution strategy was judged for one learner as successful and for another as unsuccessful.

It's line use in e:r ,..., e:r used to em,....., to: er ..., general people (LS4)

em,....., signs which are put under or in the street,....., it has ..., yellow colour (IS5)

e:r (7 sec) a pacing er pacing e:r e:r for e:r,....., used for e:r ((cough)) (7 sec) white lines in the street in e:r in horizontal e:r er se(ting) e:r setting or vertical or horizontal *bilardh* (tr. Horizontal) e:r used for e:r er pacing the people of through the street. (IS7)

The first and the second examples were considered unsuccessful and incomprehensible. But the last one was considered to be successful and comprehensible. So it cannot simply be said that a certain type of strategy was successful in making the transmitted message comprehensible and successful. This was also related to the learners' proficiency level and their available linguistic resources.

These findings support Bialystok and Frohlich (1980), who found that language switch was the least successful strategy used by their subjects. Another finding was that a strategy was found to be the least effective and the most effective, depending on the item transmitted and the subjects' proficiency level. This also supports Chen (1990) who found that repetition was the least effective strategy because it did not add any new information. Chen also found that CSs used by high-proficiency learners were more effective than those used by low-proficiency learners.

The results showed that the learners, by resorting to CSs, were able to transmit comprehensible messages. It can thus be said that the use of CSs helped in making the subjects' transmitted messages comprehensible, rather than hindering the communication process.

8.6 Communication Strategies in both Arabic and English Performance

One of the questions posed in section 6.2.4.1 was: “*Which communication strategy do the subjects use in communicating in their L1/ Arabic?*” It was found out that native speakers of Arabic used mainly five communication strategies while communicating in Arabic, ranked according to their frequency as follows: circumlocution, self-correction, approximation, self-repetition and message abandonment, in all 269 cases.

These findings are consistent with previous research conducted on CSs in L1. Ellis (1984), for example, found that L1 children resorted to CSs, but that they resorted less to avoidance (topic avoidance and message abandonment) and paraphrase (approximation, word-coinage and circumlocution) strategies than L2 children. Yule and Tarone (1990) also found out that native speakers as well as non-native speakers use communication strategies in their communicative performance. The use of communication strategies is therefore a natural phenomenon that exists even in our native language communication. Our use of certain communication strategies in our mother tongue communication might be due to the lack of knowledge of a lexical item. This is very noticeable in the Arabic performance of the subjects who resorted to a number of CSs. This might be due also to borrowing certain vocabulary items and expressions from other languages like English and French. The ‘vending machine’ still does not have an Arabic equivalent, so it is left to native speakers of Arabic to express that meaning in any way they choose. The word ‘ascenseur’, which is originally French, was used in the subjects’ Arabic performance, since some learners were used to this word as it has become part of their every day communication.

These findings are consistent with those of Green (1995), whose native speaker subjects resorted to appeal, approximation, circumlocution and message abandonment. Tarone and Yule (1987) also found that their native speaker subjects used the strategies of approximation and circumlocution more than the non-native

speaker subjects. Russell (1997) found that the number of strategy cases also differed for example, his Chinese subjects registered 17 cases of abandonment in their L2 English performance, and only one in Japanese.

The question that followed in section 5.2.4.2 was “*Is there any difference in the subjects' use of communication strategies while communicating in L1 / Arabic and L2 / English?*”. Native speakers of Arabic used CSs both in the target language/English and in their native language, as well. Table (8.3) below shows the means of L1 and L2 communication strategies by task.

Table (8.3) Means of communication strategies in Arabic and English performances

Type of CSs	Task									Overall		
	Picture Story-telling			Object-Identification			Role-play					
	N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD
English CS	30	19.6	9.1	30	23.3	7.5	30	12.0	6.3	90	18.3	8.9
Arabic CS	30	3.7	1.9	30	3.6	1.9	30	1.7	1.4	90	2.4	2.0

The results of the analysis of variance show that there were significant differences between the CSs used by the subjects in Arabic and English at α (0.05). The subjects registered 1637 instances of CSs in their English performance, distributed among 18 strategies, while in Arabic, 5 strategies were identified and the learners registered 269 instances. The total mean score of their learners' use in the English performance was 18.3, whereas it was 2.4 in the Arabic performance. This means that each subject resorted to CS use twice per task in their L1, whereas in their L2 performance about 18 cases of strategy per task use were registered by each subject. These significant differences are due to the competence of the subjects in the language of communication. Native speakers are considered competent in their native language, hence they resorted to a limited number of communication

strategies. Native speakers thus use communication strategies in their L1 speech, but considerably less than when they communicate in their target language.

These findings were supported by Yule and Tarone (1990) who found that native speakers use communication strategies in their L1 communication, but less than they do in their target language. Though Kellerman et al., 1990 and Russell, 1997 used abstract shapes, their findings support our research in that native speakers used communication strategies in both their L1 and L2 performance. For more details see section 4.5.

8.7 Research Findings

The findings of our research may be summarised briefly as follows:

1. All English majors resorted to at least five CS types in performing the three tasks in English to overcome their linguistic problems. The reason for this might be the educational context in which the whole teaching and learning process takes place. In other words, the learners' lack of linguistic resources can be attributed to a lack of exposure to the target language in Jordan, the effect of their mother tongue, the school and English Department's curriculum and to their motivation. They lack the communicative competence which would enable them to communicate effectively without recourse to communication strategies.
2. 82.37 percent of overall CS use were registered in 6 strategies: circumlocution, self-repetition, approximation, self-correction, literal translation and language switch. The remaining strategies, which included message abandonment, topic avoidance, coinage, mumbling, appeal for help, similar-sounding words, the use of all-purpose words, and L2-ignorance acknowledgement, accounted only for only 17.63 percent of the total registered communication strategies in the data of this research.

3. More than one strategy can sometimes be found in the same utterance. One utterance may include three strategies: a coinage, a circumlocution and an appeal. This can be due to the size of the communication problems that the subjects encounter during the course of communication in the target language. It also indicates that there may be problems in relating the discourse to the taxonomy.
4. About 97 per cent of transmitted messages in the role-play and story-telling tasks were judged as comprehensible and successful as a result of the use of CSs, but this depended on the learners' proficiency level. This means that the use of communication strategies helped the subjects to communicate their messages effectively and successfully. About 73 per cent of the subjects' descriptions in the object-identification task were judged as comprehensible and successful. Most of the registered unsuccessful attempts were produced by low-level subjects, 50% whose attempts were a failure.
5. As proficiency level increased, the learners' use of CSs decreased, and vice versa. This is probably due to the fact that high proficiency level learners have greater linguistic resources.
6. Advanced learners made much less frequent use of CSs that draw on L1-based strategies, and more frequent use of those drawing (exclusively) on L2-based strategies. The reason for this could be that their high proficiency level assisted them in communication. They probably resorted to communication strategies less because they did not encounter so many difficulties.
7. There was a relationship between the learners' proficiency level and the choice of communication strategy. For example, low level subjects resorted to avoidance and switch, but when the learners' proficiency level was high, they resorted to circumlocution, literal translation or approximation. The proficiency

level of the subjects influenced this choice. Another important finding is that the advanced subjects used coinage and literal translation strategies more than the other proficiency level groups.

8. There was a relationship between the learners' proficiency level and the frequency of use of a particular communication strategy. For example, when the learners' proficiency level is low, they might resort to circumlocution 5 times, but when their level is high, they might resort to it only twice. In our data, there were 132 cases of circumlocution strategy registered by low level, 110 by intermediate and 67 cases by advanced subjects. These significant differences are due to the effect of the proficiency level of the learner. An example of this might be that the coinage and literal translation strategies were favoured by the advanced subjects.
9. Arabic native speakers used five categories of communication strategy when performing the tasks in Arabic: circumlocution, approximation, self-correction, self-repetition and message abandonment. This supports the claim in the literature that speakers use communication strategies in both their L1 and their L2.
10. Arabic native speakers resorted far more frequently to CSs in performing the tasks in English (1637 cases) than while performing the tasks in Arabic (269 cases). The first four most frequently used strategies in the English performance were also among the five CSs used in the Arabic performance. This also supports the view in 9 above.
11. There was also a relationship between the task being performed and the frequency of use of a particular CS. The nature and demand of the task are important factors in the choice of a particular strategy and its frequency. The object-identification task in our research yielded the highest number of

occurrences (681, accounting for 41.6 percent of total strategy use). The story-telling task was second in terms of the number of registered cases. The task that yielded the lowest number was the role-play task. These significant differences are due to the effect of the task used to elicit the learners' performance. The high number of CS occurrences in the object-identification task was expected because of the nature of task, that required the subjects to use difficult vocabulary items. The speech acts given to the subjects of the study in the role-play task probably helped them to avoid using too many CSs in this task. Another reason could be that the learners were used to daily classroom activities that focused on role-plays.

12. One of the most interesting findings is the effect of the mother tongue/Arabic which increased the variety of strategy use. For example, literal translation and word coinage were widely influenced by mother tongue interference.
13. The results of our research revealed the fact that Arabic speakers use many more communication strategies than speakers of other languages found in previous research. This supports Mabry's (1994) study results showed that Arabic speakers used more communication strategies than the other groups. This might be due to a lack of exposure to the target language/English in the classroom and real-life situations. As mentioned in Chapter One, Arabic is the formal language in Jordan, and English is rarely used in real-life situations. This means that the only source of input is the classroom, which cannot be considered an ideal environment for acquiring a target language. The tremendous number of CS cases (1637) can be attributed to the low proficiency level of the English majors. This low proficiency is the byproduct of the educational and social environment or context where the language learning and teaching process takes place. As mentioned in Chapter Two, there has been an outcry regarding the deterioration in the proficiency of English language learners in Jordan, which explains why Arabs use more CSs than speakers of other languages.

8.8 Aims and Research Gap

The question now is whether the main aims of the study have been accomplished. The primary aim of this study was to investigate the communication strategies used by Arabic-speaking English majors communicating in both L1 Arabic and L2 English. In order to achieve this aim, in the previous chapters we have discussed the general background, the language teaching context, the nature of communication, models of communication including the place of CSs in CLT, second language acquisition models, CS research including definitions of CSs, taxonomies and research studies. An analysis of the strategic performance of the subjects has also been presented.

8.8.1 Research gap to be filled:

1. No extensive research has been conducted on Arab learners' use of CSs while communicating in the target language English.

Few studies were found in the literature that investigated CSs used by Arabs. This study has made an important contribution to CS research by conducting such an extensive study on Arab learners of English. It has made it clear how Arabs solve their communication problems during the course of communication.

2. English majors were under-represented in CS research.

The subjects of this study were English majors. The analysis of their strategic behaviour has contributed to our knowledge of how English majors solve their communication problems. The researcher found that English majors used a high number of CSs during the course of communication.

3. Few studies have contextualised their research.

Previous research has rarely provided enough background information about the educational context where the study took place, and has given only the number of subjects, nationality and how long they have been learning the target language. In

this study, I adopted a qualitative approach, and described in detail the context of English language learning and teaching in Jordan. This description is essential for qualitative research as it makes sense of the findings.

4. No previous research has ever been conducted on Arabic speakers' use of CSs in their L1 Arabic.

This study has contributed to CS research by providing new insight into which CSs Arabic speakers use while communicating in their L1 Arabic. They were found to use a variety of strategies.

5. The majority of researchers have used tasks most of which were designed on purpose to elicit CSs.

CLT classroom tasks were used in this study whose purpose was not to elicit CSs, but to study the subjects' strategic performance, and to see how the subjects transmitted their messages and if these transmissions were successful.

6. Measuring the comprehensibility and success of message transmission procedure varies from one researcher to another.

This study suggests that about 90 percent of the messages transmitted can be comprehensible and successful because of the learners' use of CSs. The use of CSs is a means of solving communication problems with the aim of passing comprehensible messages to the interlocutor.

7. Suitability of tasks should be taken into consideration.

This study suggests that the tasks used in a CS research project must be piloted, as some tasks might not be appropriate for strategic behaviour elicitation. Learners may also find some tasks too complicated. If this is the case, we cannot claim that the tasks have real-life characteristics.

8. *Many studies divided their subjects into two or three proficiency levels according the number of years the subjects had spent learning the target language.*

This study has contributed in this area by demonstrating that the subjects should be divided according to a standardised test, which is credible and transferable (valid and reliable). In this study, for example, a TOEFL test was used.

9. *Most CS research has been conducted on target language learners who have been to an English-speaking country.*

This study has contributed in this area by selecting a sample of subjects who had never been to an English-speaking country. The subjects in this study were learning English in Jordan, where the native and formal language of communication is Arabic. This study has examined the CSs used by this sample. This piece of research therefore describes communication taking place in a particular educational context, i.e. Jordan.

8.9 Reflections on the methodology used

Previous research methods studying strategic behaviour have been conducted by putting the learners in situation where they were forced to use communication strategies, for example, describing objects the learners were unfamiliar with like 'high chair' (Bialystok, 1990), abstract concepts like 'martyrdom' (Paribakht, 1985) and abstract shapes (Kellerman et al., 1990 ; Bongaerts and Poulisse, 1989). For discussion see Chapter Six, section 6.3.

One aspect of the originality of this study was that our aim was not to elicit communication strategies deliberately, but to make the subjects perform CLT tasks in which they used as many CSs as possible, in order to evaluate the usefulness of these tasks. In this study, spontaneity was taken into consideration, i.e. the communication strategies used, and whether the subjects were able to transmit comprehensible messages to the listener or not. Most previous research employed

different methods of evaluating message comprehensibility, such as devising tasks that required two people, one to describe a picture and another to decide which picture was being described. In our study, on the other hand, the researcher and two native speaker judges were used to decide whether the messages transmitted were comprehensible or not, by studying the attempted pictures, key events, and speech acts decided in advance.

Another aspect of the originality of the methodology adopted in this research is that we adopted a qualitative methodology in an attempt to show how communication takes place in a particular educational context, but also used quantitative methods as a means of showing how this takes place. In previous research, the context was rarely paid any attention. Researchers have provided us with a minimum of information about the subjects and the educational setting where the learning and teaching process took place; for instance, the schools, teachers, curriculum, educational policy in the country, and the purpose of learning English were overlooked. This background information about the educational context is essential because it all has an effect on our explanations and justifications of the results. We therefore described the educational context in Jordan in detail so that our explanation of results would make more sense.

Piloting the tasks before administering them can also be seen as part of the originality of this research. Some tasks were abandoned, others were modified. No previous research has conducted a pilot study to test the credibility (validity) of its tasks. For further discussion see Chapter Six, section 6.6.2.

Most CS empirical studies have required learners to describe unfamiliar objects or difficult concepts because they wanted to have control over the meaning that the learners were being asked to convey. In this study, the use of cue pictures in the story-telling task, and the use of pictures in the object-identification task, and flowchart instructions for the role-play task were a successful method for retaining

control over the content while maintaining the nature of the tasks, which were pedagogical tasks with real-life characteristics. The tasks were used in this study because they were typical CLT classroom tasks, which I think are very useful in simulating real-life situations. Pattison (1987) claims that role-playing is very important in simulating communication in the classroom. For details see section 6.6.1.

The use of the same subjects to perform the three tasks, first in Arabic and then in English, was done in order to compare the learners' CS use in their performance in both languages. This is also part of the originality of this research, since, as the extensive literature review has shown, no research has been conducted on Arabs performing the same tasks in their native language as in their L2. Some researchers have done this, but on subjects who were learning English as a foreign or second language who were not Arabs. For example, Kellerman et al. (1990) investigated the CSs used by Dutch learners of English in L1 and L2 and Russel (1997) investigated the CSs used by Japanese subjects in their L1 and L2.

In this study, asking subjects to perform the tasks in both languages was also a method for arriving at the intended meaning when studying the English performance for analysis. In addition, the use of the two native speakers to perform the same tasks was done in order to see how native speakers approached these tasks.

One of the problems encountered in the data analysis was the difficulty in defining a certain expression as a strategy or not. This difficulty or uncertainty was reduced by the use of independent judges who were asked to study and check the reliability of our code and classification of the utterances into the various CSs in context. For details see section 6.9.2.

One of the drawbacks of this study was undoubtedly the lack of genuine interaction with native English speakers who did not know Arabic. The extensive use of

language switch strategy could have been due to the fact that the researcher was a native speaker of Arabic. In the role-play task, for example, the role of the person who knows London very well could have been taken by a native speaker of English who did not know Arabic. However, as I pointed out in section 6.6, these tasks were supposed to represent CLT classroom activities, and in that case, they would not include native speakers. In natural classroom settings in Jordan, no native speakers are available.

In the object-identification task, a native speaker could have replaced the researcher, and shown the pictures to the learners. This would have ensured that the learners did not use Arabic as a result of the researcher being a native speaker of Arabic. This also might have forced them to resort to other strategies than shifting to Arabic.

In the story-telling task, a native speaker could also have replaced the researcher in listening to the story. In the story-telling task, the researcher asked the subjects to assume he was a friend of theirs. The researcher could have brought a native speaker to the office and asked the subjects to assume that the native speaker was the friend and the native speaker could have taken part in the task by providing the feedback.

A further limitation was that the study was limited to 30 English majors at Yarmouk University in Jordan. This number could have been greater if we had not studied the same subjects' CS use in their performance in Arabic in the same tasks. It might therefore be a good idea to increase the number of subjects of the study, and investigate the CSs used only in the target language, by both the Single majors (those who study English without taking any minors) and the English Field Teachers (English major and a minor in TEFL) for comparison. This could be done in order to assess whether giving more courses of English to the learners would

affect their CS use or not, and to find which group uses more strategies. Due to the qualitative nature of our research, we needed to use a small number of subjects.

8.10 Reflections on CS definition

The definition used by us to describe CSs was that of Faerch and Kasper (1983a:36) "CSs are potentially conscious plans for solving what to an individual presents itself as a problem in reaching a particular communicative goal". Problematicity and consciousness were also claimed to be the two most significant defining criteria of CSs.

In our research data, there was evidence of problematicity, but awareness can hardly be determined either way except in a few cases, such as self-repairs, circumlocution and avoidance, when learners feel that they are facing a communication problem, and resort to these strategies. Sometimes both native and non-native speakers use a target language word thinking it to be the most appropriate word. For example, in this study, one of the subjects described the picture of a lift as 'ascenseur'. I asked her to say it in English, but she said 'It's ascenseur'. The learner thought that 'ascenseur' was the correct word, and was unaware that she was using a communication strategy.

8.11 Recommendations for further research

More classroom research can be conducted in the following areas:

1. An interesting piece of classroom research would be to compare the CSs used by English majors at different universities in Jordan. This could be done in order to see if the university curriculum and teaching methodology adopted has any effect on strategy use and strategy choice. There might be differences because of the admission procedures adopted at the universities of Jordan. For example, the University of Jordan administers a placement test for those who are admitted to the university and wish to study English at the English Language Department. Such a

test is not administered in Yarmouk University. A comparison could therefore be made between these two categories of university English majors. However, Yarmouk University does appear to be typical of the other Jordanian universities.

2. Another interesting topic for research would be to study the communication strategies used by English Field Teachers (English majors with minor in Education) and Single English majors (who do not minor in any subject). As discussed in the literature review (Section 2.1.5.2), English Field Teachers take fewer English courses than Single English majors. Such a study would enable researchers to assess whether teaching the learners more English affected their strategy use and proficiency level or not.

3. Another research project could be conducted to study the CSs used by high school graduates of rural and urban parts of the country. University graduates looking for a job in the Ministry of Education in Jordan have to spend up to five years in the countryside. Then they can apply to move into the city. This means that teachers in villages or the rural areas are changing constantly, and this has a negative affect on the proficiency level of school-children and high school graduates from the countryside. Those who study in urban areas are considered the luckiest, because they are taught by experienced teachers who have at least five years' teaching experience. Such a study might provide us with a clear picture of the situation.

4. Finally, the CSs used by private school students, who have studied all their school subjects in English, could be compared with those of government school students, who have studied all their school subjects in Arabic. The purpose would be to see if there was an effect for the learning situation and exposure on the learners' strategy use.

8.12 Pedagogical implications

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. See discussion in section 3.8. 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.

It seemed that one of the most widely used strategies by the subjects of this study was literal translation. Teachers of English always advise learners to think in English when they write or speak in order to prevent use of this strategy. Despite this, Arabic learners of English still translate literally from Arabic into English. Zughoul (1991:53) suggests that the only way to minimise the use of this strategy is by “correction and explanation”. Learners must therefore be corrected when they make such errors. I think that what Zughoul (*ibid*) meant is making learners aware of such errors so that they can avoid committing them in future communicative situations. Moreover, I think that creating a good English learning environment will help learners to acquire English easily which will, in turn, help them to avoid using such a communication strategy. Despite this, I may say that literal translation was a very successful strategy in achieving the communicative goal, and only failed in a few cases in transmitting a message that was successful and comprehensible. Thus, it may be encouraged when no other means are available to the learners.

This thesis supports 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 sensitizing 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, L2-ignorance acknowledgement 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 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 this study, which showed that more than 90 per cent of the learners' attempts were comprehensible and successful because they used communication strategies, support this claim. The use of CSs helped the students 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.

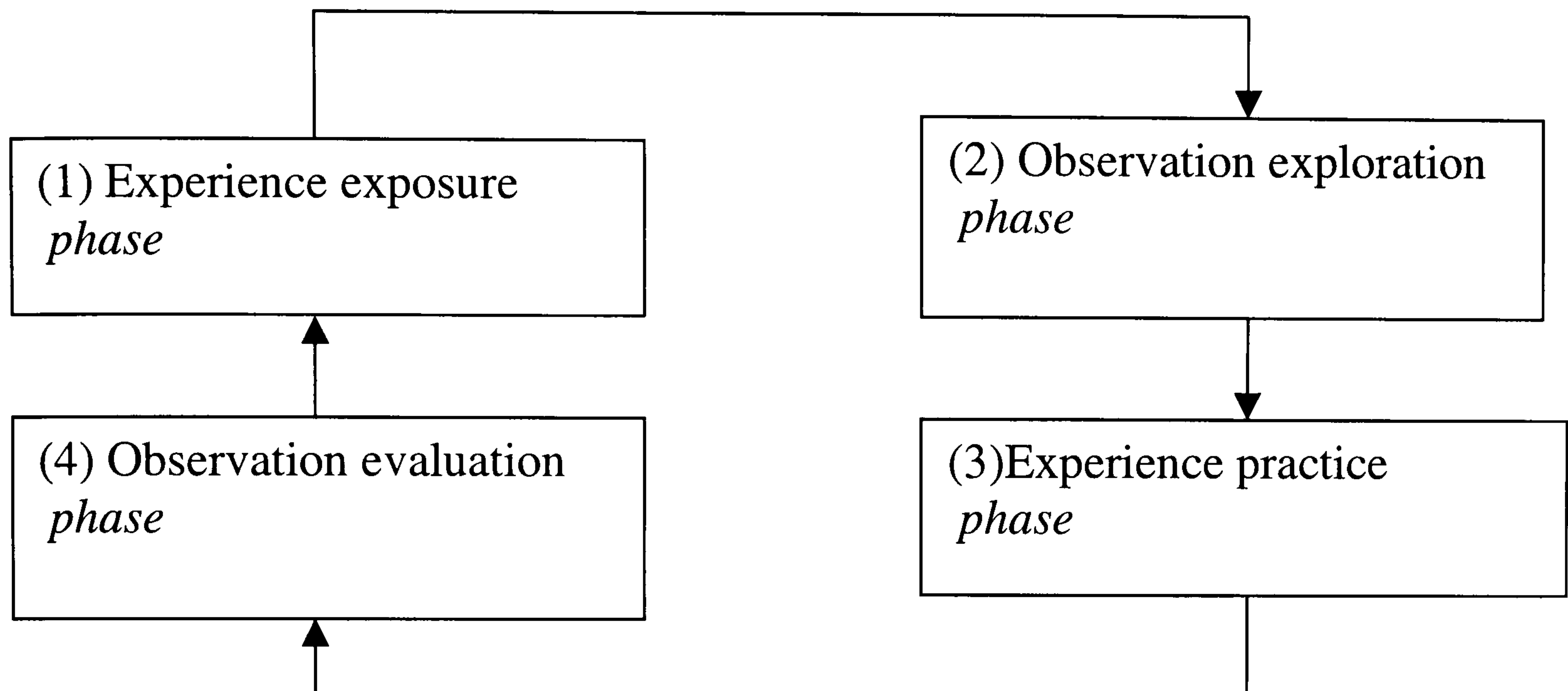
Another approach could be asking learners to perform tasks such as the ones designed for this study. These are easy to integrate into the CLT classroom. It might also be a good idea to provide learners with certain basic vocabulary and sentence structures to describe the properties and functions of objects like: *top-side, triangular, square* (Tarone and Yule, 1989). Dornyei and Thurrell (1992) suggested using structures such as: “*it’s a kind of /sort of..., the thing you use for..., it’s what /when you....., it’s 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...?*).

According to Mariani (1994):

If we become more aware of certain language features, we stand a better chance of noticing these features in the language input we are exposed to. In other words, we may become more receptive to them, and can therefore hope to acquire them in an implicit way, and to gradually make them part of our active repertoire (Mariani, 1994).

An appropriate approach to teaching communication strategies, which summarises the ideas I have mentioned above, is the one suggested by Mariani (1994). The numbers are added to the figure to make clear. *Italics* are ours.

