CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

Conversations are the most overwhelming interactions in human communication because the sole purpose is in the creation and maintenance of social relationships between participants. Informal conversation between equals is the archetypal speech event involving two or more speakers' (Coates 1996). As we are aware, a conversation is essentially an unscripted talk. In that aspect, conversations need to be understood and reciprocated so that meanings can be conveyed.

Another essential feature of a conversation is the overall aim of the talk. Sometimes it occurs as friendly, loving, verbal strokes, but it may also take on the form of arguing, teasing or other more aggressive kinds of communication and this is described as 'the bonds of antipathy' (Cherry, 1966,p.316). Finally, and most importantly, the features of a conversation are often intertwined and connected with the social binding aspects as well as the discourse equality of the participants. Within any 'conversation', participants tend to operate as equals. This means that they have equal rights to talk and listen, to choose topics, to tell and evaluate stories (Cheepen, 1988). In practice, this process depends on the participants and such equality is put into operation by the participants taking turns at doing all these things, so that control is handed from one to the other throughout the talk, and the participants regularly exchange their roles during the interaction. Nevertheless, such a conversational pattern may depend on events, situations and contexts.

Previous research in second language learners' communicative strategies (henceforth, CS), has provided an elaborate framework for analyzing how learners manage to express

themselves in the target language in spite of their limited knowledge of the target language. Many studies (Tarone, 1977; Corder, 1983;) deal with the identification and classification of the linguistic manifestations brought about by the gap between communicative intentions and the linguistic resources available to the learner to realize them. Other studies (Faerch & Kasper, 1980) set about to investigate the psychological processes underlying the use of CS. However, a more elaborate cognitive approach is reached through the works of Poulisse (1990) and Bialystok (1990) and this will be discussed.
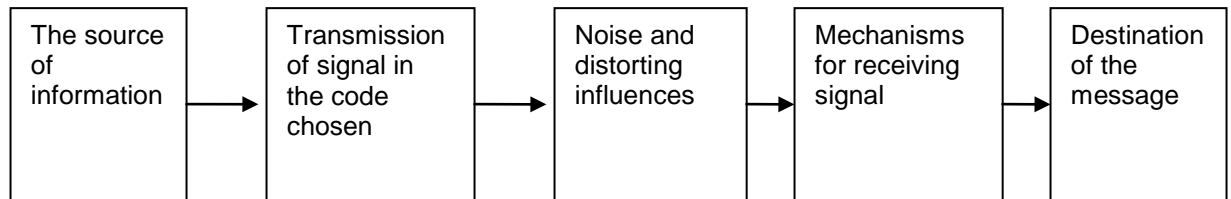
2.1 Communication

Communication is an aspect of everyday life. In order to understand its importance, a comprehensive definition would be helpful. Cherry (1966:3) defines communication as essentially a social affair of interaction. Throughout the ages, different systems of communication have emerged to facilitate man's social life in the ever developing world. Apparently, most prominent among all these systems of communication is human speech and language. Man can give utterances to almost any thought with his remarkable faculties of speech. Speech is the most complex, subtle and characteristically, human means of communication. While most animal noises simply communicate emotional states, human speech differs in conveying information about external events with a grammatical structure which is acquired. In the following contents, the elements of communication are discussed first, then the communication process is analyzed, followed by an introduction of communication competences and lastly the different types of communication strategies are discussed.

2.1.1 The Elements of Communication

The elements of communication consist of the person who transmits the message, the message itself (as an element) and the recipient of the message (Deverell, 1974). Deverell takes the description elements a step further and this is shown in the illustration below:

Figure 2.1 The elements of communication

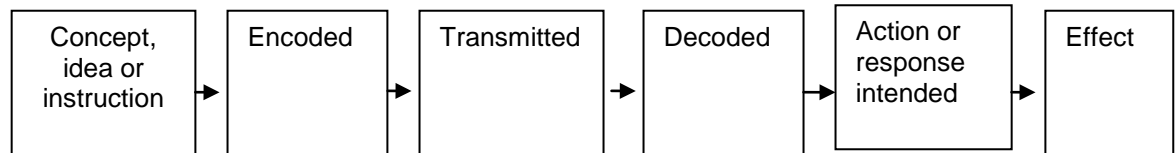| The source of information	Transmission of signal in the code chosen	Noise and distorting influences	Mechanisms for receiving signal	Destination of the message

(Deverell, 1974:10)

From figure 2.1, the distorting influences are those factors which interfere with transmission. Among these are the illegible symbols, an unfamiliar code or language, physical sounds in the environment, imperfect vision or hearing and psychological barriers to reception.