Figure (8.1) A possible approach to strategy training



Mariani (1994)

This is a cyclic approach where learners start from a receptive stage. They could be exposed to actual examples of language use in which communication strategies play a clear and significant role (*experience exposure phase*). Then they could be led to become aware of the use of strategies through a stage of exploration and discussion (*Observation exploration phase*). This could be followed by a stage of practice and performance where students could try out the strategies for themselves (*Experience practice phase*). And finally, they could discuss their own performance, evaluate their strategic use and compare it with a native speaker's (*Observation evaluation phase*).

The results of our research 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.

All teachers and learners need to understand that successful language learning is not only a matter of developing grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence and semantic competence, but also the strategic competence which involves the use of CSs and their role in sending and comprehending messages successfully.

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Appendixes

Appendix I TOEFL Placement Test

This test consists of three sections: (1) Listening, (2) Structure and Written Expressions and (3) Reading Comprehension.

Section 1 Listening Comprehension

20 Questions 20 Minutes.

Directions: You will hear short conversations between two people. After each conversation, you will hear a question about the conversation. The conversations and questions will not be repeated. After you hear a question, read the four possible answers in your paper and choose the best answer.

1. (A) Wait at a drugstore (B) Go to a doctor's office
(C) Find a hospital (D) Look for some aspirin
2. (A) He doesn't mind the traffic
(B) He takes the bus to work
(C) He has to stand on the bus if he takes it to work
(D) He wants to ride to work with the woman
3. (A) She is flattered (B) She is not interested
(C) She is not busy (D) She will support the man's nomination
4. (A) The woman should not consider her advisor in the decision
(B) The woman should not take Dr. Sullivan's section
(C) The woman's advisor will not be offended
(D) The woman should not take a physics course
5. (A) It was too far from work (B) It was very old
(C) The school was far away (D) The area was not nice
6. (A) She is not interested in the man
(B) She does not like lectures
(C) She would go out with the man on another occasion
(D) She would rather stay at home
7. (A) The bike is in good condition (B) The man needs to replace the bike
(C) The bike is missing (D) It is a new bike

8. (A) The books were more expensive than two hundred dollars
 (B) She would like to buy the books
 (C) She cannot afford the price of the books
 (D) She has not purchased her books yet
9. (A) She wants to fix supper (B) She wants to stay at home
 (C) She is not hungry (D) She wants to go out
10. (A) He is at his office (B) He is at lunch
 (C) He is at the travel agency (D) He is at the bakery
11. (A) See a lawyer (B) Come to an agreement
 (C) Sue the company (D) Go to court
12. (A) Something cold (B) Coffee
 (C) Tea (D) Both coffee and tea
13. (A) Ask direction (B) Walk to the shopping centre
 (C) Take a taxi (D) Wait for the bus
14. (A) He does not plan to study (B) He has a very busy schedule
 (C) He is lost (D) He has not registered yet
15. (A) He does not want to listen to the radio
 (B) He has changed his opinion about turning on the radio
 (C) The radio will not bother him
 (D) The radio is not working very well
16. (A) Stop worrying (B) Go out more
 (C) Talk to a friend (D) Get counselling
17. (A) Telephone call (B) A visit from friends
 (C) A mistake on a bill (D) A letter they have written
18. (A) He prefers to talk another time (B) He wants the woman to go away
 (C) He would like the woman to continue (D) He doesn't know what to think
19. (A) Accept the woman's apology
 (B) Allow the woman to go ahead of him
 (C) Apologise to the woman
 (D) Go to the front of the line
20. (A) The neighbours have parties often
 (B) She does not like her neighbours

- (C) The neighbours' party is disturbing her
- (D) She will not be invited to the neighbours' party

Section 2

Structure and Written Expression

20 Questions 20 Minutes

Structure

Directions: Questions 1 - 10 are incomplete sentences. Beneath each sentence you will see four words or phrases, marked (A), (B), (C), and (D). Choose the one word or phrase that best completes the sentence.

1. Political demonstrations on American campuses have abated.....
 (A) after 1970 (B) in 1970 (C) for 1970 (D) since 1970

2. Ancient civilisations such as those of the Phoenicians and the Mesopotamians goods rather than use money.
 (A) use to trade (B) is used to trade (C) used to trade (D) was used to trade

3. Justice Sanra Day O'Connor wasto serve on the U.S. Supreme Court.
 (A) the woman who first (B) the first woman
 (C) who the first woman (D) the first and a woman

4. North Carolina is well known not only for the Great Smoky Mountains National Parkfor the Cherokee Indian settlements.
 (A) also (B) and (C) but also (D) because of

5. General Grant had General Leehim at Appomattox to sign the official surrender of the Confederate forces.
 (A) to meet (B) met (C) meet (D) meeting

6. If a ruby is heated it temporarily lose its colour.
 (A) would (B) will (C) does (D) has

7.small specimen of the embryonic fluid is removed from a fetus, it will be possible to determine whether the baby will be born with birth defects.
 (A) A (B) That a (C) If a (D) When it is a

8. All of the people at the AAME conference are.....
 (A) mathematic teachers (B) mathematics teachers
 (C) mathematics teacher (D) mathematic's teachers

9. To generate income, magazine publishers must decide whether to increase the price or.....
 (A) to sell advertising (B) if they should sell advertising
 (C) selling advertising (D) sold advertising

10. If itmore humid in the desert of the Southwest, the hot temperatures would be unbearable.

- (A) be (B) is (C) was (D) were

Written Expression

Directions: In questions 11- 20, each sentence has four underlined words or phrases. The four underlined parts of the sentence are marked (A), (B), (C), and (D). Identify the one underlined word or phrase that must be changed in order for the sentence to be correct.

11. The duties of the secretary are to take the minutes, mailing the

- (A) (B) (C)

correspondence, and calling the members before meetings.

- (D)

12. If biennials were planted this year, they will be likely to bloom next year.

- (A) (B) (C) (D)

13. The value of the dollar declines as the rate of inflation raises.

- (A) (B) (C) (D)

14. Even though a member has drank too much the night before, the counsellors

- (A) (B) (C)

at Alcoholics Anonymous will try to convince him or her to sober up and stop

- (D)

drinking again.

15. Anthropologists assert that many of the early American Plains Indians did not

engage in planting crops but to hunt, living primarily on buffalo meat.

- (A) (B) (C) (D)

16. The neutron bomb provides the capable of a limited nuclear war in which

- (A) (B) (C)

buildings would be preserved, but people would be destroyed.

- (D)

17. The differential attractions of the sun and the moon have a direct effect in the

- (A) (B)

rising and falling of the tides.

- (C) (D)

18. With special enzymes that are call restriction enzymes, it is possible to split off
 (A) (B)
 segments of DNA from the donor organism.
 (C) (D)
19. Before TV, the common man seldom never had the opportunity to see and
 (A) (B)
hear his leaders express their views.
 (C) (D)
20. If it receives enough rain at the proper time, hay will grow quickly, as grass.
 (A) (B) (C) (D)

Section 3 Reading Comprehension

20 questions 30 minutes

Directions: In this section you will read two passages. Each one is followed by ten questions about it. For questions 1-20, you are to choose the one best answer, (A), (B), (C), or (D), to each question. Answer all questions about the information in each passage on the basis of what is stated or implied.

Reading Passage One

It has long been known that when exposed to light under suitable conditions of temperature and moisture, the green parts of plants use carbon dioxide from the atmosphere and release oxygen into it. These exchanges are the opposite of those that occur in respiration. The line process is called photosynthesis. In photosynthesis, carbohydrates are synthesised from carbon dioxide and water by the chloroplasts of plant cells in the presence of light. In most plants, the water used in photosynthesis is absorbed from the soil by the roots and translocated through the xylem of the root and stem to the leaves. Except for the usually small percentage used in respiration, the oxygen released in the process diffuses out of the leaf into the atmosphere through the stomates. Oxygen is the product of the reaction. For each molecule of carbon dioxide used, one molecule of oxygen is released. A summary chemical equation for photosynthesis is:



As a result of this process, radiant energy from the sun is stored as chemical energy. In turn, the chemical energy is used to decompose carbon dioxide and water. The products of their decomposition are recombined into a new compound, which is successively built up into more and more complex substances. After

many intermediate steps, sugar is produced. At the same time, a balance of gases is preserved in the atmosphere.

Questions

1. Which title best expresses the ideas in this passage?
(A) A Chemical Equation (B) The Process of Photosynthesis
(C) The Parts of Vascular Plants (D) The Production of Sugar.
2. In photosynthesis, water
(A) must be present (B) is produced in carbohydrates
(C) is stored as chemical energy (D) interrupts the chemical reaction
3. Which process is the opposite of photosynthesis?
(A) Decomposition (B) Synthesis (C) Diffusion (D) Respiration
4. The combination of carbon dioxide and water to form sugar results in an excess of
(A) water (B) oxygen (C) carbon (D) chlorophyll
5. The word “stored” in line 13 is closest in meaning to
(A) retained (B) converted (C) discovered (D) specified
6. In photosynthesis, energy from the sun is
(A) changed to chemical energy
(B) conducted from the xylem to the leaves of green plants
(C) not necessary to the process
(D) released one to one for each molecule of carbon dioxide used.
7. The word “their” in line 15 refers to
(A) radiant energy and chemical energy (B) carbon dioxide and water
(C) products (D) complex substances
8. The word “successively” in line 15 is closest in meaning to
(A) with effort (B) in a sequence (C) slowly (D) carefully
9. Besides the manufacture of food for plants, what is another benefit of photosynthesis?
(A) It produces solar energy
(B) It diffuses additional carbon dioxide into the air
(C) It maintains a balance of gases in the atmosphere
(D) it removes harmful gases from the air
10. Which of the following is NOT true of the oxygen used in photosynthesis?
(A) Oxygen is absorbed by the roots
(B) Oxygen is the product of photosynthesis
(C) Oxygen is used in respiration
(D) Oxygen is released into the atmosphere through the leaves

Reading Passage Two

Alfred Bernhard Nobel, a Swedish inventor and philanthropist, bequeathed most of his vast fortune in trust as a fund from which annual prizes could be awarded to individuals and organisations who had achieved the greatest benefit to humanity in a particular year. Originally, there were six classifications for outstanding contributions designated in Nobel's will including chemistry, physiology or medicine, literature, and international peace.

The prizes are administered by the Nobel Foundation in Stockholm. In 1969, a prize for economics endowed by the Central Bank of Sweden was added. Candidates for the prizes must be nominated in writing by a qualified authority in the field of competition. Recipients in physics, chemistry, and economics are selected by the Royal Swedish Academy of Sciences; in physiology or medicine by the Caroline Institute; in literature by the Swedish Academy; and in peace by the Norwegian Nobel committee appointed by Norway's parliament. The prizes are usually presented in Stockholm on December 10, with the King of Sweden officiating, an appropriate tribute to Alfred Nobel on the anniversary of his death. Each one includes a gold medal, a diploma, and a cash award of about one million dollars.

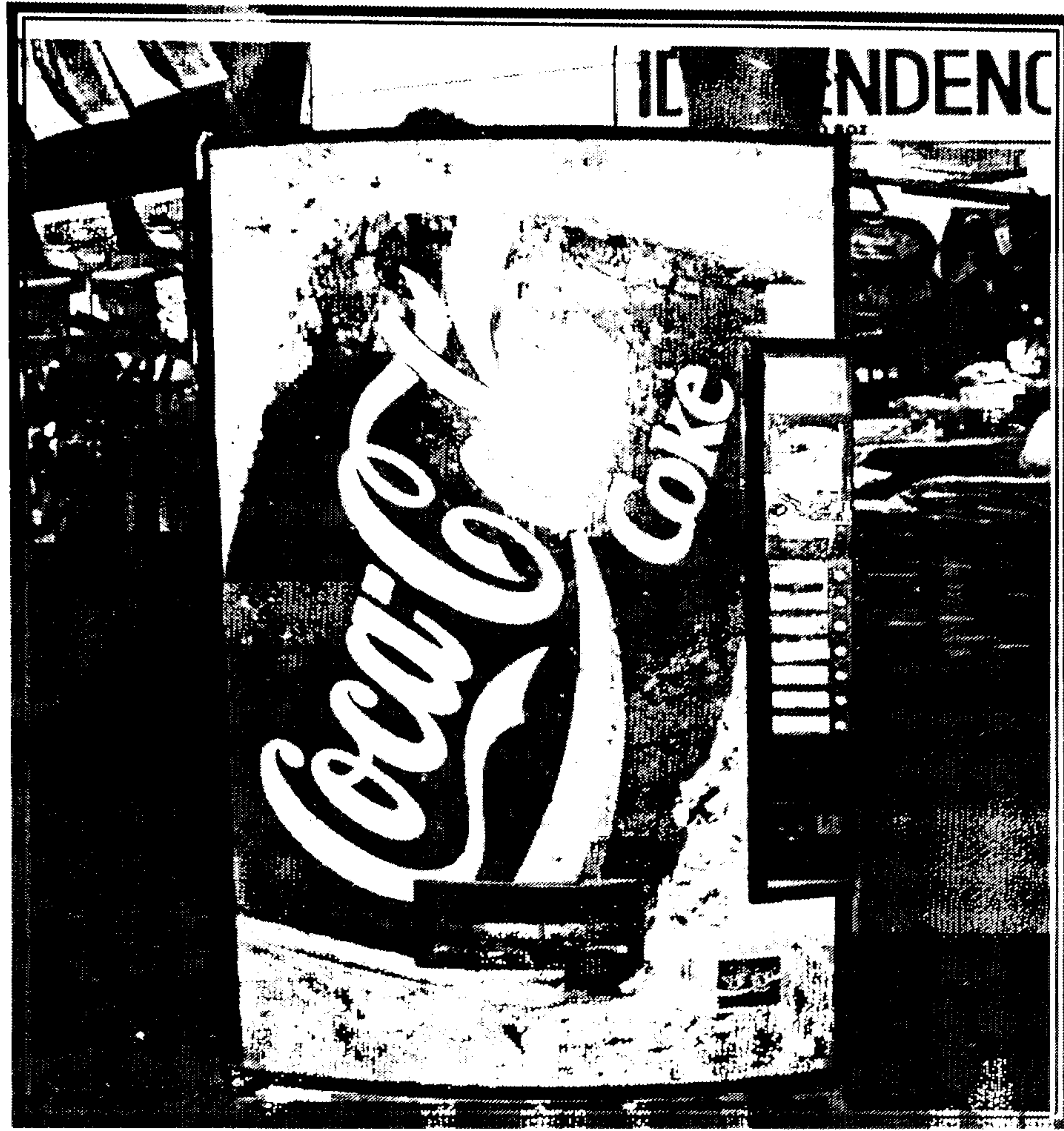
Questions

11. What does this passage mainly discuss?
(A) Alfred Bernhard Nobel (B) The Nobel prizes
(C) Great contributions to mankind (D) Swedish philanthropy
12. Why were the prizes named for Alfred Bernhard Nobel?
(A) He left money in his will to establish a fund for the prizes.
(B) He won the first Nobel Prize for his work in philanthropy.
(C) He is now living in Sweden.
(D) He serves as chairman of the committee to choose the recipients of the prizes.
13. How often are the Nobel prizes awarded?
(A) Five times a year (B) Once a year
(C) Twice a year (D) Once every years
14. The word "outstanding" in line 4 could best be replaced by
(A) recent (B) unusual
(C) established (D) exceptional
15. The word "will" in line 4 refers to
(A) Nobel's wishes (B) a legal document
(C) a future intention (D) a free choice
16. A Nobel prize would NOT be given to
(A) an author who wrote a novel
(B) a doctor who discovered a vaccine
(C) a composer who wrote a symphony
(D) a diplomat who negotiated a peace settlement.

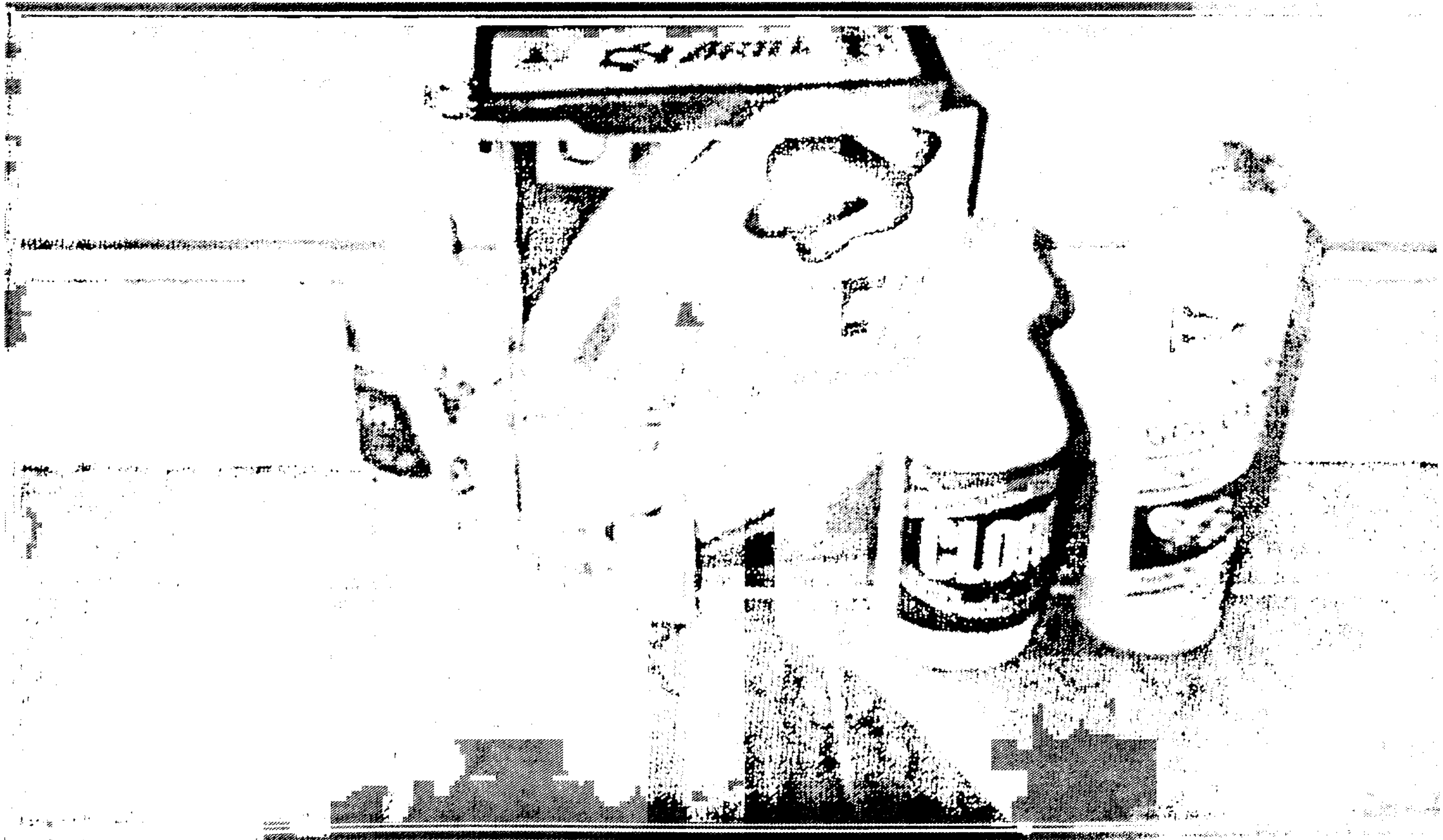
17. The word “one” in line 13 refers to
(A) tribute (B) anniversary (C) prize (D) candidate
18. Which individual or organisation serves as administrator for the trust?
(A) The King of Sweden
(B) The Nobel Foundation
(C) The Central Bank of Sweden
(D) Swedish and Norwegian academies and institutes
19. The word “appropriate” in line 13 is closest in meaning to
(A) prestigious (B) customary (C) suitable (D) transitory
- Why are the awards presented on December 10?
(A) It is a tribute to the King of Sweden
(B) Alfred Bernhard Nobel died on that day
(C) That date was established in Alfred Nobel’s will
(D) The Central Bank of Sweden administers the trust

Appendix II

Object-identification Task



Picture No. 1



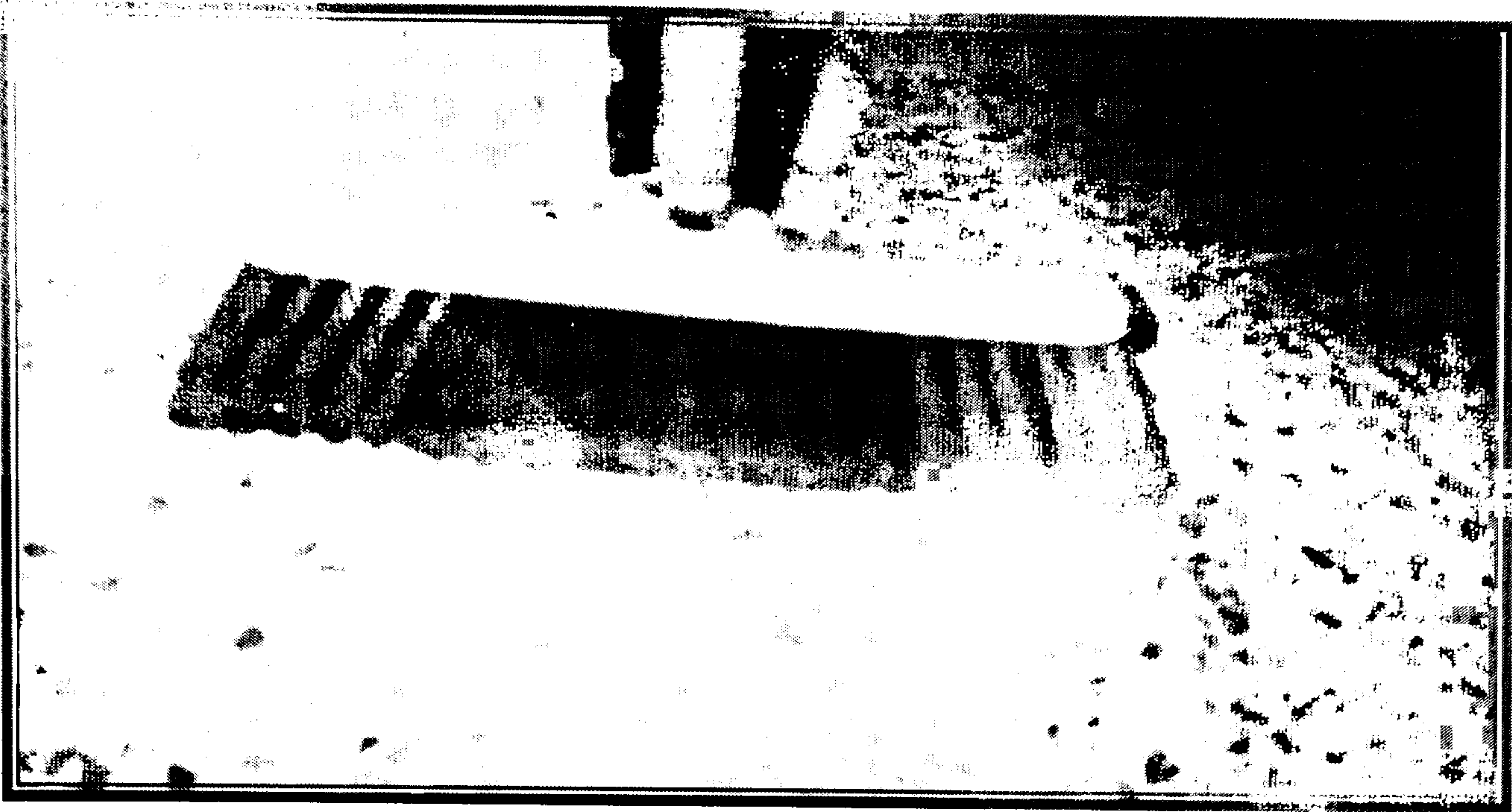
Picture No. 2



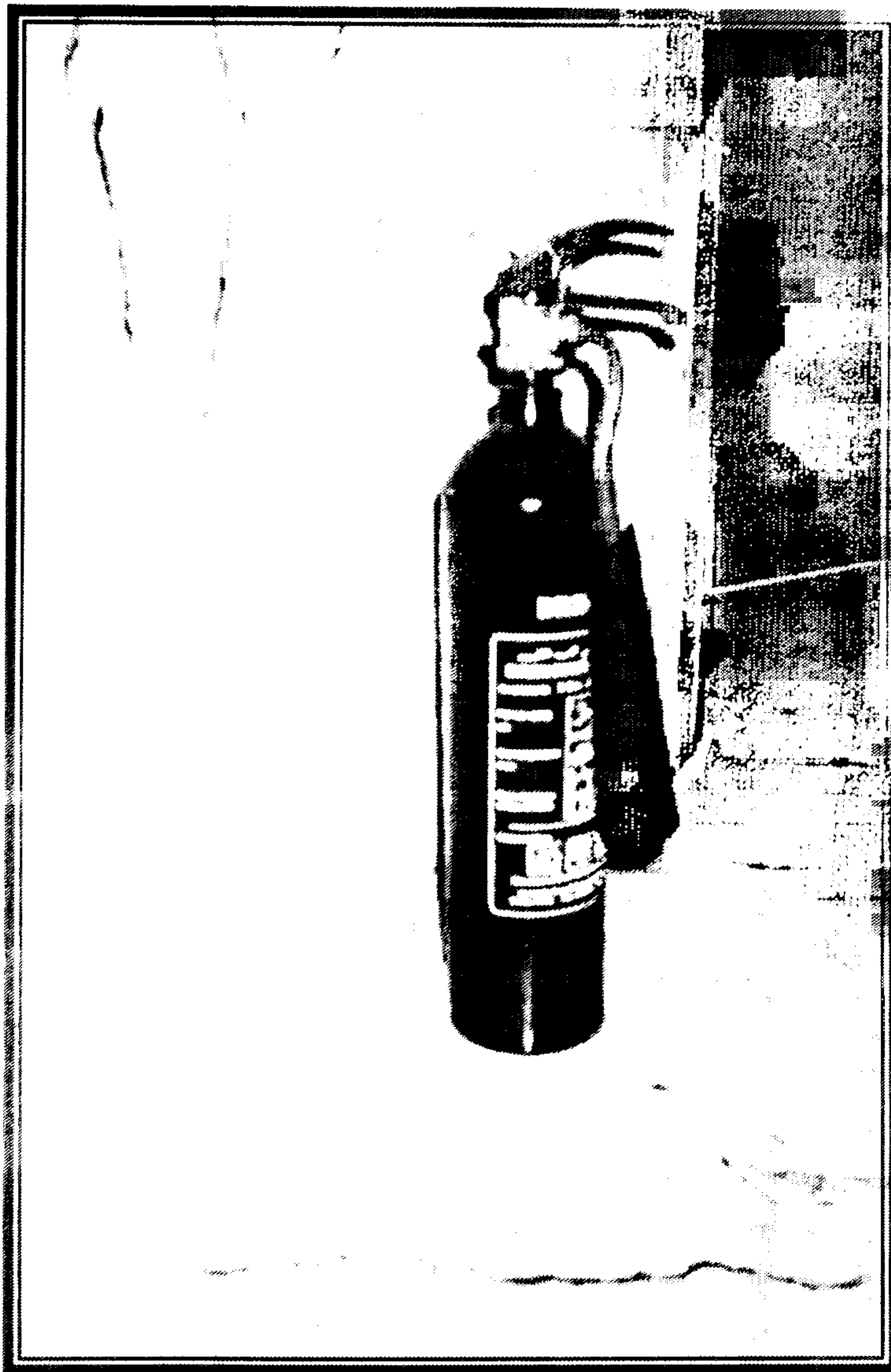
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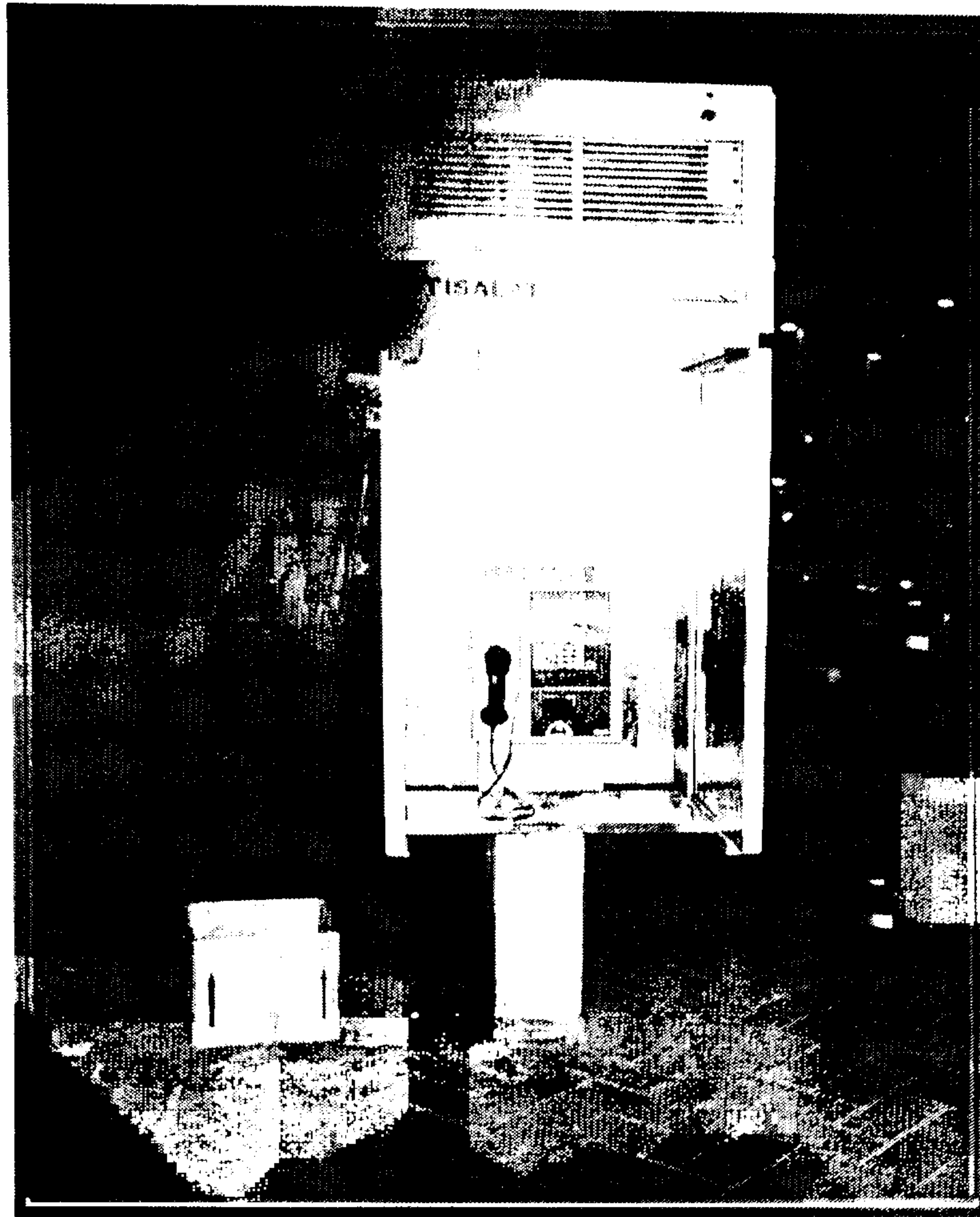
Picture No. 4



Picture No. 5



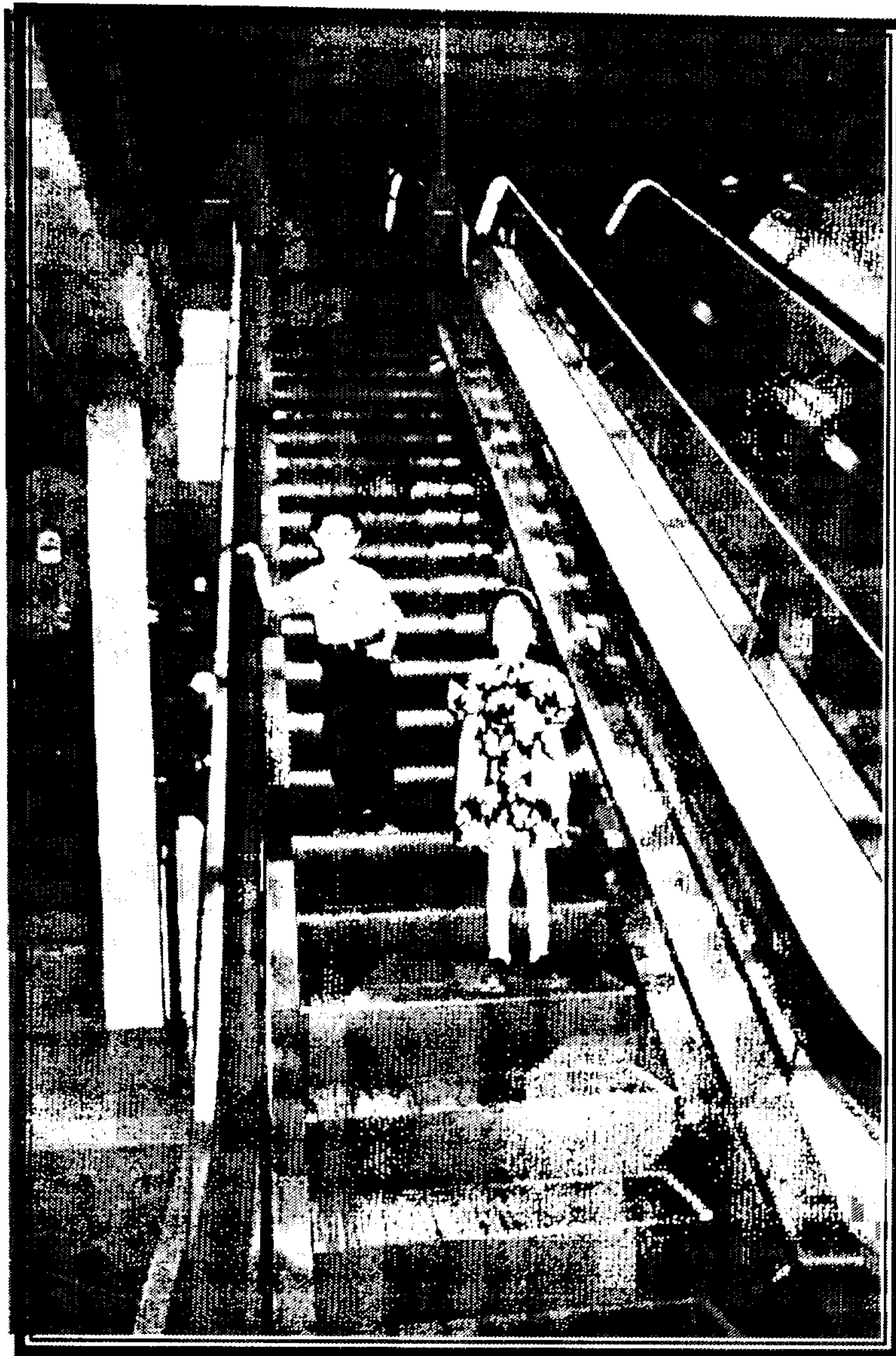
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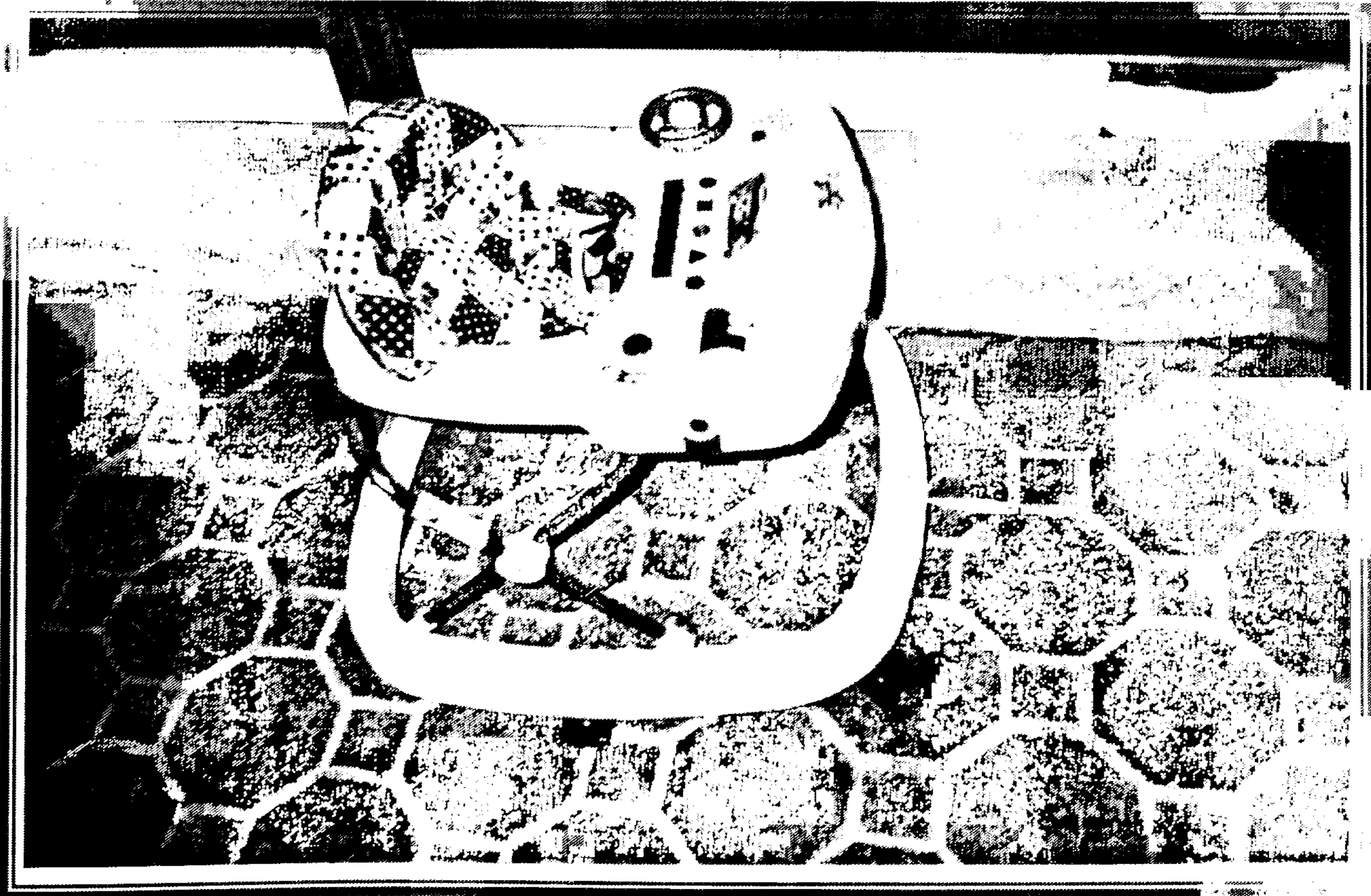
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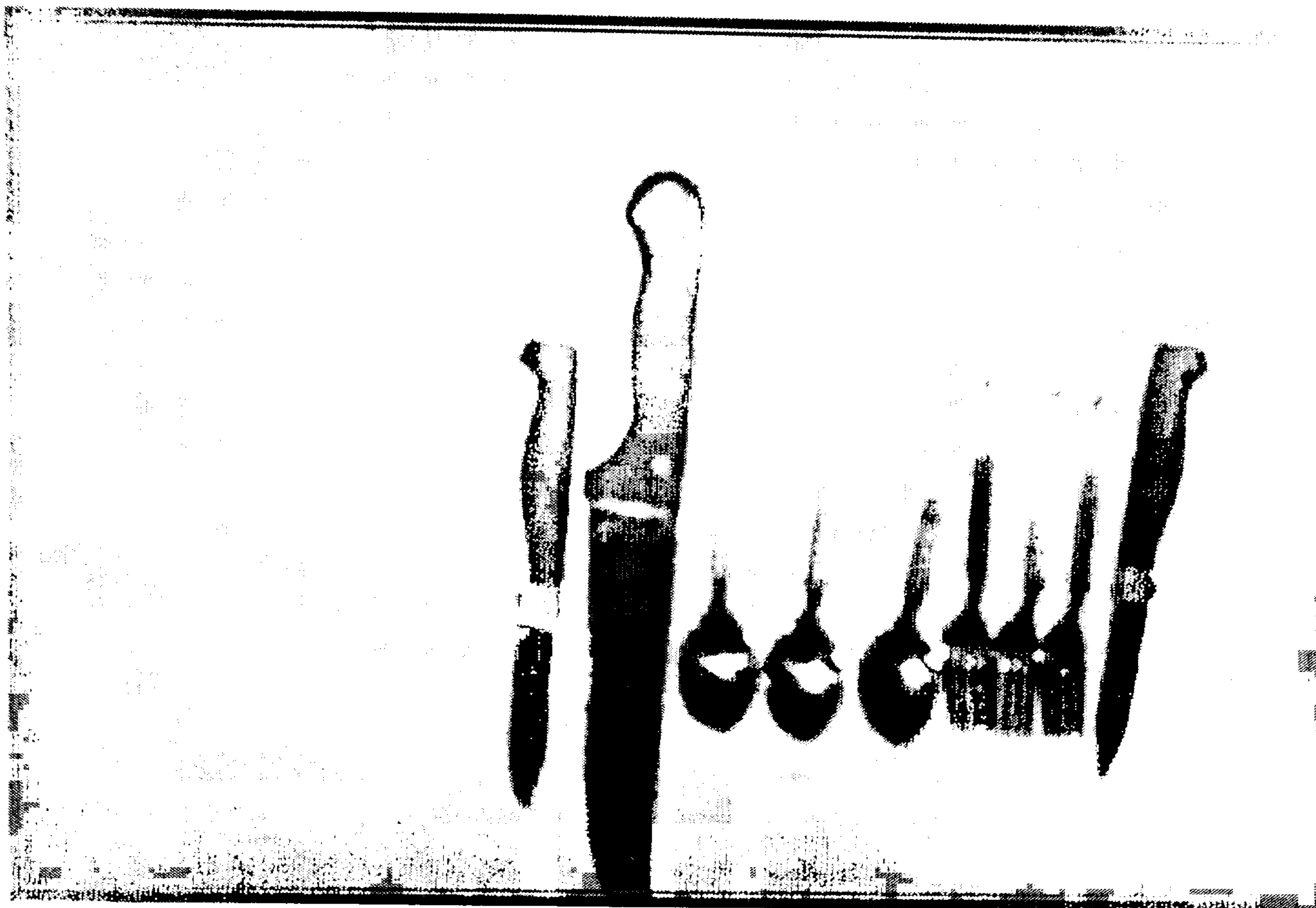
Picture No. 8



Picture No. 9



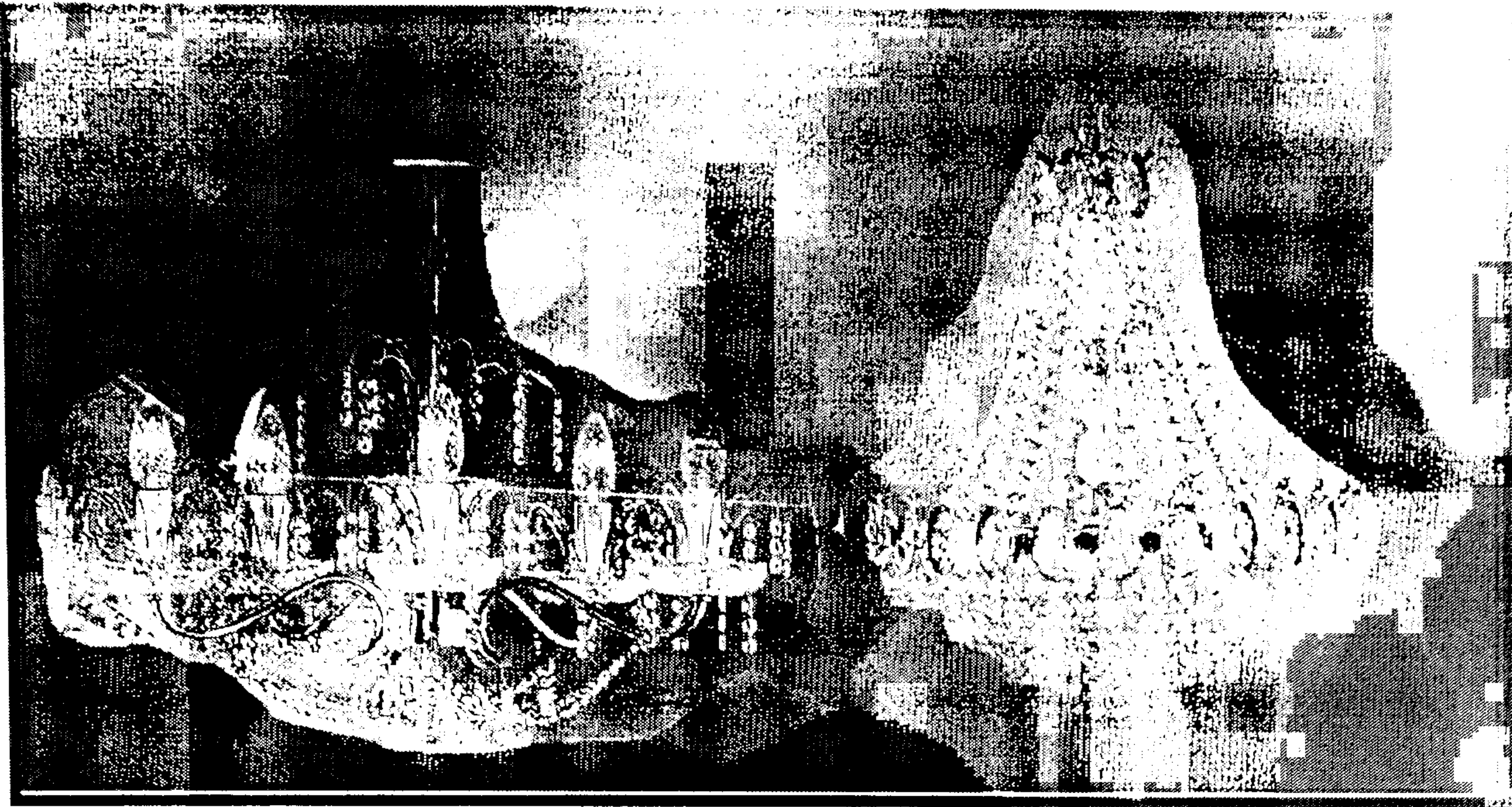
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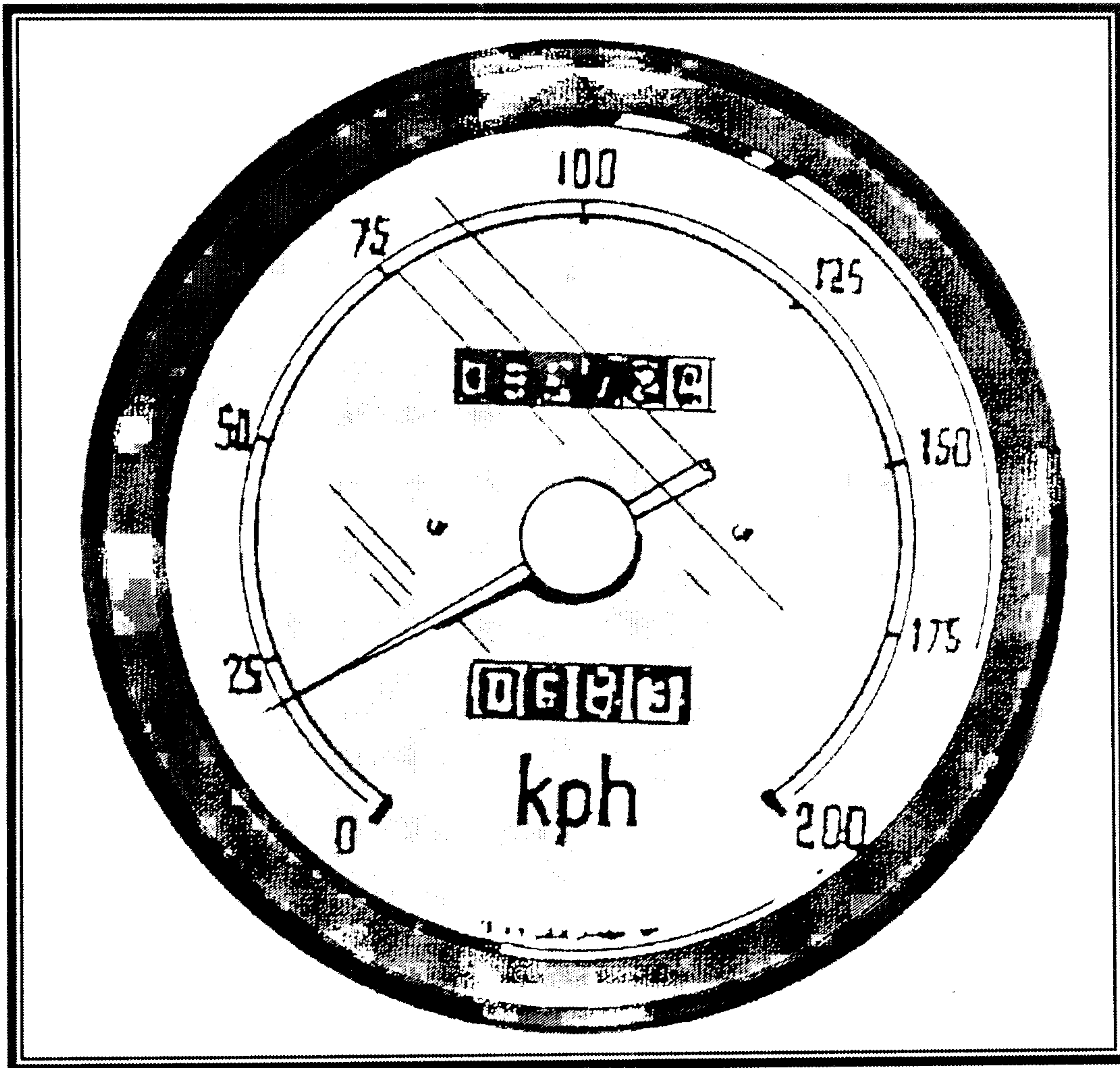
Picture No. 11



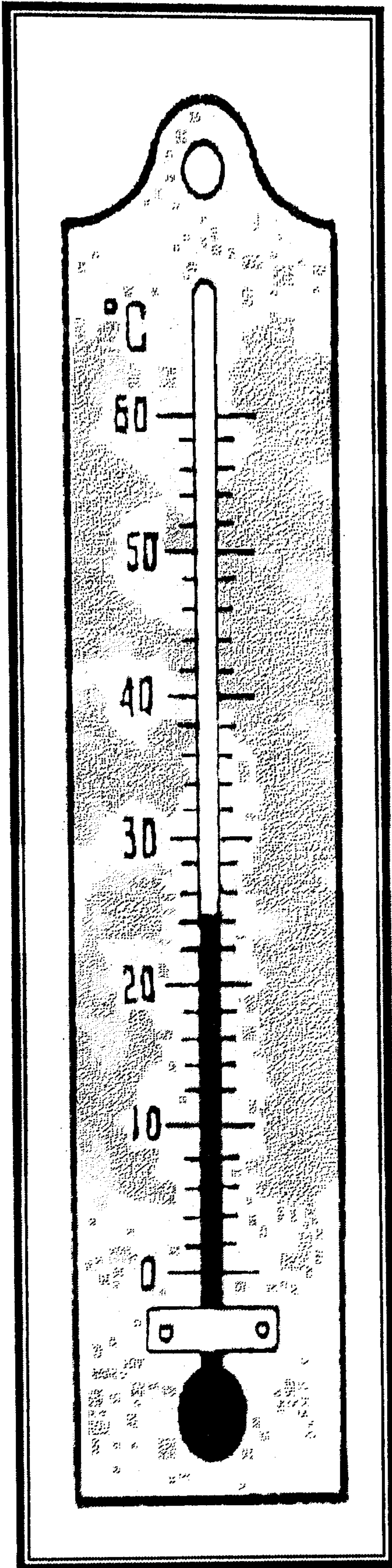
Picture No. 12



Picture No. 13



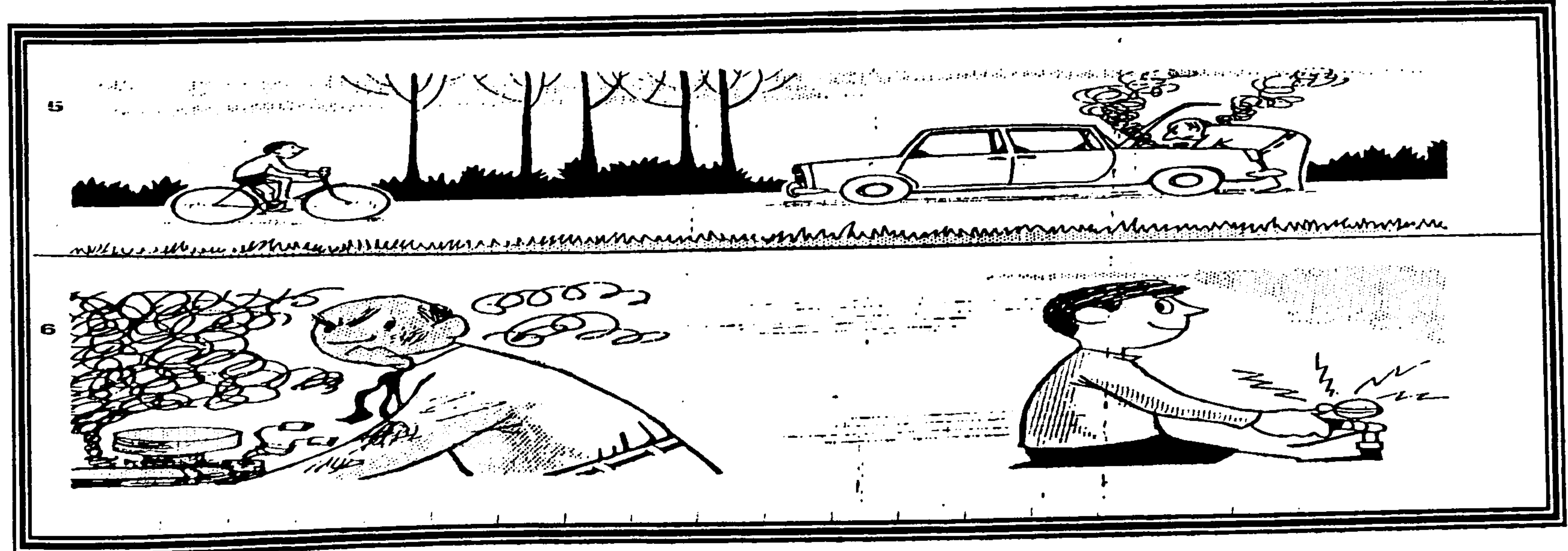
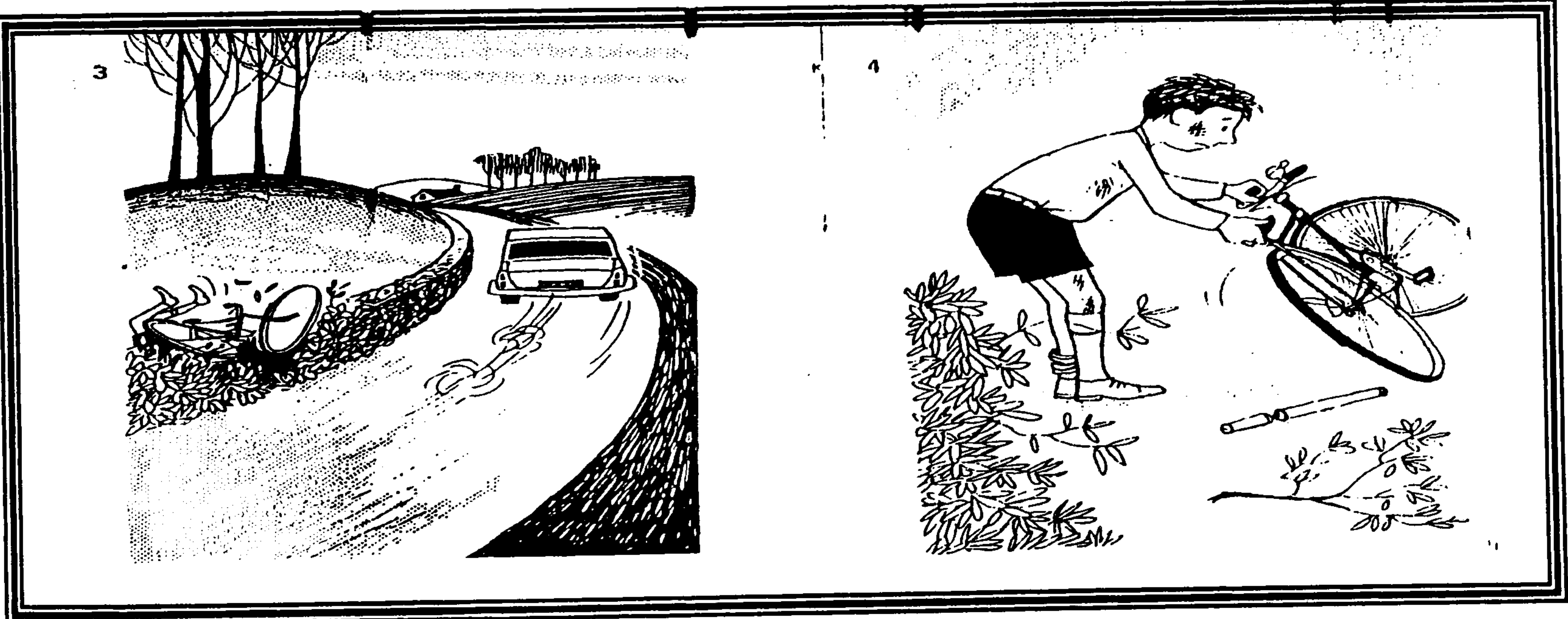
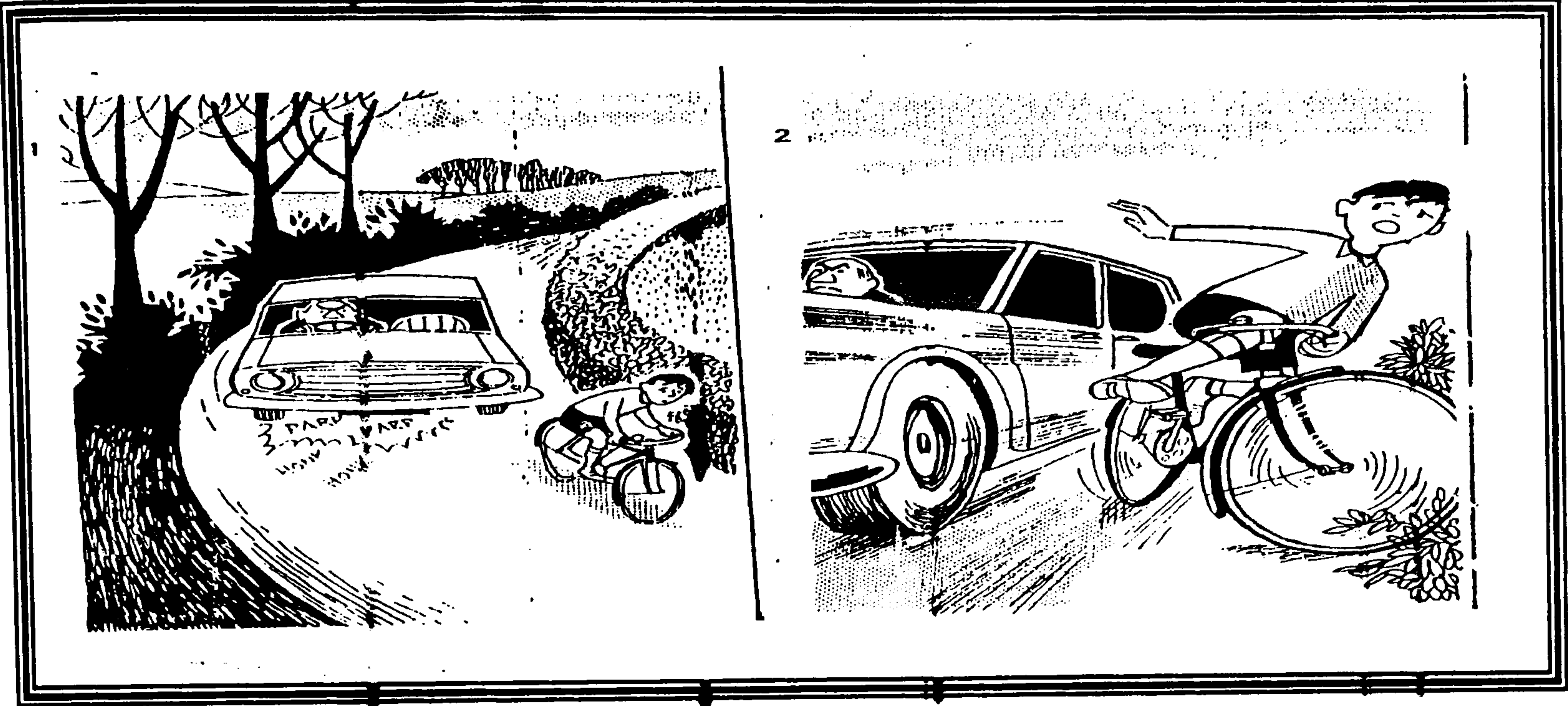
Picture No. 14



Picture No. 15

Appendix III

Picture Story-Telling Task



Appendix IV

Role - Play Task

Role (A)

You have just arrived in London for the first time.

You have come for a holiday and to learn English. London seems a little strange and you need to ask for help.

These are some of your problems:

You may ask for more information about the address, telephone, etc.

1. You need to change some traveller's cheques, but you don't know where to find a bank, or what time the banks open and close.
2. You need to buy some stamps and postcards.
3. You would like to buy a newspaper from your country.
4. You want to find a good English language school.
5. You want to ask about accommodation and how much it costs.

You meet someone who lives in London and who seems friendly, so you ask for information.

Prepare what you are going to say.

Role-Play Task

Role (B)

You live in London and know it quite well. You meet a foreigner who has just arrived, and who seems to have some problems.

Look at the information here and try to help him \ her.

Barclays Bank

Opening hours

Mon – Fri 9:30 –3:30

Closed all day Saturday

RACHMAN'S INTERNATIONAL

NEWSAGENTS

For all newspapers. If we haven't got it, we'll get it.

**Also cigarettes, confectionery, gift shop
souvenirs.**

**174 Bank Street opposite the police
station**

HIGH STREET POST OFFICE

Opening hours

Mon. 9.00 – 5.30

Tues. 9.00 –5.30

Wed. 9.00 – 1.00

Thurs. 9.00- 5.30

Fri. 9.00 –5.30

Sat. 9.00 - 1.00

International School

**Do you want to learn English
from experts?**

Come to

**106 Dover Street, W 1 for tuition,
social programme, and
accommodation or phone 491
2596**

Student Hostel

**We have good, cheap rooms for students. Single, double,
share from £33 a week. Come and see us at 278
Tottenham Court Road anytime day or night.**

Tel: 325 6789

Appendix V

Role (A) Student's Sheet

Please fill in the following chart during the conversation.

Name of the Bank	
The Bank's Opening and Closing Hours	
Name of the Post Office	
Name of the Newspaper Agency	
Name of the School	
Name of the Accommodation	
Cost of Accommodation Per Week	

Appendix VI

Object-identification Task Key words

Picture No.

1. Vending Machine
2. Detergents
3. Pushchair
4. Hoover/ Vacuum Cleaner
5. Broom
6. Fire Extinguisher
7. Telephone booth / call box/
Public phone /Public telephone
8. Lift / elevator
9. Escalator
10. Baby Walker
11. Cutlery
12. Zebra Crossing/ Pedestrian crossing
13. Chandeliers
14. Speedometer
15. Thermometer

Appendix VI

List of Key and Subsidiary events in the Story- telling task

A. Key Events

1. A boy/a cyclist was riding his bicycle.
2. A car driver was driving very fast.
3. He honked the horn.
4. He knocked the boy off his bicycle.
5. The car driver did not stop.
6. He set off on (continued) his journey.
7. Then the driver's car broke down.
8. The boy rang his bell
9. He kept straight on without helping the car driver.

B. Subsidiary Events

1. The road was narrow.
2. The boy fell down.
3. The boy was unhurt.
4. The boy fixed his bike.

Appendix IX

Object-identification Task Typescript Transcription

Low Level Students

LS1

1. [freizen] [freizə , freizə]
2. bottles, bottle or cleans bottle
3. er a [krɒdʒ ,krɒdʒ , krɒdʒ] *arabah* (tr: carriage) (5 sec) small [krɒdʒ]
4. cleaning machine
5. hand e:r ,,,,,, , cleaning hand *Mukinsek, Nasi Esimha Biliingilizi* (tr: broom, I forgot its name in English)
6. *tafayeh, Hai ma baarafesh* (tr: fire extinguisher, I don;t know this.)
,,,,, , to: protect from the: fire
7. er,,,,, , e:r telephone service
8. er lift
9. automatic e:r ,,,,,, , road we can say? o:r,,,,, , automatic (15 sec) I don't know
10. baby [krɒdʒ]
11. group of knife and e:r,,,,, , em knife *maaleq* (tr: spoons) ,,,,,, ,stainlesses
stainlesses *Shuka* (tr: fork) ,,,,,, , *Mush aref* (tr: I don't know)
12. a [bæ s] ,,,,,, , pass march
13. *Hathi bisamouha* (tr: this is called) (20 sec) to light the room ,,,,,, , e:r to
light the room
14. spee:d ,,,,,, , number of speeds, number of speeds, *adad suraah* (tr:
speedometer)
15. *Nasi* (tr: I forgot) ,,,,,, , skin scan e:r (15 sec) *qiyas* (tr: measure) (6
sec) e:r ((unintel 3 sec)) em temperature degree?

LS2

1. this machine used the er to [freiz] e:r er coca cola can ,,,,,, , [freizər]
2. *magmouaa baddi ahkeelak* (tr: a set, I want to tell you) , cleaners? *Laa?*
(tr: No?)
3. e:r,,,,, , these machine er used er to carry baby from place to another
place
4. these machine er .., used er to clean carpet ,,,,,, , in any house
5. hand clean, hand cleaner? hand cleaner?
6. ((deep breath)) *shwai bas* (tr: just a moment please.) (16 sec) this machine
used to: er e:r protect people e:r er from e:r a fire that occur in house or any
place
7. public telephone
8. this machine carry e:r people er from one floor to another floor

Missing pages are unavailable

9. these machine used to carry people from one floor to another floor, floor er (5 sec) like in,....., airport or in any ((unintel word))
10. these machine another type used er to: carry people from one e:r ,....., point to another point or to from one place to another
11. these many e:r er knife and er (5 sec) this used to: er to er er eat or er,.....,to make any cooking
12. these any lines used to: e:r ,....., learn, to learn people that lines er which people must e:r [wɔ:lɪk] in it
13. these used e:r to: light e:r any place in any er city like e:r a mosque
14. this o'clock e:r em that find it in a car er used to: show driver how much he is quick
15. these machine er used to: e:r (7 sec) to show people how er much temperature in e:r ,....., in the: ,...., atmosphere

LS3

The subject said, “*Wala wahdeh Baref menhum Bilingilizi*” (tr: I don't know anyone of them in English.)

1. frai [fraɪd] *thalajeh* (tr: fridge)
2. er ,....., clean er equipment *aw* (tr: or) ,.....,
3. e:m baby's car
4. e:r (46 sec) you ca:n e:r clean the carpet or the: ,, ground,
5. also you can clean the ground and e:r (33 sec) in the carpet *aw* (tr: or) the: the ground
6. e:r (7 sec) [eksɪtʃi:n] bottle *aw*, (tra: or)
7. e:r (10 sec) place which you ca:n e:r phone by anybody
8. e:r (11 sec) you ca:n walk up and down in the er buildings or e:r,
9. e:m (24 sec) *Mush arfeh* (tr: I don't know)
10. er (5 sec) baby's car o:r,
11. em ,....., cooking equi equipment or tools
12. e:r (7 sec) the road which we can the people can cut the: ,....., street
13. e:m *shu* (23 sec) *mush arfeh* (tr: what? I don't know) light up the room
14. e:r ,....., you can count er the e:r ..., the distance of e:r (7 sec) found it in the car
15. ca:n e:r found the temperature of the: in the body ,....., under the we put it under the tongue

LS4

1. *ana arfeh kilmet thalajeh bas enseetha* (tr: I know the word "fridge", but I forgot it) ,,,,,,, {freizə?} (7 sec) {freizatoric} *Kainha heika* (tr: as if it were like this) ,,,,,,,*khalas* (tr: alright) {freizatoric} *mush arfeh* (tr: I don't know.) ((laugh))
2. er (6 sec) tools of er (8 sec) cleaners? *Heik yani?* (tr: isn't it?)
3. er ,,,,,,, this picture e:r describe,,,,,, chair er em..., it can put er er chil(dren) baby baby and move er (5 sec) and e:m ((sigh)) (22 sec) *Shu badi awsef fiha? Mush arfeh shu badi awsef fiha.*(tr: what can I describe in it?I don't know how I can descibe it.)
4. er ,,,,,,, we can er u(use) use it for er clean the er ...,carpet and er ,,,,,,, and home
5. er ((unintel)) can er use it in er home and er ,,,,,,, remove the dirty thing
6. e:r this can used in er er (11 sec) when e:r er ,,,,,,, happened er fire we can use it
7. er general telephone
8. er *ascensceur kilmeh ingilizia?* (tr: is "ascensceur" an English word?) (7 sec) er this thing can used in the er em trans people from,,,,, under and to up
9. e:m (14 sec) er ((sigh)) e:m this can used in e:r((sigh)),,,,,,, *shu daraj?* What is the meaning of 'stairs'? (7 sec) *Mush arfeh daraj* (tr: I don't know it.)
10. this thing er use in er ,,,,,,, er bring the: *la mush* (tra: no, not to) bring ,,,,,,, we can put the baby in this and er to play of it
11. er em [nif] and er (6 sec) the things to use in cooking and er em (5 sec) in cooking
12. it's line use in e:r,,,,, e:r used to em ,,,,,,, to: er ...,general people
13. e:r ,,,,,,,beautiful lamps
14. e:m (19 sec) this o'clock can e:r e:r put in *shu?* (tr: what?) er in the car to: er to: limit the: the speed
15. e:m ((cough)) (19 sec) er thing use in the temperature? yes.

LS5

1. the box from e:r some drink
2. e:r some materials from the: e:r..., clea::ners *la* (tr: No) ,,,,,, the clea:n
the clea:n er materials
3. e:r car from the er baby
4. e:m em ,,,,,, the machine from the house or cleaning the house
5. and this that is e:r ..., er a machine from the cleaning the house and but er
it's from hand
6. e:r the fi(re) stop the fire? ,,,,,, right? ,,,,,, or stop e:r from the st stop
the fire
7. e:m a box from the telephone
8. *ascenseur* (tr: lift) ((the researcher asked "in English?")) *hia ascenseur*. (tr:
It's a lift)
9. e:r *ascenseur* (tr: lift)
10. and this e:r from the baby when he is e:m ,,,,,, lea:m er the go or weak
no. not weak, walk
11. e:r ,,,,,, some e:r some materials from the food ,,,,,, or e:r put in the
kitchen yeah like the knife spoon ,fork
12. e:r ,,,,,, the line er e:r important from the person er ,,,,,, in street er e:m
the must from the people er go from there
13. something put in e:r up the: ,,,,,, floor ,,,,,, up in the home ,,,,,, or em
give the light
14. e:m it's a watch from the car?
15. e:r I don't know , tell me

LS6

1. this is e:r box of er cola
2. this is e:m material of ,,,,,, clean
3. em a bed of children
4. cleaning er, ,,,,,, cleaning e:m
5. e:m ,brush cleaning? brush cleaning

6. e:r er fire e:r bottle, bottle fire
7. e:r phone e:r box
8. lift
9. e:r I don't know this. I don't know
10. e:m a bed of children
11. knife and er spoon, knife and spoon
12. em [stret] e:r I don't know
13. lights
14. kilometer,....., of car, kilometer of car?
15. hot e:r ((unintel word)) I don't know

LS7

1. e:r a machine [bdt] th:e the coins in it and have have pepsi or coca cola
2. e:m chemical materials
3. vehicle for chil(dren) for young children to carry him,...., them
4. e:r ,....., machine for cleaning, machine for cleaning
5. a small a small [bi:s] e:r u:se for cleaning the earth
6. e:r astr instrument fo:r e:r for fire
7. er er ge general telephone
8. e:r ,....., *shu bisamouha?* (tr: what is it called) to carry the [bɜ:rson] fo:r high high building
9. also carry the [bɜ:rson] er ,....., also to carry the [bɜ:rson]
10. small vehicle children
11. instrument fo:r e:r cooking and eating knives and spoons and ,...., fork
12. lines fo:r e:r ,....., walking [wɔ:lking] [pi:bol]
13. furniture or e:r [lɒmps] e:r something like that
14. e:r em we u:se it in the ca:r to: calculate the: the speed
15. use it to: calculate the: e:r thermometer

LS8

1. [freizər]
2. something e:r e:r chemical

3. related er in the boys, in the: ,..., kids
4. something use it to: clean er e:r the door
5. I don't know
6. I don't know. something ,...,..., er to: kee:p *ma baraf* (tr: I don't know), ..., fire
7. telephone public
8. *ascenseur* (tr: lift)
9. e:r (5 sec) *ma barafha* (tr: I don't know)
10. something use it to: kids
11. er (6 sec) something use it in the er cooks
12. em ,...,...,..., a signal e:r where ,..., e:r dot in the road
13. e:r ,...,...,..., something to: shine e:r ,...,...,the place
14. e:r, ..., clock in the: car
15. temperature, temperature

LS9

1. e:r it is e:r [ha:lf] of er er cola
2. this picture number two: regard to: er (5 sec) er it use e:r to: clean the, ..., some of things
3. article, ..., ..., er use to , ..., ..., er , ..., ..., send the: childrens , ..., ..., of road.
4. e:r article er use to:: cleaning the carpets
5. e:r manual article, ..., ..., er: u it use to: , ..., ..., er er in er er cleaning the carpets and ..., the: rooms
6. manual article..., it use to:: ((sigh)) (5 sec) sleep the fire
7. box e:r , ..., ..., it find on the: road .., its it used to:: ca:lling , ..., ..., we friends and , ..., ..., we neighbour
8. e:r { elementars er elementars }
9. also er it er elementars , ..., ..., its e:r gets we to: to .., many of .., many of [flu:rz]
10. article , ..., ..., used to childrens (6 sec) e:r it find e:r on it er many off e:r games , ..., ..., for sleep , ..., ..., er his noisy
11. many of articles..., ..., er knife and er (7 sec) and , ..., ..., ss some others e:r used in .., cooking room (5 sec) for e:r cut the food
12. e:r short road e:r , ..., ..., e:r e:r , ..., used to: to walk the: er ep people er .., to: cut the road ..., widely
13. articles , ..., ..., er used to: , ..., ..., light the: rooms , ..., ..., it find in the: (6 sec) above the room
14. e:r ss it call it e:r, ..., {spethertrom }

15. e:r ,,,,,,....., e:r it ca:ll er ,,,,,, er we call it ,,,,,, temperature,,,,,, er club ((unintel 2 sec))

LS10

1. the {frægər} of coca cola
2. e:r about the clean of the kitchen. the ma , no they *adawat adwat* (tr: tools, tools) ((laugh)) (15 sec) *muidat* (tr: instruments) (10 sec) *yala* (tr: OK) {instruint } about the kitchen.
3. e:r er ,,,,,,....., the: (5 sec) *shu maana ah* (tr: what does it mean?) they rea we read about the: bi the baby e:m and where? where find it.
4. they clean of the earth
5. also they clean of the earth
6. the:y em ...,get of,...., come of ? come of the fire. *matfaat hariq* (tr: extinguisher)
7. e:r the: telephone of the street in the street.
8. we the: up or down in the building
9. also the: up and down in the building in the electricity in the electricity
10. and the e:m the: [reid] the ride of the: em baby in the earth or em any any place
11. {instreit} about the kitchen [nif] or e:m . I don't know.
12. *mush arfeh shu maanaha* (tr: I don't know what it means)
13. about {instreit} ab er of electricity in the: home
14. *ma irefnahash* (tr: we didn't know it) the clock of the street e:r we e:r ,,,,,,....., a:re e:r the clock of the street e:r ..., {instreit} abou:t ...,the last last ((unintel word)) *sah?*(tr: right?)
15. e:r {tram trambator , trambator? trambator} ((laugh)) *kainha meqyas harareh* (tr: as if it were a thermometer)

Intermediate Level Students

IS1

1. er some kind of er (6 sec) place to put e:r er a juice or ((laugh))
2. er some e:r something using in e:r {borsh} or cleaning clothes or er ..., anything
3. e:r small e:m (6 sec) putting a child in it and drive e:r in the road
4. vacuum cleaner
5. e:r, ..., used by hand to er clean earth
6. e:r ((laugh)) use it for fire to (12 sec) to: fire to: (10 sec) when you get fire at home, you use it to finish this fire or get it ((unintel 2 sec))
7. public phone
8. e:m some kind off er (12 sec) something transfer from place to place in the er er building
9. movement move {grads} ,,,,,, *daraj* (tr: stairs)
10. er (7 sec) some small ,,,, car putting the baby in it to: and in the first[w :lking]
11. e:r (10 sec)knife and e:r knife
12. pedestrian crossings
13. em some kind of the [læmb] has beautiful e:r e:r ,,,,,, sight and colour,
14. a watch for speed,,,,, em watch or e:r in the car? yes.
15. er temperature e:r ..., [meidʒər?] for er the: er ,,,,,, that what temperature of the body or the er weather.

IS2

1. er this is picture about the: (10 sec) *shu ma'na thalajeh?* (tr: what is the meaning of fridge) (10 sec) coca cola *barafsh shu mana thalajeh* (tr: I don't know the meaning of fridge)
2. er (6 sec) it's a group of glasses e:r use to: clean
3. e:m this is picture about er a carriage for baby
4. em (13 sec) this picture about..., em (5 sec) something e:r to: er clean er ,,,,,, by using er electricity
5. er broom

6. er it's a glass e:r em ,,,,,,, to: em em ,,,,,,, use in order to: er em (7 sec)
in the fire
7. e:r public phone
8. er lift
9. em *shu mana daraj ? Shu mana daraj? Mush Arfa Mana draj* (tr: what's
the meaning of stairs? What's the meaning of stairs? I don't know the
meaning of stairs.) ((laugh))I don't know
10. e:r carriage? *Arabayah heya?* (tr: is this a carriage?) ,,,,,,, a small
carriage for e:m a baby
11. a group of knife and er fork and em ,,,,,,, knife and fork ...we use
in,,,,, e:m in the food,
12. e:r em I don't know the meaning
13. this is e:r picture about er a big of lamps ,,,,,,, I don't know the name
of it. It's a lamp
14. er this is picture e:r which it use in the cars er er to: recogni(ze) organize the
[sped] of the car
15. it's a thermometer

IS3

1. a [mɔt i:n] er..., which er which has er pe(psi) pepsi pepsi cans and er er we
get the we get can pepsi er by putting em money on a certain place in a
certain place and it er give us er pepsi
2. er (6 sec) something which is used to clean e:r,,,,, clothes
3. e:r ,,,,,,, chil(dren) something which e:r which we put children on er
,,,,,to: to move them from one place to another.
4. a machine for ercleaninga house
5. e:r (9 sec) also it's er it's something to clean a house it is used by hand
6. e:r (5 sec) em this is er em (13 sec) er it is the [matʃi:n] which is used to
stop fire
7. it's *shu manaha?* (tr: what does it mean?) telephone on street
8. a lift

9. e:r something which e:r which e:r we use to: move from one place to another
10. e:r it is also er (5 sec) [ven]which is used for children,
11. e:m e:r (5 sec) something used to eat like forks and knives and spoons
12. em ,,,,,,, er (11 sec) a place which is used to show marks to cut in the street
13. em it is e:r lights which we put in our house
14. e:m this is e:r ,,,,,,, something which tells us e:r,,,,,, how kilometer we cut in ,,,,,,a car
15. er this is a machine which is used to,,,,, to know the temperature

IS4

1. e:m ,,,,,,, machine give coca cola
2. em..., ariel? ariel ariel.
3. ((laugh)) er (7 sec) *shu mana arabeh* for the child *yani shu badi ahki?* (tr: I mean, what can I say?)...,em (5 sec) ((sigh)) *arabet atfal bas shu badi ahkiha bilingilizi.* (tr: baby pram, but I don't know what to say in English) ((laugh)) bicycle for no, bike? *la* (tr: no) ((laugh)) for child for baby, I don't know.
4. electricity machine
5. e:m (8 sec) *Kilmeh sabeh shu esmuh?* (tr: it's a difficult word. What is it called?) I don't know
6. *hai tafayeh bilarabi hai lal fire mnestamilha sah?* (tr: correct?) ((She was asked to use English)) (5 sec) *fire allah aalam ma baraf shu* (tr: God knows. I don't know)
7. er telephone
8. *ascenseur* (tr: lift) ((The author asked: In English?)) *Mush hia ascenseur?* (tr: Isn't it a lift?)
9. e:r (7 sec) this is fo:r ,,,,,,, reach ,,,,,,the peo:ple ,,,,,,, electricity ,,,,,,, they do not know they do not need to walk, they do not need to walk
10. em ,,,,,,, car for the baby

11. knife ,..., spoon, knife, spoon
12. e:m ,,,,,, ,,,, , fo:r the peo:ple walk ing [wɔ:king]
13. it's light and ,,,,e:m,
14. e:r (5 sec) this machine used ,,,,,, , er to kno:w fast ,,,,,, , of the car,
15. er (5 sec) this machine use to:: ,,,, , *giyas al hararah* (tr: measure temperature) em this machine

IS5

1. er ..., a place from we can get coca cola
2. substances ,,,, , or by which we can ,,,, , clean
3. cradle, cradle
4. sweeping ,,,,,, , machine, sweeping machine
5. sweeper
6. oxygen cylinder
7. e:r general phone
8. e:r (4 sec) *shu?* (tr: what?) (5 sec) something that we ca:n ..., or something by which we can er go up stair and down stair
9. em ,,,,,, , electrical er *naseet mana daraj* (tr: I forgot the meaning of "stairs")
10. em (5 sec) the thing by which ,,,, , children ge(t) can ca:n walk.
11. materials for for kitchen
12. em ,,,,,, ,,,, , signs which are put under or in the street ,,,,,, , it has ..., yellow colour
13. a device for ,,,, , lightening
14. em ,,,,,, ,,,, , a recorder ,,,,,, , for cars
15. thermometer

IS6

1. in the first picture we have e:r a machine for coca cola
2. here we find e:r e:m (12 sec) I don't know aerial ((laugh))

3. just an baby sitter (9 laugh)) and here you have a chair with four whe(eel) wheel e:r er er ,,,,,,, it used for e:r, ..., a children ,,,,,,, and we put a children in it
4. er vacuum cleaner
5. e:r em (15 sec) *mush Arfeh* , *mush arfeh*, *Alsora al badeyha* (tr: I don't know, I don't know what to say about it, the next picture)
6. this is {ekstenture}
7. e:r ,,,, public phone
8. e:m e:r (18 sec) *ascenseur* (tr: lift) e:r (5 sec) a box like er (7 sec) em e:r ,,,,,, If we don't like to er (10 sec) I don't know
9. electric stairs
10. and here we have (6 sec) like a chair for er a baby...
11. e:r ,,,,,,, spoons, have spoons, knife, knives *eish hai?*(tr: what is this?)
12. zebra crossings
13. lamps
14. and we here we have ,,,,something we use it in the car ,,,,,,, for counts em...
15. er here we have thermometer.

IS7

1. e:r a fresh e:r fresh drinks machine
2. e::r cleaners or chemical cleaners used for e:r chemical cleaners used for cleaning e:r anything
3. e:r a baby coach
4. er electrical electric ,,,,,,, electric machine used for e:r clean the floor or the carpets
5. e:r usual e:r usual (6 sec) a tools tool used e:r for cleaning the floor, too, but it's not electrical
6. e:r e::r (15 sec) ((unintel words) e:r ((cough)) ,,,,,,, something e:r like a can a big can used for e:r {masha} er used for ,,,,,,, *yutafi* (tr: put

- out),,,,,,, for the fire used for ((unintel words)) I think putting out putting out fire
7. er a telephone cabin
 8. e:r ((sigh)) *masaad* (tr: lift) (unintel word) (5 sec) a machine e:r we ca(n) we can find it in e:r big buildings e:r and it used to go up and down for e:r to stop in every e:r floor ,,,,,,, and it e:r works on e:r it work in electric
 9. e::r electric ,,,,,,, floor? *daraj shu bisamouh?* (tr: stairs, what are they called?) e:r stairs? electric stairs used in er big market or big building.
 10. a baby coach e:r used just in hou(se) e:r in the house e:r for intertaining e:r the baby
 11. e:r knives and sr a knives and e:r spoo(ns) spoons e:r used e:r and e:r (6 sec) er what (5 sec) *hai nasi Isimha* (tr: I forgot it) used e:r a knives and e:r spoons e:r ,,,,,,, used for food
 12. e:r (7 sec) a pacing er pacing e:r e:r lines for e:r ,,,,,,, used for e:r ((cough)) (7 sec) white lines in the street in e:r in horizontal e:r er se(tting) e:r setting or vertical or horizontal *bilardh* (tr: horizontal) e:r used for e:r er pacing the people of through the street
 13. ((cough)) ((sigh)) e:r something ,,,,,, a big one we put it in palace or big house and we use it fo(r) e:r as a scene e:r and e:r er may e:r made from e:r a crystals and we got inside it a lamp *aw* or er many of lamps to: make it light or bright
 14. a speed e:r er *adad* (tr: metre) er something e:r e:r ,,,,,, is place in the tableau in the tableau in the car and e:r e:r this thing is indicate for the ss er ss the car the speed of the car
 15. e:r *Mush arefha min marah* (tr: I don't know) (12 sec) e:r something used e:r to: to express the,,,,,, the heat e:r of the weather or we can use it e:r with patient

IS8

1. first picture is er a machine you can e:r buy it coca cola or other soft drink
2. washi(ng) washing liquids
3. e:r er baby caravan or like this

4. vacuum cleaner
5. e:r (20 sec) also a tool you can wash the floor with it
6. em also a fire (8 sec) a machine fireman use it to: (long pause)
7. e:r an ca phone cabin
8. elevator
9. er e:r ((unintel 4 sec)) really I don't know
10. baby e:r (8 sec) you put er the baby in it and he will be same ((unintel word))
11. home tools like knives (6 sec) knives (6 sec) I don't know the others
12. e:r a white e:r signs they draw draw them on the: the street, the: the bo(y) we can throw the: road safely e:r when we a cross ,,,,,,, on them
13. lights
14. e:r speed hour which in the car
15. temperature (12 sec) can know the the: any heat by it.

IS9

1. fridge
2. e:m ,,,,,,e:m ,,,,,, it's em a material which er,..., which we we use it to clean the house
3. e:r em (5 sec) er em ,,,,,, er may be its er an instrument er used used to: put the baby in it and ,,,,,, just that's all
4. e:r it's a cleaner machine
5. e:m ,,,,,,ec er a cleaner hand machine
6. e:m we use it to: to put out e:r,..., the fire
7. it's cabin a telephone [kæbi:n]
8. e:r ,,,,,, it's escalator,,,,,, yeah that is the escalator er ,,,,,, it is small e:r er electricity er or small electric em room use it in this high buildings to,..., em to: ,,,,,, move in th in this building easily
9. and this escalator
10. e:m er ,,,,,, use er this is we use it to make the baby walking in the in the house easily
11. e:r ,,,,,, this is an instrument er we use it in the kitchen e:r spoon and er knife ,,,,,, to eat and to cut the: the food
12. em ,,,,,, it means a permission to walk in the street, to cut the street
13. em er ,,,,,, we put it in the er er ,,,,,, in the houses,,,,,die down from the ceiling to make a good and nice temperature er furniture
14. er em ,,,,,,ec this e:r (5 sec) e:m using to: to to count the er er the fa:st of the the car....

15. e:r it's er the temperature (6 sec) use temperature measure using for measuring temperature

IS10

1. e:r [refrid eitor] for selling e:r coca cola
2. em ((unintel 2 sec)) (10 sec) a material for washing e:r ..., e:r ((sigh)) dishes
3. for little boys (11 sec) *shu ahki anha* (tr: what can I say?) ,,,,,, it used for carrying the baby carrying the baby from place to place
4. e:r ,,,,,, a machine for er cleaning the house, the ground of the house
5. er (20 sec) *mush arfeh* (tr: I don't know) (10 sec) it used for cleaning the: dirty ground
6. er ,,,,,, *shu mana yuqli* (tr: what is the meaning of take off?) (7 sec) take off? *tustakhdam?* (tr: collide, hit) ,,,,,, (6 sec) machine used for er *shu mana Tafayeh?* (tr: what is the meaning of extinguisher?) fire
7. e:r a public e:r ,,,,,, telephone
8. e:m *Masad* (tr: lift) (12 sec) *mush arfeh hai,* (tr: I don't know this)....., *ascanseur* (tr: lift) for carrying people from place to place from under to up and from up to down *mush arfeh* (tr: I don't know)
9. em *mush arfeh* (tr: I don't know)
10. em ,,,,,, it's ,,,,,, a thing for carrying ,,,,,, a small child that's all
11. er ((sigh)) ,,,,,, *shu badi ahki anha hai?* (tr: what can I say about it?) (16 sec) [ni:f] and spoo:n which we found in the chicke(n) in the chicken yeah
12. the place where e:m ,,,,,, people walk on
13. e:r (10 sec) a beautiful lamp
14. e:m (7 sec) it's found in the car or a bus ,,,,,, to: give us acceleration? acceleration *al suraah?* (tr: speed) distance.
15. e:m (20 sec) *shu gias al hararah?* (tr: what's the meaning of measuring the speed?) I don't know

Advanced Level Students

AS1

1. em er a machine from we can buy e:r ,,,,,, drink er coca cola
2. cleaning stuffs or ,,,,,, materials ,,,,,, cleaning materials
3. something to carry a baby in it I can not remember the exact word for that
4. em vacuum cleaner
5. a broom
6. e:r a thing a machine to: to used to: stop fires
7. er public phone, ..., used in streets
8. er elevator
9. er em ,,,,,, electric stairs
10. something to: put er small babies or er kids who can't walk or to a ba(by) who want to learn walk, baby walker?
11. er ..., spoons e:r knives and forks
12. zebra crossings
13. er crystal lights
14. I can't remember e:r em ok a machine to: measure the high of cars and er em, ,,,,,, vehicles etc
15. er em {therbobetre} no. it is not. thermometer?

AS2

1. refrigerator for coca cola and pepsi
2. e:r cleaning liquids
3. er baby pram
4. e:rr vacuum cleaner
5. usual cleaning brush
6. e:r ,,,,,, e:r ,,,,,, fi(re) fire liquids or fire ,,,,,, pump((laugh))
7. e:r public phone er public er ,,,,,, public e:m (5 sec) public phone
8. em elevator entrance, elevator
9. electrical steps or ladder
10. e:r may be ,,,,,, baby car? ((laugh)) e:m baby e:r baby walker, may be

11. kitchen knives, kitchen equipments
12. e:m white steps for er for the walkers e:m em (10 sec) I don't know((laugh)).
13. er electrical lamps or e:r (6 sec) or er electrical lamps I guess
14. speedometer
15. e:r,..., thermometer

AS3

1. ((sigh)) e:m coca cola er and other drinks er machine where you have cola for money *yani* (tr: I mean) you get what you want
2. we have here detergents
3. er baby's er carriage
4. er ,,,,,,....., em machine used for cleaning er carpet
5. broom
6. fire distinguisher, fire distinguisher
7. public phone
8. a lift
9. er (5 sec) another kind of lift *bas* (tr: but) we have stairs moving electronic er elec ,,,,,,....., *al* (tr: of) electricity
10. er ,,,,,,....., em baby's carriage of another kind
11. kitchen supplies we have spoons and knives
12. zebra crossings
13. we have chandelier, chandelier
14. er (11 sec) er ..., it's er cough ,,,,,,....., something in the car where you er where we can ...,er fi find out how fast the car is...travelling
15. thermometer

AS4

- 1.e:r a stand or fridge for soft drinks
2. different kinds of detergents

3. a baby pram
4. vacuum cleaner
5. a manual's sweeper
6. er fire extinguisher
7. a pub(lic) a public telephone
8. an elevator
9. er escalator
10. a baby walker?
11. er..., kitchen tools knives er ,,,,,, er forks and spoons
12. pedestrian lines
13. e:r ,,,,,, these things are to decorate the ceiling er and the roof of the house er ,,,,,, it functions also it can give light to to the whole room
14. *Adad sayareh* (tr: speedometer) (11 sec) *Niseetoh* (tr: I forgot it) er this one er registers er the speed of the car
15. Thermometer

AS5

1. er this is a machine to get e:m (6 sec) soft drinks? yeah, soft drinks.
2. em(sigh) er I don't know. e:r em a group of chemical things we can use to clean houses
3. baby pram
4. an electric machine can be used for e:r cleaning the carpet.
5. broom
6. e:r ,,,,,, {anguisher?} we can say? {anguisher?} can we say? of e:m a machine it can be used to: pause fire
7. a [kæpi:n] can be used to put a telephone and to use
8. elevator
9. e:r an electric ladder
10. e:r ((sigh)) we can say, a mobile chair for children
11. e:r a group of knives and ,,,,,, forks and em (laugh) spoons
12. zebra crossing
13. a group of electrical things can be used for lightening house

3. baby carriage or baby er, baby small ss er seat e:r what do we call them? what's their name? I can't remember.
4. vacuum cleaner
5. broom
6. e:m fire e:r fighter? fire estin {alwararoad } I forgot.
7. a telephone booth
8. em elevator
9. e:m electronic steps or something? automatic steps, automatic ladder.
10. i have no idea. the it's e:m baby seat or baby carriage or e:m something that baby can walk in.
11. er e:m spoons, em spoons, knives, forks
12. em walk er es walking e:r wa:lking, for walking, fo:r for people to walk on *yani* (tr: I mean) for people to pass signs for people to pass
13. chandeliers
14. er e:r what do we call it? for time fo:r em ((sigh)) to kno:w the speed of the car, counter speed counter speed something.
15. e:r the temperature which is *shu bisamouha?* (tr: what's it called?), thermometer?

AS8

1. a machine e:r for buying pepsi
2. e:m, cleaning e:r I don't know cleaning elements ((laugh))
3. e:m ss baby carriage may be
4. vaccum machine
5. brush, brush
6. e:r fi(re) fire extinguish? extinguisher.
7. er telephone booth
8. elevator
9. em *nesetha mush aref filan enmahat bilmarrah* (tr: I forgot. I don't know. it is completely erased from my mind)
10. em baby walker
11. spoons knives and forks

12. pedestrian crossings
13. beautiful crystal lights put in the ceiling and used as lights
14. speedometer
15. thermometer

AS9

1. er a freezer, a fridge
2. cans of e:r cleaning machine er cleaning ,..., e:r liquids
3. er a carriage of a small boy.
4. vacuum cleaner
5. e:r manual carpet cleaner
6. e:m , ..., ...,e:m fire of e:r ,..., e:r tools
7. e:r public telephone
8. em , ..., ..., ..., *ma barafha* (tr: I don't know), ..., *masaad* (tr: lift) yeah e:r a machine that people ca:n e:r leave or reach upper er stairs by it.
9. *daraj kahrabai, aw* (tr: escalator, or) machine that people ca:n er er travel from one side to another by it from one stairs to other
10. a machine for babies ,..., something for babies.
11. e:r er kitchen too:ls like spoons, forks and knives, we ca:n use for eating
12. zebra crossings
13. lamps or e:r lamps that are stretched to: the roof
14. er ((sigh)) *adad* (tr: meter) e:r machine that er we know by it how many kilometer did we: travel ,..., ..., e:r hi how kilometers did we f travel or there are many numbers in it, and e:r something to: indicate what the speed is.
15. temperature e:r instrument or temperature tool.

AS10

1. em er ,,,,,,, , fridge(rator) fridge(rator) [frigerator] for er selling coca cola
2. er cleaning em ..., material
3. baby pram
4. vacuum cleaner
5. er ,,,,,,, , er ,,,,,,, , manual cleaner? em (5 sec) manual cleaner
6. fire extinguisher
7. public telephone
8. *ascenseur bilengilizi?* (tr: is it lift in English),,,,,,, , er (6 sec) I don't know in English..., em..., electric er electric em electric holder ((laugh))
9. e:r ,,,,,,, , I don't know. electric e:r (13 sec) electric ,,,,,,, , ladder? electric ladder? electric steps? step?
10. child er ..., child chair or child chair help hem to walk
11. knives and er ,,,,,,, , collection of knives, something like this
12. er ...,cross road em ,,,,,,, , zebra cro(ss) zebra cross?
13. lamps put in the ceiling to make the hall look very beautiful
14. speedometer to measure speed in the car
15. thermometer

Appendix X

Story - Telling Task Tapescript Transcription

Low Level Students

LS1

yesterday e:r se e:r that ca driver er driver er drive a car and e:r in the road and the baby er er a sma(11) baby drive em a bicycle in the road er when the: driver er are when the driver are speed very quickly e:m he: e:r e:r attacked er or he: making accidentally with the er the bicycles and the: girls er and the boys em be becau:se they becau:se he is er ,,,,,, very ,,,,,, er quicker ,,,,,, in spee(d) er very speed em in driving after that em ,,,,,, the baby (6 sec) ((cough)) the bicycle was er,,,,, the bicycle was er e:r crushed e:r and when er er as a result of er the er speed quickly of the driver the ,,,,,, car was er ,,,,,, not er not er continue .., to: ,,,, drive and er the stude(nt) the boy ,,,,,, er will continue to: er ,,,,,, to: make er good or to er check er this er a bicycle after that er the er uh er ,,,,,, driver em ,,,,,, have ,,,,,, to er ,,,,,, check er you:r er car and the car doesn't er ,,,,,, make and the e:r boy when *baed* (tr: after that)er after er er ma(ke) er ,,,,,, check er your er bicycle, the bicycle was wa:s er ,,,,,, marched.

LS2

yesterday e:r er ,,,,,, you fi:nd in e:r er a road a driver with he is taxi and er a boy with he is bicycle ,,,,,,these a driver e:r will be accent er for e:r a boy ,,,,,, then these boy er er ,,,,,, may accent the the in a bank of the road but the taxi er driver with he is taxi will be continuous his road ,,,,,, after the accent the boy will e:r (8 sec) er the boy will (7 sec) after the taxi will be: helt and then he make fix his bicycle then he continuous he is road in the road he is find er a driver with he: is he is taxi that his er er [stɒpɪd] in a road ,,,,,, then ,,,,,, then these driver can not fix his car then the er and the boy ,,,,,,will be continuous er ,,,,,, he is road .., after the: driver and he: is

looking to him ,..., er and er calling with he is bicycle {*pum, pum*} ((a sound used in colloquial Arabic to refer to the sound of the “horn”))

LS3

yesterday there a chi(ldren) children who drive his bicycle,..., em and then behind him there is a car, e:r it is very er quickly, and er ,..., when the car is er ,,,,,, hit the boy and he camed the boy became in the er between the [greis] er without the: er driver careful with him, (5 sec) then we found the er chi(ld) the child, ,,,,,, is not er..., sick or e:r wou wound ,,,,,, so then the is e:r drive his bicycle and when he is er like this like thas that he found he found this the man who dr(ive) who hit them er find him his car is er is, ,,,,,, it's unmove e:r the child is e:r, ,,,,,, walk fr(om) behind and he did not care ful er about er (5 sec) not careful about him and then he: *zammār, shu mana zamar?*(tr: blew the horn, what is the meaning of blew the horn?), the child go and without careful with the er the driver.

LS4

yesterday er there is er a boy who e:r e:r who ride er a bicycle,...,er and e:r behind him there er there is a driver er who er drive a car. (8 sec) then the driver er ,,,,,, exceed the er e:m the: er boy and er (7 sec) em hit er the boy ,,,,,, e:r ,,,,,, this thing e::r ((sigh)) (29 sec) the driver hit the boy, and e:r the boy e:r e:r [ful] to: the: e:r *wadi?* (tr: valley) ,,,,,, e:r and the: driver er ,,,,,, em don't e:r interest of the er boy or the my bike, bicycle. ,,,,,, after that er the boy e:r em (5 sec) fixed e:r ((sigh)) the bicycle ,,,,,, and e:r ,,,,,, ride it in the: (6 sec) in the street e:r ,,,,,, there er there is the driver e:r (6 sec) there is the driver e:r fixed my car because e:r ,,,,,,e:r it er damaged er er..., so he er ..., don't interest er in the driver and e:r he felt of ((sigh)) [hæbi] ,,,,,, becau:se in the first the e:r the driver er er don't interest er of you.

LS5

e:r yesterday e:m ..., the guy? *ghalat?* (tr: wrong) drive er ,,,,,, er drive the [baisklet] and er in the street in the long street and e:r ,,,,,, the car is e:r (5 sec) come faster,,,,, I don't know and (5 sec) e:r ,,,,,, the [baisklet] is broke his..., [baisklet] is broke ..., but he is e:r (13 sec) he's can er but he's ,,,, can er do something e:r good about this [baisklet] e:r ,,,, and he's go er again in the street e:r he's [l^k] or see he's see the someone is er ,,,,,, in the car e:r the car is em ..., have some ,,,,,, ((unintel)), ok? e:r but em he is not e:r e:r ,,,,,, important about the e:r (8 sec) the ma:n ,,,,,, the student? oh, , no ,,,, the person and he's go e:r he's happy but e:r e:r the man the big man is very angry because er because the guy is not important for er him((laugh))

LS6

yesterday e:r the man e:r driver the car e:r ,,,,,, and he pushed e:r ,,,, ,,,,the boy a:nd ,,,,,, the boy fell up in the: er land, e:r the man go and don't [helpid] the bo:y and e:r the the boy finished e:r the boy e:r wake up and e:r he: he go ,,,,,, and e:r during this time,,,,, the man e:r ,,,,,, the man car did not e:r, ,,,, ,,,,start and er the boy go er to the, the boy go and he hap(py) e:r happy.

LS7

yesterday e:r there is a [t ildren] who e:r [bleiiŋ] with his bicycle e:r e:r and in the st in the street e:r but when he [bleiiŋ] e::r a car ,,,,,, [bɒtʃ] him and e::r er break his bicycle ((sigh)) e:r also the: the drivers let him ,,,,,, in the earth and go on. e:r e:r the children the child e:r try to: rebuild his bicycle and he rebuilt it. e:r also he e:r e:r he {ki:bðun} [bleiiŋ] on the street,,,,, but he see but he: saw er er e:r the owner of the ca:r which er e:r he ha:s er sh error in his ca:r e:r he look at him and he know him that he that this person er er which e:r tr(y) which [bɒtʃ] him and e:r ,,,,,, make the accident to him to the child he look at him and he: wouldn't he he: wouldn't help him and e:r becau:se this man

er make the er the make the ro er make the accident to the to the child and he let him and go and go: on.

LS8

yesterday e:r some where ,..., where a car er a man dri:ve a car and the boy er drive a *bask* ((the first syllable of the word bicycle but in Arabic)) a bicycle ,,,,,,.,.,., em these ca:n e:r fast in the road. the man er kicked kicked the boy er e:r the in inside the: the road and er {escaving} the man and {escaving} the man and {escaving} into the road going to: ,,,,,,.,.,., another place .the bo:y try to: fix the bicycle and he did he sex he [seksi:d]. e:r the man try e:r to: hurry ,,,,,,.,.,., and faller in the car, he tried to: fix the car but he did not fix the car. the boy continuous e:r in the [d θurni] and the end of story.

LS9

yesterday was a dri:ve ..,a driver is edriving er a car ,,,,,,.,.,., in one of a road ,,,,,,.,.,., er: that out of the ,,,,,,.,.,., of the city or the college or the village ,,,,,,.,.,., e:r er that the drivy the driver was ,,,,,,.,.,., er put high er a high speed when he e:r is near of the bo:y the: boy was driving a bicycle when he er is near of the boy er: make ..,with he: with him, ..,traffic accident e:r the drivy the driver don't e:r stop ..., and er (5 sec) sta:y em stey the high speed ...,then the boy ,,,,,,.,.,., is sta::nding is stand up er and then dr. e:r ride er the bicycle and dri:vi:ng on a way, then er wa:s the boy (5 sec) er then the boy ,,,,,,.,.,., er driving the bicycle ,,,,,,.,.,., and er go away .., go on suddenly he find ,,,,,,.,.,., e:r the dri:ving e:r ,,,,,,.,.,.,., er is er stop,,,,,.,.,.,, because the car is er er because the car it e:r it don't e:r drive ,,,,,,.,.,.,, drives becau:se he it ,,,,,,.,.,.,., the boy when he: see say ,,,,,,.,.,.,, when he saw the e:r e:r the driver e:r in his situation er he wa:s fine and er ,,,,,,.,.,.,, nice and ,,,,,,.,.,.,,er he ek wa:s hit of the bell because the driver don't stop and er get he to the hospital.

LS10

yesterday we are e:r ((sigh)) (5 sec) *yani mesri shwayeh* (tr : I mean he is driving at a high speed) we are founded the:: cars e:r may be the:: the ride of the: ca:rs is ,,,,,,, e:r em eagle or sa:d. we are founded the:: er the:: the bo(y) the boy we are ride the bicycle e:m ...,e:m ...,em suddenly we are (6 sec) *shu maana sadam* (tr : what is the meaning of knock or hit) ((laugh)) the car e:r the car about the bicycle er ,,,,,,, ((laugh)) ,,,,,,, picture number two e:m ,,,,,,, the: car e:r ..., wek quickly about the street *ow...*, didn't [nau] ,,,,,,, ((sigh)) [^ndərsted] about the bo:y how to: how to the e:r how to the help the boy. e:r the man the man of the ride of car we a:re e:r quickly about the street ..., *ow* (tr: or) ..., the but the but the bay but the bo:y he: e:r he: not er he didn't found the:: em the:: [helb] me [helb] me you ((sigh)) (6 sec) but e:r the baby is e:r [helb] you [helb] me and we do about the bicycle e:r ..., and er and weak about the street. *Ow* (tr : and) suddenly we are founded the: man e:r the the ma we are founded the: man e:r but the man is very very sa:d because they didn't do how do they make about the: car. the car is very , ..., er is very ,,,,,,damage about it er because e:r may be in the street may be the: *tajawaza al suraah?* (tr : he exceeded the speed limit) ((laugh)) (8 sec) ed ed suddenly if the baby the boy is e:r weak about the street *ow* (tr: or) but the man is very sad because didn't help me e:r ,,,,,,, advice? ,,,,,,, advice?about the advice we: we: should about the any man we should any ma:n you help me you help the boy because the bo:y ,,,,,,, is very ,,,,,,, may be *inuh* (tr : he is) e:r the any day you help me you help the boy.

Intermediate Level Students

IS1

yesterday there is a car and a bicycle e:r in the road the man in the car e:r was nervous and er er, ..., ride in the car very quick, er in the car push the: er bo:y near the er st street and er get him er away road and contain his he and contain he his he his road without care with the boy or what happen with with him, e:r

the boy er get up and e:r, ..., start to er make his bike and er..., bore er in the road, e:r in the road he the boy see man with his car his car was em er stop he: start to er e:r , ..., e:m mechanic some something in it, the boy pass the man and laugh er er and er give him er a smile as he e:r e:r say I am [hæbi] to: that er which is happen to you.

IS2

yesterday e:r in that days er e:m there is e:r a boy who was riding a bicycle his bicycle was behind him a car e:r er the: driver er who was very angry and e:r pushed the boys er er to the side of the street e:r e:r, ..., and the driver was very er em ,, he drives very [sped] er em..., after that when the boys e:r er repaired his bicycle er e:r e:r (8 sec) he start to ride his bicycle and er he passed from the er er the man drive and thats man e:r his car e:r (7 sec) was stopped er but he was angry, this moment the boy was very e:r very [hæbi]because that man((laugh)) his car e:r ((unintel word))

IS3

e:r ((sigh))there is er child ,, once upon a time er there is a child er ...,who ri(de) er who rides a bicycle and e:r there is a car e:m (5 sec) behind him e:r then the the car be(came) became ,,close to him, and e:r ...,it em (13 sec) its hit him, ..., and he: fall down, the car er ,, e:m continue (5 sec) of *la* (tr : no) er the driver didn't help him and continue e:r his walking,, em now er the boy er stand stands and tries to to: ((sigh)) to: ride his bicycle again and he [s^ksesd] e:r in his working he em he rides his bicycle and e:r when he: e:r when he wa(lk) when he er ,, driving his bicycle he so er the driver stopped his er car and e:r his car (9 sec) it is it was not work e:m ,, so the boy now is happy becau:se the driver beginning the story didn't help him.

IS4

e:r, ..., yesterday there was a child ride his *bass(kaleit)* (tr: bicycle) ((the subject didn't complete the Arabic word for bicycle)) his bicycle and e:r ,,,,,,, he wa(lk) wa(lk) he ride his bicycle on a street e:m ,,,, after him or beside him there is car a car ,,,,riding ,,,, or dri:ving by an a:ngry man. this man er do not notice the ,,,, child er so he: e:m ,,,,,,, e:r ,,,, so the man ,,,,,,, kick the child and ,,,, e:r I think the child will wa:s I think the child was er ,,,, em injured, and his bicycle was broken, ,,,,,,, e:r ,,,, ((sigh)) but he: ,,,,,,, fix it. fix ,,,, it. the child fix his bicycle. and he ,,,,,,, continue ,,,, his riding ,,,,on the street. while he: er while he, while he e:r the boy riding his bicycle, he ,,,,by the accident he find the man who kicked him, e:m may be the man I I think ,,,,or I notice that the ma:n that the the man ca:r ,,,,,,,I think ((sigh)) the man with er with too(l) ,,,,fix his car ,,,,,,, and er ,,,,this is ca:lled *kama todeen todan in Arabic Barafsh ahkeha bilingilizi* (tr: In Arabic, it is tit for tat. I can't say it in English)

IS5

yesterday ,,,, e:r there was a boy who was riding his bike ,,,,,,, and there was a car ,,,,behind him. the driver try...to to tell to the the boy to be a way from the the road in order to: ,,,,,,, to go on, on walking ,,,,,,, then he: er the boy tried to be a way from the road ,,,, but the boy falled with his bike, ,,,, and the: the driver go on ,,,, driving (5 sec) after that the boy tried to fix his er ,,,,,,, bike and he tried ,,,,,,, to to ride ,,,,the bike in order to carry on er walking ,,,,,,, when he was riding suddenly he saw ,,,,,,, the the last driver and er ,,,, the driver's car e:r ,,,, wa:s er ,,,,,,, out of order ,,,,,,, then the the boy carry on walking or riding and he he was very happy ,,,,,,, but the driver was unhappy

IS6

e:r yesterday e:r, ..., there is there was a little child e:r ,,,,,, er he: er ride he wa(s) he go er or er ((muttering)) on his bicycle and er there is a car come e:r ...,e:r ...,er ...,come and caused er e:r an accident e:r ..., er the accident didn't hurt the little bo:y but ...,er er but his bicycle er become become in er er bad e:r condition e:r and the driver e:r ...,em ,,,e:r comp(lete) e:m ,,,,,, er doesn't er pay attention for this bo:y but the little boy er try to: fix e:r tried to fix er his bicycle, and after he he finish, he: finished he continue, er his way e:r in these er and in his way, e:r way he saw the same man er and er he had a trouble with his car er but the little bo:y e:m ...,continue his er his em way without pay attention to: e:r the driver. just.

IS7

yesterday, there was a car and e:r there was behi(nd) behind it there was ,,,,,, er and behind it there was a boy riding a bicycle, e:r((cough)) er when the car e:r ((unintel word)) ca(r) when the car (12 sec) *Marat bejaneb* (tr: passed by) (10 sec) when the car come beside the er the boy with the bicycle the boy confused was confused and e:r he: flow in e:r and he flow e:r and the car ,,,,,, take it way and did not stop to help the boy. but the boy could get up and fixed his bicycle and er take his way. on the road he saw the man and there was e:r e:r er ruin in his car and he was trying to fixed it er but he did not stop, e:r I mean the boy did not stop to: e:r to help him he because the: driver did not stop to help the boy when he flow on the floor.

IS8

e:r there were child who drive his bicycle a long a road and suddenly ((sigh)) a mad driver appear behind him and start to: ,,,,,, drive his car beside the child and of course the child this e:r er will be confuse in this case, and mad driver want to: er drive his car ...,quickly to: ,,,,,, to: his e:r ,,,,,, for some reasons may be to him and er suddenly he: e:r flate beside the e:r the child and kick him and his [baisk] and e:r throw him away beside the road. the child

started to: e:r fix his bicycle and return to the road and go in his road and for e:r ((cough)) e:r and suddenly also he : faced the same car and the same driver his car were e:m damaged and he can't fixed it and the child laugh((sigh)) loudly also on er on him.

IS9

yesterday e:r that a bai that a child pla er riding his er his bike er in a street when he: er ,,,,,, when e:r a car er is em is er horning er and em d driving fa:st er er ,,,,,, he trying to: to go er er in the side of the: street but he: but the ca:r ,,,,,, crush him and make him falling er ,,,,,, n next to the em falling a side, when after that he trying to er to: get up and preparing his his bike, er er then he con continue his way er we er in er ,,,,,, after a while he find a car er which er which is the same car that he that it crush him crushed him, he ,,,,,, he looked at the man who trying to prepa(re) to: to prepare his car which is now is e:m ,,,,,, is stopped in the street without er walking. Then he: looking at him and laughing.

IS10

yesterday there was a child he er he is he was riding he rode a bicycle in the on the street ,,,,while he rode the bicycle ,,,,,,some ,,,,body e:r [nɒkid],,,, him ,,,, she is he is er he: fall (5 sec) he fall down ,,,,,, in the street ,,,, the owners of the car ,,,, didn't help him, ((sigh) (10 sec) the child e:r ,,,, winded the: bicycle and he: [wɪlkid] on the street ,,,, suddenly he saw..., e:r the owner of the cars ,,,,,, e:r in this time the ca(r) the owner of the car wound wounded he wounded the: his car ,,,,,, so the child was very very [hæbi] for that.

Advanced Level Students

AS1

e:r there was a driver er ,..., and er a boy in his bicycle and they were on the same road. e:r the driver hit the boy and the boy fell in the roa(d) on the side of the road, and then he tried to: ,..., er stand up and er continued and his er ,...,way on his bicycle to find that the driver, his car stopped and er and ..., there was something wrong with it, but he didn't look at him as he did before and e:r didn't take care of him or em he didn't do any thing to help him.

AS2

yesterday there was a child driving on his bike, he was followed by a car, I think the car e:r er was in hurry, he wa(s) he was hit by the car. the driver didn't stop to see what happened to the kid, then he: started to clean up ((unintel word)), he took his bike and continued his road or his way. e:m the ca:r had bro:ken em,..., then he: was happy becau:se the: car was broke and ,...,..., he felt satisfied about that((laugh)).

AS3

yesterday there is e:r a man in driving his car very fast e:r ,..., on the way er there was er along the way there was a boy on bicycle, and because he was too fast he couldn't stop and hit the boy which made him fall er beside the road. he was hurt and er the man didn't even pay any attention. e:r ...,he got on the bike, there was nothing with the bike, he got on the bike and went on on the way he found out that er ,...,..., er the man who had hit him before er now is facing a problem, er his car is not moving and so he got back at him and he was very happy because he didn't ca(re) he didn't care for him when he fell.

AS4

yesterday er there was a little kid playing, cycling on his er bicycle..., er when e:r ,...,..., when a speedy car hit him and put him,..., off the road er the poor er

child stood up and fixed his e:r,..., e:r,..., bicycle, and went on to his way to find that man with his car broken e:r on the road, er at that moment the boy was happy em the man was er very er angry.

AS5

there was a man riding his car and on the same road there was a child riding his bicycle. the driver of the car hadn't taken care of the child and so he hitted him with hi(s) his car. but he didn't take care of him and left him and continued his road. the child mended his bicycle and continued his way and in the middle of the way he found the dri(ver) the same man has some problem in his car but he replied in the same way and he didn't help him help them or help him in any way.

AS6

yesterday , ..., there was a man ,..., driving his car and appear,..., little bo:y riding his bicycle. suddenly the: man hit the boy and the poor boy fell on the ground and this e:r man e:r let the st(udent) the boy aga(in) e:m by himself and run a way. the poor boy stood again and try to: e:r fix his e:r bicycle, and again he ca:n he could e:m make it well and e:r and on his way he saw the man again and this man was stuck in with his car and needed help. but er the boy let e:m the man by himself and e:r the man was furious again.

AS7

yesterday there were little kid, there was a little kid who was driving his bicycle in front of er a car who is going so fast. this car hit him in the back and he was also e:r so so terrified and e:r sad that his bicycle needed er fixing. he stopped and tried to fix it. the man didn't care for him and went forward. e:m after he fixed the bike the little bo:y went on and on and continued e:r his trip e:m let's say he saw the other car e:r stopping at a corner of the roa(d) at the side of the road e:r and the man was trying to fix it. he looked at it and he did the same thing. he ignored the man and he went on and he was so happy that e:r

that man took his e:m ,..., e:m what we call it e:r and have his e:r car er damaged.

AS8

there was a little child. he was riding his bicycle yesterday and he: wa:s very tired. he couldn't even e:r hea(r) hear the noise of the car that was after him. e:r suddenly the car was driving quickly and em and hit him, so he fall he fall and his e:r his bicycle was broken. e:r em fortunately the child the little child e:r didn't hurt so badly. e:r but his his bicycle was em partly damaged. he tried to fix his his bicycle he tries a lot of times and finally he: really get over the problem and he could solve the proplem and could fix his er bicycle. after that after fixing his bicycle he ride his bicycle again and e:r went on his road, and e:r while he was riding his bicycle e:r he s suddenly saw the same car that hit him and fortunately the man er the same car was having also damage e:m ok was having damage and man couldn't fix his his car. e:m as a result the little kid was very happy because the man has e:r really er get his punishment by himself and e:m ,...,he went a way. he went smiling.

AS9

yesterday Zaid was driving his bicycle, e:r on the railway e:r ,..., em on the other country side.e:r there was a driver come with his car e:r ,...,and was behind him. e:r the driver wasn't ,..., wasn't notice that Zaid was riding his bicycle er on the railway and e:r ,..., he didn't just notice him and e:r , .., he zaid turned his bicycle and e:r was dropped on the side of the road. And the the, ma:n continued his way without any any say or sorry, without any notice of Zaid. e:r he continued his way and Zaid ,..., became to: e:r [ri:peir] his e:r bicycle ,..., and Zaid just when he finished that he: continued and gone with his way, and e:r by chance he find the man repairing his car, the er the car was er,..., em,..., destroyed from the sun and from e:r er for some reason the car was e:r destroyed and the man has repaired it and Zaid er em gone with his e:r with his way without e:r and he didn't notice the man. e:r as man wasn't care

about Zaid when he dropped on the rail ,..., side, the Zaid also continued his way without just noticing the man he was very happy while the man was angry and e:m feel e:r ,...,em put down.

AS10

once upon a time there was a ss little kid who was driving his bike, and e:r a very mad driver was driving his car behind him in a in a very high speed, and he was using the horn so that the boy would get out of his way, and the e:m so the little boy was riding his bike in a very high speed so that he can get out of the: ,..., man's way so he went out of his path and broke his bike, the man in the car didn't stop to help the: the little boy, so the little boy fixed his bike e:r and while he was continuing his e:r path e:r he he saw the man fixing his car his own car was damaged and it didn't work, and that little boy didn't even stop to: help the man who was really angry and frustrated.

Appendix XI

Role-play Task Tapescript Transcription

Low Level Students

LS1 Role A

LS2 Role B

A. hello

B. hello

A. I [went] to: change er some er travel che::ques e:r be che:ques where is
where are you er ,,,,,,, exist these banks?

B. you is these bank e:r in, ,,,,,,,er *eish?*(tr: what?)

A. where is the where [dres] where is the ...,whose name

B. er Barcle: Barcla:ys Barcla:ys bank.

er (7 sec) er workers er you can tell me about er workers? [hauərz]

e:r opening hours er in Monday Friday er at [ha:lv] er nine to er [ha:lv]
three

A. aha

B. close on e:r on holiday Saturday

A. aha I [went] to buy e:r some er stamps where a:re you: ...,finding?

B. you can find it in er in High street Post office

A. high street post office?

B. yes.

A. I [went] to er buy e:r a news[peibəʀ] ,,,,,,, where I I er ca:n find it?

B. you can find it er in Rachman's International News Agents

A. repeat, please.

B. Rachman's International News Agents

A. ok, where is the address? er where is the address?

B.the address is one seventy four Bank Street opposite the police ma(n) the
police station

A. aha ok er e:r I am e:r I want to study in British in [Brətain] er e:r but I am
er poor in English where do you: e:r er find er a good schools to: learn e:r er,
..., English skills

B. you are learn er er English skills in International School

A. where I: find it?

B. you find it e:r ..., in er one oh six Dover Streets, in one oh six, Dover Street W1

A. you can tell me about e:r a telephone?

B. er number of telephone e:r,..., forty nine er forty nine er twelve,fifty nine, six

A. ok , thank you. I [went] to: li:ve in e:r in the house, in the housing where I can find er the house?

B. you can find er the house in student hostel

A. er how e:r er ,,,,,,....., how much er did you you want to,,,,,....., *Laa* (tr: no) ,,,,,,....., to housing er in e:r in e:r a week

B. thirty three pound a week

A. er thank you

B. thank you. bye bye.

LS3 Role A

LS4 Role B

A. excuse me er , I have arrived in London for the first time but there are some [prɒplemz] and I want to: our you [helb] me I want to ask you about e:r (11 sec) *kilma mush arefha* (tr: I don't know a word.) traveller's em aha traveller's cheques where er *Shu mana sarf?* (tr: what's the meaning of change) where can e:r ((laugh)) worker (5 sec) change this?

B. you can found this in e:r ek em [Pa:rkleiz] Bank

A. there are er address of e:r ,,,,,,.....,em of it, of Barclays Bank.

B. I don't know

A. or telephone?

B. I don't know

A. er okay. er em I want to ask about:t, I want to: buy some stamps and post card where er I,

B. you can found this in er High Street Post office,

- A. there are address?
- B. no, I don't know.
- A. or e:r, ..., telephone?
- B. no, I don't know
- A. or post hour?
- B. yes. On Monday from nine o'clock to em five o'clock and half and on e:r Tuesday from nine o'clock and five and half and Wednesday, ..., from one o'clock to er one o'clock and Friday from e:r ten o'clock to five and half o'clock.
- A. em okay, and er I want to: buy a newspaper from er your country
- B. yes. you can found that in Rachman's International News News , ..., gents
- A. e:m Rachman's, repeat again,
- B. Rachman's International News Agents
- A. er em e:r , ..., ..., are you know the address ..., office?
- B. in one seventy four *la la* (tr: no, no) in one er seventy four, Bank Street oppo(site) opposite the police station
- A. and e:r I want to find a good English Language [esku:l] er where I can find this?
- B. you can find this in International School.
- A. are you ((sigh)) , ..., the address?
- B. yes, one oh six, Dover Street
- A. and I want to ask you about the [ək meɪ::deɪ n, [əkɒmeɪ::deɪʃn] and er how much it costs?
- B. [kɒmɒndeɪʃn?], ..., Student Host(el) Student Hostel
- A. and e:r how much it cost?
- B. it's from er th thirty three pound a week,
- A. e:r , ..., ..., and er are you know the number telephone?
- B. yes. e:r three hundred, three hundred and twenty five, and e:r six, ..., six thousand and seventy hundred, eight nine
- A. okay, thank you
- B. welcome

LS5 Role A

LS6 Role B

A. hello

B. hello

A. e:m I am er I'm coming to Lon(don) to London now, and I want to ask you some question

B. okay.

A. e:r ,.....,er please I want e:r I want what? I want to: know where the travel's cheques

B. you can go the Braclays [bʌnk] ((the same word is used in Arabic)) er

A. and I e:r I need e:r ,....., know where er the stamps and er post cards

B. you can go e:r em ,.....,[hɪg stret] er [bəʊst] office

A. em please, I would like er to: buy er em a newspaper from your country but I don't know er e:r where e:r

B. you, you can go Rachman's International e:r [nju:zɜ:ɪ, nju:zɜ:ɪnts,] you ,....., you,

A. er and I want to found er found a good English [eskui:l] where I can find a school

B. e:r you find e:r this er International [eskui:l]

A. ok e:r and I want ask you about e:r accommodation er and how much it costs

B. e:r you can go er on student hostel and this is e:r er for thirty three a week come and see us er ((laugh)) thirty three,....., [baʊnd]

A. thank you

LS7 Role A

LS8 Role B

A. hello

B. hello

A. e:r I want to: ask yo:u er some things e:r [fɜ:rest] I want to: change some travels [t i:ks] e:r and I, I but I don't know where I can find it and e:r what time of the bank what time the bank e:r may be: [əʊben] and close.

- B. you can e:r going in [Ba:selez] Bank the time is e:r Monday Friday er between er nine and thirty and three and thirty [kləuzid] all day Saturday.
- A. in addition I want to: ask you about the stamps, where ca(n) where can I find it?
- B. in the [haig] street post office
- A. also I want e:r to: e:r buy some news en news local news [peibər] from my country.
- B. you ca:n going in Rachman's International News [eigenets]
- A. also I want to: also I want to fi::nd e:r, about newspaper what e:r what address what the address?
- B. in one er seven four bank street ,,,,,, [opəsju:t] the police [sitjueiʃn]
- A. also I want to ask you about e:r English language school I want to: learn English language where can I where can I find it?
- B. you can e:r learn English from experts in International School
- A. International School
- B. yes.
- A. e:r as for the English language school, I want the address and telephone number if you have.
- B. you just come to: ((cough))one zero six Dover street W1 ,,,,,, for phone four, nine, one, two, five, nine, six.
- A. also I want to ask you about the accommodation and e:r the accomm(odation) and what it costs and where I can find it?
- B. in student hostel
- A. e:r what the address?
- B. address e:r em [totama] [kəurɪt] road any time day or night telephone three, two, five, six, seven, eight, nine
- A. about er and about the: cost?
- B. About thirty thirty a week er come and see us at two, seven, eight.
- A. thirty thirty a week?
- B. yes.
- A. thank you.
- B. thank you.

LS9 Role A

LS10 Role B

A. hello. ((laugh)) how are you?

B. we are fine.

A. can you help me?

B. yes. of course.

A. okay. I need to change some e:r I need to: change some travels cheques but I don't e:r know where I can find a bank e:r or what time the bank open er and close.

B. the time of the: bank e:r we are e:r found it to: the Barclays Bank. we are fi the time of the bank Monday e:r er er at the thur Frida:y at half past e:r ..., nine at half past nine. we: er close it about e:r close at Saturday, all Saturday ((laugh))

A. ca(n) can you help me: to buy stamps and post cards? can you help me to buy stamps and post cards?

B. post cards? post office?

A. yes.

B. about the time?

A. can you: can you help me to buy stamps and post cards?

B. the time?

A. yes in the where where the place? where the place?

B. High Street Post Office.

A. okay. I would like to buy a newspaper. can you help me e:r e:r to show the place can I buy? I don't know the place of this. if you know the [bleis] to buy. I can buy the newspaper in any place or?

B. ((laugh)) Rachman's International Newspapers

A. address? e:r what the address?

B. about one hundred sixty four in the street about ((laugh)) ban(k) bank street opposite the poli(ce) [poliks, the poliks] [sitjueiʃn satjueiʃn]

A. er ok. I would like to study in a er a goond a good English school. can you [helb] me: to show e:r the school?

- B. the name of a school International School.
- A. what the place? ,.....,
- B. the [bleis] is
- A. or the address e:r of the school?
- B. it's one hundred sixteen, Dover Dover Street.
- A. I would like *aw* (tr: or)I want I want to: ask about accommodation or telephone, can you help me ? accommodation?
- B. accommodation? *aw* (tr: or) telephone? about one fif(ty) forty, one eighty, twenty hundred, fifteen, eighty six.
- A. er ok. can you tell me: about it cost?
- B. cost? cost about what?
- A. about accommodation, how e:r?
- B. how much it cost?
- A. yes.
- B. thirty thirty a [baund] e:r a week.
- A. e:r er in where where the: er ca:n I find the: commodation, accommodation?
- B. e:r at two seven at to: or I'm sorry, e:r at two, seventy eight e:r [Totaham] Court Road any time da:y or night.
- A. e:r thank you and e:r see you in other time
- B. yes, we are e:r about the telephone of the Student Hostel, thirty
- A. *ah* (tra: yes) , very sorry, e:r I would like e:r to tell me about the telephone.
- B. student hostel thirty, twenty five, sixteen [h^ndrend] , seventy, eighty nine.
- A. okay, thank you.
- B. welcome. Yes.

Intermediate Level Students

IS1 Role A

IS2 Role B

A. hello

B. hello

A. how are you?

B. fine, how are you?

A. I am fine, thank you. e:m I have a problem e:r one of them I don't ,...,know where the where I find a bank.

B. you ca:n find the bank e:r in Bank,...., er Barcla:ys er which opened Fri fro(m) from Friday to: from Monday to Friday and closed ,...,Saturday.

A. e:r do you: kno:w where is er ,..., the stamps e:m I want to buy some stamps, do you know the place where is to buy it?

B. you can bring it from High Street Post Office,

A. e:r I want to buy a newspaper do you know the place where to: buy it

B. yes. you can find some e:r newspaper er from er ,...,....., Rachman's International News er News Agents ,...,....., you can fin(d) the: er find in it

A. repeat, please.

B. Rachman's International News Agent , and you can find cigarettes, gifts, sweets in er one seven four Road,

A. ok, I have another problem, e:m I want to: find a good English language school do you know where is the that place?

B. e:r High Street em again

A. e:m I want to: know where is the good English language school, do you know?

B. e:r High Street em International School, er it er do you do you want to learn English from experts?

A. e:r International School, ok, e:r em I have er the em the end question about I want to ask you about the accomon er accommodation and how much it costs.

B. e:r you can find er a cheap room for student in er Student Hostel, er single, double or share from thirty three ,..., a week.

A. thank you

B. thank you

IS3 Role B

IS4 Role A

A. hello

B. hello

A. e:r how are you?

B. I am fine.

A. e:m my name is Jawaher and I I come from Jordan er to study English language in ,..., London but I I er face some [prɒplem] in London,..., could you please help me?

B. e:r you are welcomed here I am Areej I can help you e:r in these problem but er what these problem which is there?

A. er my the first [prɒplem] that I need to change some traveler cheques but I do not know where to find the bank.

B. *ah* (tr: yes), there is a bank e:r which is called em Barclays Bank, you can go to: to this bank.

A. what's the name of the bank, please?

B. Barclays Bank.

A. aha, at what time this bank open?

B. this is bank opens e:r from Monday to Friday er from nine thirty to three thirty

A. and er in er what time it is close?

B. it close *men* (tr: from) three thirty from Monday to Friday but e:r it in Saturday its it is er close er it close, closed all day

A. okay, what about e:r er stamps, I want to buy some stamps and post cards what I can found the post office?

- B. there is High Street Post office, and you can go to it to: get stamps, its opens in er Monday and Tuesday Wednesday Thursday Friday and Saturday, e:r this e:r in Monday e:r it opens er from nine to: , in Monday and Tuesday and Thursday and Friday its em it opens from nine to five thirty and er in in e:m in Wednesday it er open from nine to: to: one o'clock and also in Saturday it opens from nine one o'clock.
- A. *ah* (tr: yes), okay, I have another [prɒplem] e:r I want to: learn e:r in a goo(d) Eng(lish) in good English ,..., language School
- B. uha
- A. where I can, where can I found ..., a good English language school
- B. there is an International School e:r er if you want to learn English you can go this [esku:l] and join this [esku:l]
- A. International school?
- B. yes, e:r e:m it er you can is address is one oh six, Dover Dover Street, e:r W1, for e:r for e:m,.,.,., tuition social programme,.,.,., and accommoda(tion) and [əkmju:deɪʃn, deɪʃn] e:r em you call on this number er four nine one, two, five, nine, six
- A. okay. what about the acco(mmodation) [əkmju:deɪ(ʃn)] [əkmju:deɪʃn] and how much it cost in London?
- B. e:m accommodation? aha, there is students hot(el) e:r hotel e:r this student you can e:r this is e:r special for students and e:r its have a good and cheap rooms for students, e:r there is single room and double and share room and e:r its costs {tabaan} e:m cost e:r sta(rt) started from thirty thirty pound a week,
- A. how much?
- B. thirty three a week.
- A. could you tell me about the: e:r telephone number?
- B. e:r telephone number e:r three, two, five, six ,seven, eight, nine
- A. er I need ,..., e:m ,.,.,.,., I need to buy some st (amps) e:r I need to buy a newspaper from your country where I ,.,.,.,., ca:n find *aw* (tr: or) from where ca(n) from where ca:n I buy a newspaper?

- A. I actually I am e:r from Jordan and I want to buy a news paper e:r ...,which e:m ((sigh))..., from my country
- B. okay, I am very pleased to tell you, you can go to: Rachman International News Agents
- A. e:r where? where?
- B. one hundred seventy four, Bank Street [ɒbɪzi ɒbɪzɪt] the police station
- A. ((sigh)) ,..., and I come here to: er for a holiday and to learn English e:r I want to learn English but I don't fi(nd) find a good English e:r e:r language [eskui:l] e:r and I er I want you tell me where I can find it, *ktheer menu ghalat* (tr: too much is incorrect)
- B. you can find a very er dev(eloping) developing [eskui:l]it is called International [eskui:l].
- A. the name of the school again?
- B. International School.
- A. ok, e:m where I can find this.
- B. the school is this school sits one hundred six, Dover Street,..., W1 for tuition,
- A. also I want to ask about e:r accommodation and how how much it costs.
- B. em (6 sec) you can go to student host(el) hostel ,..., it costs thirty three pounds
- A. just three *eish*? (tr: what?) ((laugh)) thirty three pounds?
- B. yes.
- A. thank you very much
- B. thank you

IS7 Role A

IS8 Role B

- A. hello
- B. hello
- A. e:r I want you to help me
- B. okay.

- A. e:r I have just arrived in London and for the first time and e:r er I ha(ve) I come here er to study or to learn English but there are e:r but London seems er little strange to me and e:r ,....., ((cough)), but I think I will face some problems can you help me?
- B. okay.
- A. okay. e:r I have some traveler's cheques with me but I but I can't the place or the bank, I don't know the place of the bank that can help me e:r for doing this
- B. okay. you can go to Barclays Ba:nk and he will e:r of course help you on that because he is er an international bank
- A. er okay this bank e:r e:r where the sitting of this bank?
- B. er the opening hours er that's from Monday to Friday e:r nine e:r thirty to thir(ty) three thirty and e:r they closed e:r Saturday
- A. just for Saturday?
- B. yeah.
- A. thanks, e:r what about if I need e:r some ((cough)) if I need stamps or a post cards I mean the post office
- B. yeah yeah ok you can go to any post office but e:r there er e:r a [spesðlaizd] er post office er specially on the in this case, you can go to High street post office and he wil [helb] you of course
- A. e:r where di(d) e:r where did this place?
- B. it's in the High Street.
- A. okay. I get that e:r ..., what about the newspapers er that I have tell you that I need my country newspapers
- B. okay you can go to Rachman's International News Agents er and they and they are e:r [spesðlaizd] for the newspapers from all countries and they will e:r er bring you:r e:r newspaper from you origin ,....., country
- A. what's it again?
- B. It's Rachman's International News Agents
- A. er I think I I saw this place yeah this place whe(re) where is it
- B. ok it's in one seventy four bank street e:r opposite e:r the police station.
- A. oh, I get that. oh,

B. any other problems?

A. yeah, yeah, I have something to add, which is about the English language school

B. okay.

A. can you advice me?

B. yeah, you can go to the international school they have e:r ((cough)) an experienced e:r ,,,,,, e:r English es teachers for specially to tho:se who who are foner foreigners e:r an the:y are give a good e:r,,,,, ((cough)) job

A. what er what about the sitting of this place?

B. okay, it's one oh six, Dover Street w1 on er tuitions session ,,,,,, programme and acco(mmodation) accommodation or call four nine one two [faif] nine six

A. oh, thanks e:r er ((cough)) you tell me that this er this language school have accommodation ..., I want to ask about the co acco accommodation

B. ok e:r you can go to: the student hotel and they have e:r a good ,,,,,, e:r and they ha:ve e:r a good er and cheap rooms for students

A. er thank you thank you a lot

B. thank you and welcome in London

A. sorry I e:m I forget that the place and the costs

B. okay. it's e:r start from thirty three pounds a week

A. aha, thirty three , it's will be good for me

B. and er you can found this hotel e:r ,,,,,, at e:r two seven eight, Tottenham Court Road any time or any day or night

A. e:r the this will be e:r in the English school?

B. yeah

A. okay. thank you.

B. okay. welcome.

IS9 Role B

IS10 Role A

A. hello

B. hi

A. how are you?

B. I am fine thank you

A. I'll ask you about some information about e:r about ,,,,,, [tʃi:ks] I want to change some travelels er trave(lers) trave lers ((pronounced as two separate syllables)) [tʃi:ks] but I don't know where to find a bank or wh(at) what time the banks open and close.

B. yes er you can find e:r a bank er em you can find Barlays Bank ,,,,,, Barclays Bank ..., e:r opening hours, do you do you want to know opening hours?

A. yeah

B. okay on Monday to Friday er opening hours from er ni(ne) e:r ..., half [ha:lf] thirty nine until [ha:lf] past thirty

A. thank you. I want e:r I want to ask you about e:r where I can buy some stamps and [bɔ:st] for post cards

B. about the stamps and post cards you can find them in High Street Post Office and if you want to: know where is er the opening hours I'll tell you

A. High Street Post Office, okay, thank you, I would I would like to ask you about er about e:r the place,,,,, where I ca:n where ca:n I er buy a newspaper from my country

B. yes you can [pai] for buy a newspaper e:r from your country in Racthman's International News Agents and you will see different kinds of newspapers for all news[pi:pɔ:z] ((laugh)) papers....

A. e:r I I would like em I would like to ask you about e:r English language [esku:l] where can I find this place or [esku:l] here under we have International [esku:l] it is e:m a [gri:t esku:l] for great school you e:r learn and learn Engl(ish) em learn proper English

A. aha

B. yeah

A. e:r er I want I wou(ld) I would like to ask you about er accommodation and how much it costs

B. yes, there is er a students hos(tel) hostel e:r it is very cheap er and it costs cost thirty three pounds a wee(k) a week come and see it

A. thank you very much

B. thank you

Advanced Level Students

AS1 Role B

AS2 Role A

A. hi, I just arrived to London and I find it somehow strange and I want some help e:r to:: I want some help.

B. ok, I will help you as I can. what can I do: for you?

A. er I need to change some travel cheques e:r and I can't find a a bank where is the bank or how er and I want to know about the hours the bank opens and clo(se) open and close.

B. you can go to Barclays Bank, it's opening hours er from nine thirty to three thirty from Monday to Friday and it closed all Saturday.

A. to three thirty, right?

B. yeah

A. aha e:r I need some stamps and post cards when can I get, where can I get these post cards and stamps?

B. you can get these e:r,...., stamps from High Street Post Office, it opens Monday to Saturday from nine three thirty, except Wednesday from nine to one.

A. what's the name of the post office , please?

B. High Street Post Office

- A. e:r I would like to: buy a newspaper from my country and other stuffs like e:r er chocolates ,,,,,, and e:m sweets ,etc. something like this, from from where can I get these things?
- B. you can get these from the: er Rachman's International News pa(per) News Agents.
- A. pardon?
- B. it's Rachman's International News Agents
- A. ok, e:r where is this place please?
- B. it's in one four, one seventy four Bank street opposite the police station.
- A. aha, can I find a good English language school?
- B. in the International School. do you want to learn English from experts?
- A. yes, I want this.
- B. you can go to there. it's in one oh six Dover Street W1,
- A. ok, e:r I want to: ask you about the accommodations and er how much it costs weekly e:r and where is the location of these accommodations.
- B. you ca:n go to Student Hostel.
- A. Student Hostel?
- B. yes and you ca:n find good rooms for students single or double, it is e:r share from thirty three pound a week, er you can find it at two seven eight, er Totennham Court Road, at any time or ni day or night, ..., you can ca:ll at three fi two five six seven eight nine.
- A. thank you very much
- B. you are welcome.

AS3 Role A

AS4 Role B

- A. hello, e:r my name is Amal and I am new here in England and I I face some difficulties and I'd like to ask you some questions if you may?
- B. I'll, I'll be glad to help and welcome in London.
- A. 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?

- B. you have Barclay's Bank, er its opening hours on er on er from Monday to Friday er from nine o'clock thirty to three o'clock thirty, er close all Saturdays.
- A. is it Barclay's? B A R C or K? ((the subject started spelling the word to write it down))
- B. C L A Y S ((the subject spelt it))
- A. what about the opening and closing hours?
- B. From nine thirty to three thirty.
- A. thank you. what about e:m where can I find some er ,..., place to: buy some post post card post cards or stamps
- B. e:m there is the High Street Post Office, er er what day are we today? aha, today is em Tuesday. today's opening hours are from em nine o'clock er to five em half past five.
- A. what about if I want to buy em a newspaper from my country
- B. well, er there is a newsagent that would help you in that which is er Rachman's International News News Agents, it is on er one hundred seventy four, Bank Street er it is er directly opposite the police station. you may find er whatever you want and er..., some good souvenirs, cigarettes and other things.
- A. aha, Rachman's International News Agents, em won't be any er ,..., difficulty e:r ,..., I 'd like to ask you er where er..., em can I find an a good English er a good English language school
- B. there is a good one, er it is named International School and er it is on er one hundred oh six, Dover street er er it..., er W1 and er...
- A. em is there any accommodation in the er area
- B. er yes. there a student hostel er er it is Tottenham Court Road er and it has a telephone number you may wou(ld) like to register, it it's e:r three hundred and twenty five
- A. can you give me a second to write it down?
- B. take your time
- A. okay
- B. three hundred and er twenty four er five, six, seven hundred and eighty nine

- A. thank you very much em how much does it the cost
- B. well er it costs thirty three pounds a week
- A. aha, 33 pounds a week is acceptable. okay, thank you very much. you've been of great help
- B. you're welcome. have a nice time.

AS5 Role A

AS6 Role B

- A. good evening
- B. good evening
- A. excuse me, I have just arrived in to London for the first time and I came here for holiday and to learn English. e:r if you can help me I will ask you some questions.
- B. yes I can. you are welcome.
- A. thank you very much. First I need to change some travels, some travel [i:ks] but I don't know where to find a bank or which er on which time it opens and closed.
- B. e:r there is the Barclays er Bank. It will open from Mon(nday) Monday to: er Friday at nine thirty and will be closed at three thirty, but you can't visit e:r on Saturday.
- A. how do you spell the name of the bank, please?
- B. B A R C L A Y S ((the subject spelt it.)
- A. ok, can you tell me the opening and closing hours again?
- B. yes, it opens from nine thirty to three thirty.
- A. e:r thank you. e:r and I want to: have some stamps and post cards if you please could you tell me.
- B. yes. there is the High Street Post Office and you can find e:r any kind of stamps e:r you need
- A. e:r and I want to ask you er em about some place where I can find a newspaper from my country.

- B. it's e:r Rachman's International News Agents and you will find e:r all kinds of newspaper and if they are not available there they will help you to find it.
- A. Rachman's
- B. Rachman's International News Agents
- A. aha, e:r I will ask you another que(stion) other two two questions if you please
- B. yes.
- A. e:r I want to find a good English school here and I can't know where to find it.
- B. there is, yeah.there is the International School e:r if you are interested I will give you its address e:r it's er on em one oh six, Dover Street W1.
- A. what's the telephone?
- B. the telephone number is e:r forty nine twelve fifty nine and six.
- A. thank you. finally I want to ask you about the accommodation. How I can how can I have accommodation here?
- B. there is the Student e:m Hotel and e:m you can ask more questions if you are interested.
- A. yeah. I want to ask you how much it costs?
- B. e:r it costs three er em thirty er three pounds a week.
- A. thank you very much.
- B. okay, you are welcome here.

AS7 Role B

AS8 Role A

- A. hello. good morning.
- B. hi, how are you?
- A. er could you please help me: to find some e:r er the bank to: to find some cheques or e:r em I wanna em ((laugh))traveler's cheques where can I go go and buy some?
- B. are you new here?

- A. e:r yes, I arrived I have just arrived actually to London and I don't know anything but so I need some help.
- B. okay. where are you from?
- A. I am from Jordan.
- B. from Jordan? oh, I was in Jordan also I am Jordanian. but I came here in London and I have been here for e:m thirteen years you say.
- A. nice to meet you. I would like to ask you about some questions if you could help me please.
- B. e:m okay, I will be glad to help you. okay, you could find e:r the cheques in the Barclays Bank, okay? what do you need also?
- A. actually I want to know about where is the place where I can I find this bank.
- B. okay. e:m the Barclays Bank you could ask anyone I don't know wh(ere),
- A. repeat, please.
- B. Barclays Bank and you could take a taxi ask him and he will just er put you there. e:r for okay, you have to kno:w e:r their time.
- A. yes.
- B. they open on Monday and Friday from nine thirty to three and thirty.
- A. from nine thirty to three thirty, aha, that will be fine. could you please tell me where the stamps where can I buy them?
- B. okay. stamps you could e:r get them from High Street Post Office e:r and they er e:r they are available all the time the Arab world and they are e:r you could find that in Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday all the all the week from nine to five e:r and half and thirty e:r unless Wednesday you could them from nine to one o'clock.
- A. yeah. okay. e:m could you please tell me about e:r newspapers here if they are available near here?
- B. okay. yeah. e:r newspaper available in Rachman's International News Agents and er you could find all the newspaper that you want or ask for.
- A. thank you.
- B. there will be no problem.
- A. thank you, but can you please tell me how much they cost?

- B. e:m okay. for the cost, I do't know one hundred pounds may be. but to e:r if you want to know where to get there it is one seven four Dover Street, opposite the Police Station.
- A. okay. thanks. e:r but er some ,...,..., e:r an an English school if you can help me find one too.
- B. aha, English school, are you student still?
- A. em actually I am willing to study here.
- B. what do you want to study?
- A. em I want major in English
- B. oh, okay. I will advise you about this e:r school. It's call e:r it's called International School er I think it's really e:r the one you er that you need. International School, er you will find it on e:r e:m er street of one point six, Dover Street W1, okay? and if you want to ask about tuition e:r the tuition e:r is not er so expensive tuition free e:r fees now there is not fees not so expensive you could give it.
- A. okay, thanks a lot. but finally can I ask you just one more question?
- B. aha, okay, because I'm in a hurry please.
- A. e:m just where can I find some place to live in?
- B. okay. there is a student hostel, if you want to go. and e:r you can find also the student hostel for single room if you want to li(ve) to stay alone or you could take also e:r double room e:r double and share with another student. If you want I have e:r a friend also and he want to: join the student hostel and he er he's looking for a friend, another friend.
- A. okay.
- B. if you want I will e:r bring him and e:r and you can meet him and if you want, you could e:r
- A. thank a lot. but do you know where it is it? Is it near to school or far a way or something?
- B. I think it is near the Court Road and you could call them anytime they are available, you can find them a day or night and their telephone number is three two five six seven eight nine.
- A. thanks a lot. how em how much is the cost?

- B. oh, it cost e:r two hundred and seve(nty) sorry three e:m thirty three pounds, okay? a week.
- A. yeah. that will be fine, I guess.
- B. yes.
- A. thanks a lot, but I haven't noticed you name.
- B. oh, my name e:r is er Dalia
- A. thank you a lot.
- B. welcome.

AS - 9 Role A

AS - 10 Role B

- A. er hi
- B. hi
- A. e:r please, can I ask you some questions?
- B. ah, you seem to be new in London?
- A. yeah. I just travel e:r from Jordan now and I just reached e:r in London er today.
- B. aha.
- A. I want to know some information about the travels che::ques che::ques
- B. travel cheques? e:m there is a very close bank over here, it's called Barclays Bank,
- A. yeah
- B. er the opening hours are from ,..., e:m ,..., nine thirty to five thirty, Monday to Friday.
- A. yeah, thanks. but e:r really I need to buy some er stamps and post cards from a post office.
- B. aha, exactly on the same street there is e:r , ...,a post office ,..., which is the name street is high street. the opening hours are from nine to five thirty em Monday through Saturday.
- A. e:r and if you please, I want to ask about e:r if I want to: buy a newspaper from my country, I want to buy er the Dustoor Journal,

- B. aha
- A. from where can I get it?
- B. there is an excellent e:r international news agency, it is called Rachman's International News Agents. they have all newspapers e:m ,,,,,, and er if they don't have the newspaper you want they can get it for you. they also have cigarettes er and gifts er ,,,,,, er gifts and souvenirs. you can find it on one seventy four bank street, opposite the police station.
- A. can you repeat the name of the place, please?
- B. sure. it is Rachman's,,,,, International,,,,, News ,,,,,,Agents.
- A. e:r and if you please I want to: e:r learn e:r the English, e:r learn English, please where can I er learn?
- B. there is an excellent e:r school for English, it is called the International School.
- A. yeah, where can I: find it? where?
- B. the address? it's on one oh six, Dover street , e:r w1.
- A. aha
- B. it's for tuition, social programme and accommodation.
- A. aha
- B. do you want the telephone number?
- A. *ah, ah* (tr: yes, yes) ,yeah, yeah.
- B. e:r it's four nine one,
- A. yeah.
- B. two five, nine six.
- A. aha, thanks. and e:r the: last question, there is I want to ask is about accommodation,
- B. aha,
- A. and how much it costs?
- B. aha, you are a student, aren't you?
- A. yeah. of course.
- B. there is a Student Hostel.
- A. aha, Student Hostel , I see.
- B. they have very cheap rooms for students, single double or share.

A. yeah.

B. do you want the prices?

A. aha

B. it's, ...,the prices start er from thirty three pounds a week.

A. ah.(tr: yes) yeah, yes, and where can I find this accommodation?

B. the address is two seven eight, Tottenham Court, em, Court Road, any time day or night.

A. em, thanks.

B. the telephone number?

A. yeah.

B. three two, five six, seven eight nine.

A. yeah, thank you very much.

B. you're welcome.

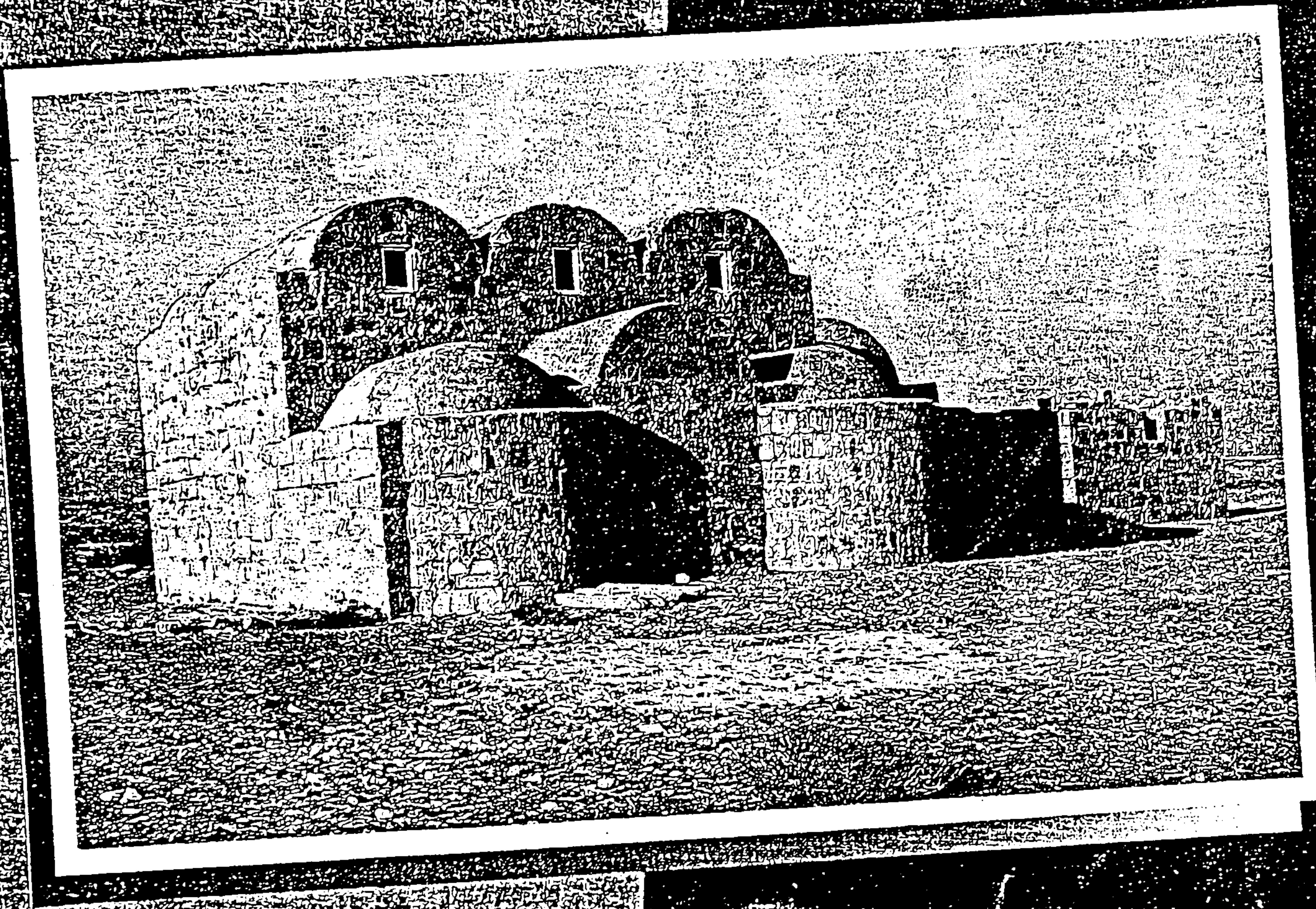
A. bye.

B. bye.

A M M R A

Advance *through* More

Relevant Activities



English Course for

JORDAN

General English 2

Student's Book

SECOND SECONDARY CLASS

All Streams

Structures	Revision of verb forms, passives
Functions	Asking for and giving personal information; comparing and contrasting
Vocabulary	<p><i>nouns:</i> assessment, award, badge, ceramics, challenge, concern, enterprise, fitness, mixer, participant, pitch, potential, pottery, reservoir</p> <p><i>verbs:</i> design, participate</p> <p><i>phrasal verbs:</i> mark out (something), pass by</p> <p><i>adjectives:</i> academic, dynamic, mental, primary, self-confident, voluntary</p> <p><i>expressions:</i> fund-raising, push yourself to the limit, scuba-diving</p>

Lesson 1: Focus on Reading

Before you read . . .

a If you had the chance, what new things would you like to learn? Choose two things from the list below.

- more about wildlife
- how to mix with all kinds of people
- how to survive in the wild
- a new sport or physical activity
- a new art or craft
- about places you have never visited
- how to become more *self-confident*
- anything else?

b In Jordan, we have a programme called the Crown Prince's Award (C.P.A.) which gives young people a chance to learn new and exciting things. Read what some young people say about the Award Programme.

'The *Award* gave me a clear goal which I had to work for. It changed my life.'

'I would certainly encourage others to do the Award. I never thought I would be able to go mountain-climbing or paint in oils.'

'The Award offers you the best opportunity to *push yourself to the limit* and to create new opportunities – and to know yourself and what you can do.'

'Doing the Award has increased my confidence and this has helped me a lot at work. Now, I'm much more of a *mixer*.'

c If you wanted to know more about the Award, what questions could you ask? Write the questions in your notebook.

While you read . . .

d Read the information about the Award Programme. How many of your questions does it answer?

THE CROWN PRINCE'S AWARD

IN 1956, the Duke of Edinburgh's Award *was designed* to encourage the young people of Britain to become involved in a balanced programme of *voluntary* self-development activities. The Award was so popular that it soon expanded to become the International Award Programme. Jordan decided to
5 adopt the Award Programme in 1984 under the title "The Crown Prince's Award" (CPA). This has been a success and there are now over 140 units operating the programme in Jordan.



The age range for the Crown Prince's Award is 14 to 25 years and it is open to both girls and boys. Each young person is expected to *participate* in four sections of the Award: Sports,
10 Adventure, Community Service and Personal Skills. There are three separate Award levels: bronze, silver and gold. When a young person has been successful in completing the Programme at a particular level, he or she receives an Award in the form of a *badge* and a certificate presented by His Royal Highness, H.R.H. Crown Prince Hassan. This Award is internationally recognised.

15 The Award is granted for individual achievement whatever the *participant's* social background and *mental* or *physical fitness*. The Programme is designed to give opportunities and *challenges* to young people so that they can learn how to know themselves and their *potential*. Self-confidence, the ability to work hard, *concern* for others, the spirit of adventure and *enterprise* are some of the qualities that the Award Programme wants to develop.

20 In order to meet the *dynamic* challenges of our times, Al-Sabilah was introduced in 1990 as part of the C.P.A. outdoor activities which have been derived from Raleigh International. It is an exciting 27-day programme consisting of three main parts: Adventure, Services and Scientific Projects. In this programme, a participant has to meet four challenges: *assessment* and selection; *fund-raising*; going on the expedition itself; and being an effective and
25 responsible team member.

On joining Al-Sabilah, you might be *scuba-diving* one day in Aqaba and the next day mountain-climbing in Wadi Rum. Another day you might be doing community work in a small village, cleaning out water pumps, channels and *reservoirs* or perhaps you *will be marking out* football and volleyball *pitches*. All along the way, you are guided and supported by adult
30 volunteers, experts in their particular fields.

The noble philosophy of the Award Programme is perhaps contained in the name "Al-Sabilah", which – translated into English – means "to *pass by* on a long journey and to leave good memories behind".

Based on information from The Crown Prince's Award and on "Award World", published by the Duke of Edinburgh's Award International Association, 19 St James's Square, London.

After you read ...

Answer these questions.

- 1 When did Jordan start the Award Programme?
- 2 How many sections of the Award are there and what are they?
- 3 How many levels are there and what are they?
- 4 When was Al-Sabilah started?
- 5 Why was Al-Sabilah started?
- 6 Al-Sabilah helps students on the Award Programme. Who else does it help?

Workbook Lesson 11 Exercises

About you

Would you be interested in joining in the Crown Prince's Award Programme? Give reasons for your answer.

Lesson 2: Focus on Language

Grammar and functions

Grammar Target 1: Verb forms

1. Base form

This form of the verb is used

a in the Simple Present tense (except in the 3rd person singular):

*I/You/We/They **clean** the kitchen daily.*

b in imperative sentences:

***Clean** the kitchen, please.*

c after modal auxiliaries:

*You **must clean** the kitchen.*

d with 'to' to form the infinitive:

*I want **to clean** the kitchen today.*

2. Base form + -s or -es

This form is used in the 3rd person singular of the Simple Present tense:

*He/She/He/Harry **cleans** the kitchen daily.*

3. Base form + -ing

a When used after the auxiliary 'be' in the Present and Past Progressive tenses, this form is called the Present Participle:

*I **am cleaning** the kitchen now.*

*She **was cleaning** the kitchen when I arrived.*

b When used as the subject of a sentence or after a preposition or after certain verbs, this form is called the Gerund:

***Cleaning** the kitchen is hard work.*

*I thanked her for **cleaning** the kitchen.*

*I don't like **cleaning** the kitchen.*

4. Base form + -d or -ed

a This form is used with regular verbs for the Simple Past tense. It is the same for all persons of the verb.

*I/You/He/We/They **cleaned** the kitchen yesterday.*

Irregular past tenses, e.g. *come – came, do – did*, must be learnt.

b This form is also used as the Past Participle of regular verbs. It is mainly used with the auxiliary 'have' in perfect tenses and the auxiliary 'be' in passive constructions.

*I **have cleaned** the kitchen twice today.*

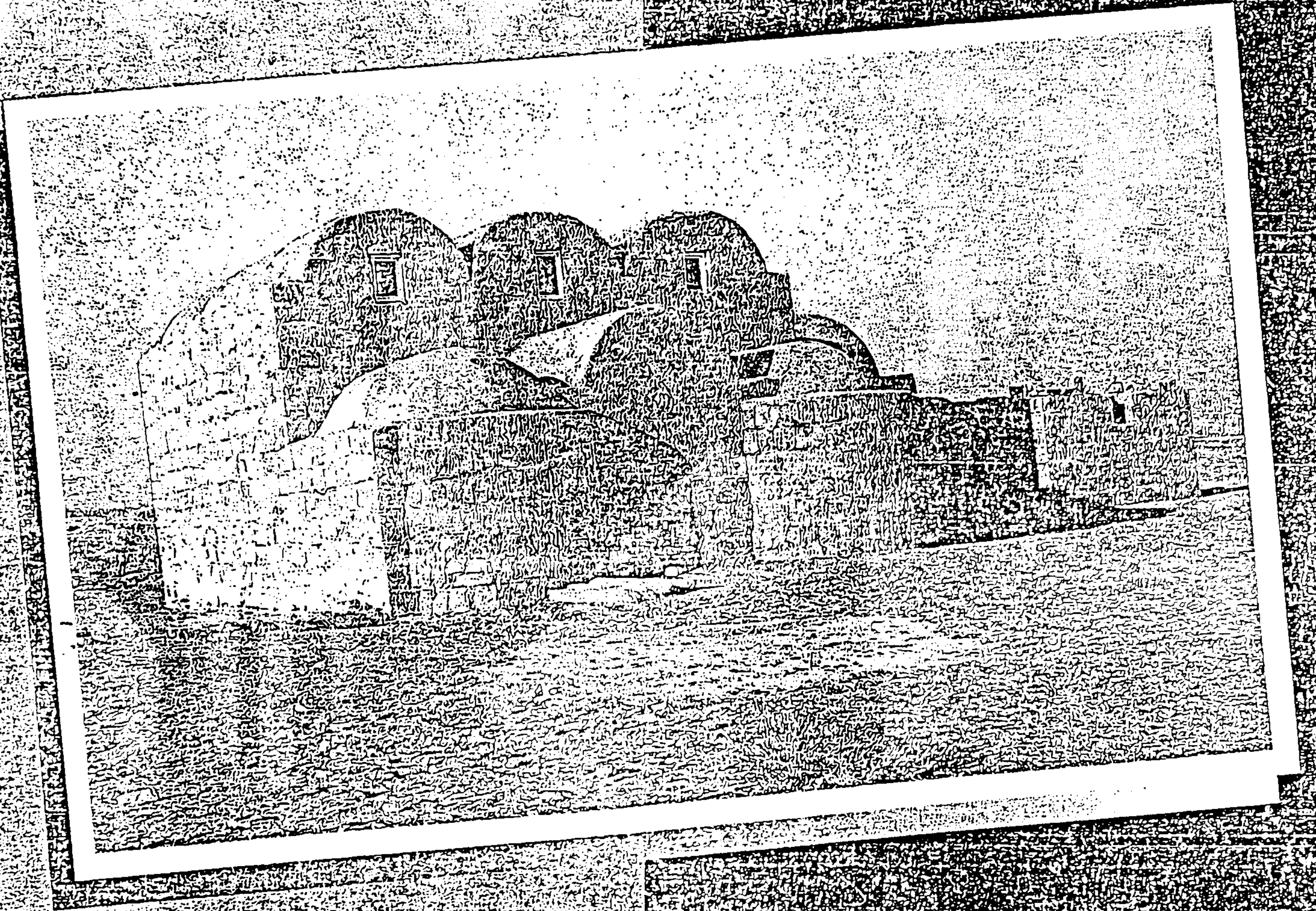
*The kitchen **was cleaned** yesterday.*

Irregular past participles, e.g. *come – come, do – done*, must be learnt.

A M I R A

Advance ^{through} More

Relevant Activities



English Course for

JORDAN

General English 2 • Workbook

SECOND SECONDARY CLASS

All Streams

UNIT 1 Al-Sabilah

Lesson 1: Focus on Reading

a Find a word in the text about the Crown Prince's Award to match each definition.

- 1 something given in recognition of merit, a prize
- 2 a design on a piece of cloth or metal awarded for a particular achievement
- 3 a feeling of being capable of doing something
- 4 feeling an interest in the well-being of others
- 5 courage and readiness to engage in something new or daring
- 6 act of determining the value or quality of something
- 7 places where you play particular sports
- 8 to visit somewhere briefly on your way to somewhere else

b Read the following sentences and circle the best answer for each of the words or phrases in italics.

- 1 The CPA aims at helping Jordanian youth to develop their *potential* and ability to serve their country.
A thinking power B what a person is capable of C physical strength
- 2 Last summer, I helped our sports club by *marking out* the football pitch.
A repairing the grass
B mowing the grass
C painting lines on the grass
- 3 The next event will be a *fund-raising* activity in aid of mentally-handicapped children.
A getting money for a good cause
B making people laugh
C donating money for a certain activity
- 4 The course was extremely difficult and forced me to *push myself to the limit*.
A do things which were difficult
B try to do things which I couldn't do
C do things which were almost impossible for me

c Match each word with its opposite.

- | | |
|-------------|-----------------|
| 1 fitness | A compulsory |
| 2 mixer | B physical |
| 3 voluntary | C unsociable |
| 4 outdoors | D unhealthiness |
| 5 mental | E indoors |

a) Answer these questions.

- 1 What do we call the form of the verb without any suffixes?
- 2 What are the two names for the form 'base + -ing'?
- 3 What are the two main uses of the Past Participle?
- 4 We can use the auxiliary 'be' to help form the Present Progressive tense. What other construction does it help form?
- 5 What tense is formed by the auxiliary 'had' and the Past Participle?
- 6 Which parts of the verb are sometimes irregular in English?
- 7 In which tense is the form the same for all persons?

Grammar Target 2: Actives and Passives

The chart below summarises the tenses that you have learnt. A transitive verb (one which takes a direct object) may be used in the passive if the speaker is more interested in what is/was done than in who does/did it.

Tense	Active	Passive
Simple Present	<i>We speak English in this shop. He travels a lot.</i>	<i>English is spoken in this shop. -</i>
Present Perfect	<i>We have posted the letters. The Award has changed my life.</i>	<i>The letters have been posted. My life has been changed by the Award.</i>
Present Progressive	<i>They are expanding the programme.</i>	<i>The programme is being expanded.</i>
Simple Past	<i>It is raining. Jordan adopted the Award.</i>	<i>- The Award was adopted (by Jordan).</i>
Past Perfect	<i>We decided to participate. When we arrived, the guests had left. By 1995, they had set up over 140 units.</i>	<i>- By 1995, over 140 units had been set up.</i>
Past Progressive	<i>He was marking out the pitch. Several travellers were passing by.</i>	<i>The pitch was being marked out. -</i>

Workbook Lesson 2 Exercises

Listening

Workbook Lesson 2 Exercises

Speaking

b) You are going to interview a classmate about his/her past, present and future. Work in pairs and write the questions for the interview. Use the notes below to help you.

Birth – Where? When?
Early education – Which school?
Family – How many?

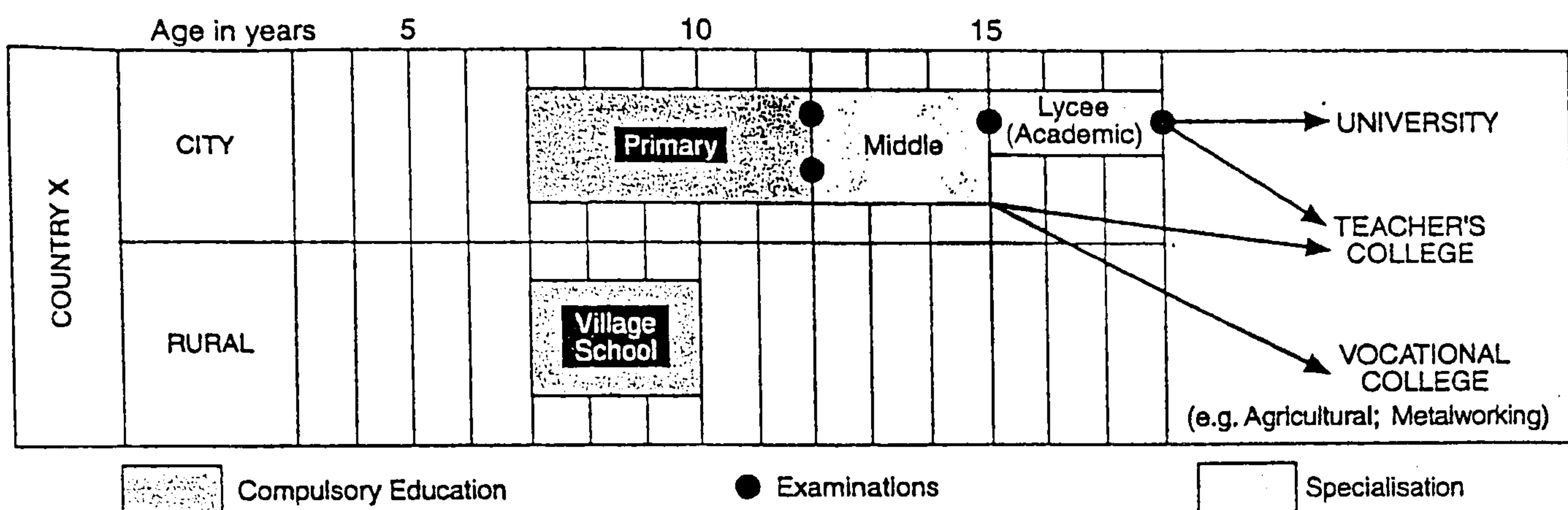
Sports and hobbies – What?
Experience – Have you ever ... ?
After school – What?

Lesson 3: Focus on Writing

Before you write ...

Workbook Lesson 3, Exercise a

- a Look at this diagram of an educational system. Are there any similarities between this system and the Jordanian system?



- b Answer these questions about the diagram.

- 1 How many stages are there?
- 2 When does compulsory education start and finish?
- 3 When can voluntary education start and finish?
- 4 When do school children take national examinations?
- 5 At what age can school children specialise?
- 6 How is further and higher education organised?

Gathering information

Workbook Lesson 3, Exercise b

Drafting

- c Write two paragraphs comparing and contrasting the two educational systems you studied in Workbook Lesson 3, Exercise d.

Editing

- d Exchange drafts with a partner. Whose draft is better? Try to improve each other's drafts.

Key Value

Let us, then, be up and doing,
 With a heart for any fate;
 Still achieving, still pursuing,
 Learn to labour and to wait

H.W. Longfellow (1807-1882), American poet

Ethical Issues for Teacher Researchers

Joyce Watt

Teachers doing small-scale research studies for their own interest, have many matters to think about, of which ethical issues and relationships with others involved in the study are not the most obvious. This Spotlight does not attempt exhaustive coverage of all the issues involved but is intended to stimulate reflection and discussion. It is one of a number of spotlights development for the Scottish Teacher-Researcher Support Network.

Ethical issues in educational research are now, rightly, given a high profile. Recent books on research methodology, for example, include sections on ethics. The British Educational Research Association (BERA) adopted ethical guidelines for educational research in 1992 and the Scottish Educational Research Association (SERA) is currently revising its draft code of practice. As a teacher-researcher you share with other researchers the obligation to recognise and meet ethical standards at every stage of your work. However 'rules', except in very general terms, are difficult to define because the context will be different each time. Clearly a teacher involved in funded research related to drugs and HIV across a number of schools and as part of a research team will face very different ethical issues to those faced by a teacher involved in a piece of action research on language development within her own classroom.

Despite the wide variations, however, there are common ethical questions we all have to face as researchers. For teacher-researchers two preliminary points have always to be kept in mind. First, children are particularly vulnerable and we should always be careful about whether and how they should be involved in research, and whose permission it is important to obtain. Second, research must adhere to the same principles as the rest of the educational system: for example, codes of practice in relation to gender, race or special need should be strictly adhered to.

Few of us are paragons of virtue in all these matters all of the time, but we should all be committed to them. Meeting ethical criteria leads not only to a relatively clear research conscience but to better research. It also means that the research door is more likely to be opened to us (and to other researchers) the next time. Our integrity as researchers and the integrity of our research are closely linked.

The following list of points to consider is certainly not exhaustive. What other relevant questions can you identify? Some of those listed below may not apply to your research but, if they don't, are you clear why?

AT THE EARLY PLANNING STAGE

- Have you identified where ethical issues may arise in your research?
Take time at the beginning and as the research proceeds to review ethical questions and strategies.
- Whose purposes will be served by the research?
Make sure that the answer is not simply 'my own'!
- If children in schools are involved, is it a genuinely educational experience for them?
It is easy to take pupils as a 'captive audience' for granted.
- Have you a clear purpose and strategy in mind?
If not, you will waste everyone's time.

BEFORE FIELDWORK BEGINS

- Whose consent is needed? Director of Education? headteacher? other teachers? school; board? parents? children? others?
You have a responsibility to those accountable within the system and to those personally involved.
- Have you explained fully the purpose of the research and its implications?
There is a difference between 'consent' and 'informed consent'.
- If revealing the purpose of the research would jeopardise the outcome, can you explain later?
You have no right to leave anyone feeling anxious, depressed or puzzled.
- Have you promised confidentiality and explained what that means?
No individual or institution should be identified in any way without their consent.
- Have you offered to let participants read (and comment on?) a draft of your report? Is this possible/ reasonable?
You may have made a genuine mistake or misrepresented a situation inadvertently.

DURING FIELDWORK

Have you ensured:

- that participation will be made as easy and pleasant as possible?
It is in your own interests.
- that the research causes the least possible disruption to the on-going life of the participants and groups involved?
Every teacher understands the implications of this for schools.
- that you are following the strategy already negotiated?
It is often tempting (and legitimate) to change course but any major changes need to be renegotiated.

ANALYSIS AND REPORTING

- Have you analysed your data systematically and fairly, considering alternative interpretations?
Researcher bias can be unconscious as well as deliberate.
- Have you given written or verbal feedback to all interested parties?
Participants have a right to accessible feedback.
- Have you considered different kinds of reports for different groups?
A one-page summary will suit some, for other you must write a detailed report.
- Have you acknowledged all those who helped?
People deserve this and appreciate it.
- Will your report be written and distributed while the research is still fresh in everybody's mind?
Woe to most of us!

FURTHER READING

BURGESS, R G (ed) (1989) *The Ethics of Educational Research*. Falmer Press.

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KOMPF, M (1993) Ethical Considerations in Teacher Disclosure: construing persons and methods. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 9, 5-6, pp519-528.

USEFUL ADDRESSES

Scottish Teacher-Researcher Support Network (STRSN)
For information contact: Meg Cowie, Network Coordinator, Information Services, SCRE, 15 St John Street, Edinburgh EH8 8JR.

British Educational Research Association (BERA)
For information contact: Anne-Marie Beaucolin, BERA Membership, SCRE, 15 St John Street, Edinburgh EH8 8JR.

Scottish Educational Research Association (SERA)
For information contact: Janette Finlay, SERA Membership, SCRE, 15 St John Street, Edinburgh EH8 8JR.

Notes

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