Every communication is conveyed through a code of some kind. There is a large number of such codes. If attention is restricted` to the East Asian languages, many language codes can be found such as non-verbal communication which involves mainly gestures, facial expressions, mathematical codes and drawings. These must also be interpreted for effective communication to take place. As Widdowson (1978:73) pointed out, "most discourse includes a verbal component, but the verbal component is only an independent part of the communicative event which can be isolated and treated as usage." In communication, the

code chosen must be capable of conveying to the receiver, the message, in the manner and sense as intended by the sender to the receiver. According to Deverll (1974), coding in communication is illustrated as follows:
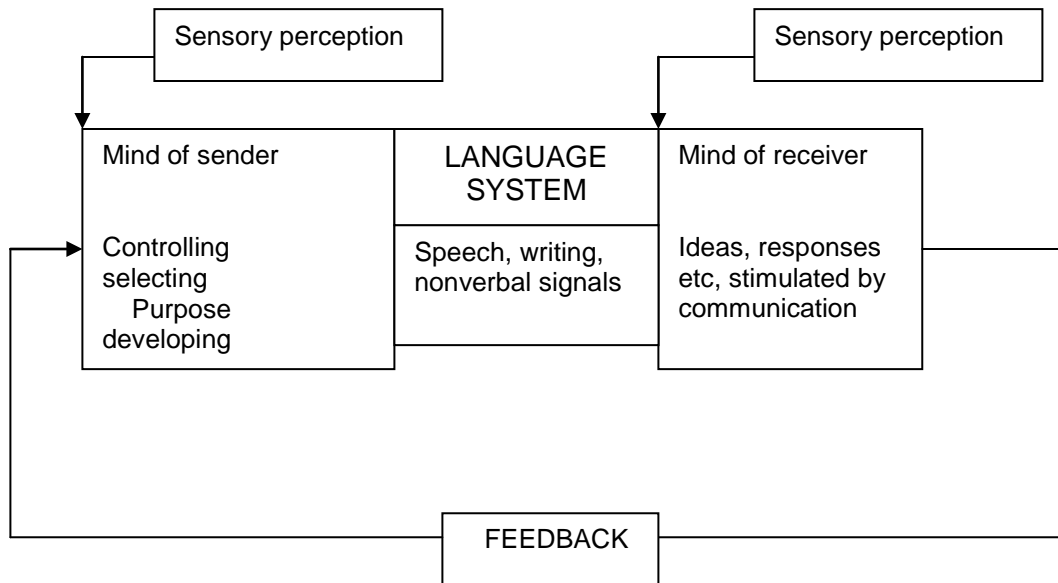
Figure 2.2: Coding in Communication

| Concept, idea or instruction | → | Encoded | → | Transmitted | → | Decoded | → | Action or response intended | → | Effect |

<div align="right">(Deverell, 1974:11)</div>

The choice of a code is an important preliminary decision in any act of communication in the present research.

2.1.2 The Communication Process

Communication is a two–way social process in which a speaker or writer tries to get a response from his/her listeners or readers. In the process, each individual must function effectively. What actually does happen when people communicate with each other? What do we need to understand in order to communicate more effectively? Dean and Bryson (1953:6) have provided a diagram which will help us to see the whole process in perspective. Though this is not exhaustive, the diagram may serve to highlight some important aspects of the process.

Figure 2.3: The Communication process

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┌─────────────────────┐                    ┌─────────────────────┐
│ Sensory perception  │                    │ Sensory perception  │
└─────────────────────┘                    └─────────────────────┘
     │                                           │
     ▼                                           ▼
┌──────────────┬──────────────────┬──────────────────────┐
│ Mind of sender│  LANGUAGE        │ Mind of receiver     │
│              │  SYSTEM          │                      │
│              ├──────────────────┤                      │
│ Controlling  │ Speech, writing, │ Ideas, responses     │
│ selecting    │ nonverbal signals│ etc, stimulated by   │
│   Purpose    │                  │ communication        │
│ developing   │                  │                      │
└──────────────┴──────────────────┴──────────────────────┘

              ┌──────────────┐
              │  FEEDBACK    │
              └──────────────┘
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(Dean and Bryson, 1953:6)

In the diagram, the large rectangles represent the mind of the person who is developing the communication and the person receiving it. The left end of each is indicated with the lines which are labelled "Sensory perception", and it represents the five senses through which the world is perceived, either by direct observations or by messages received from others.

The long and narrow rectangle represents the language system that extends into the minds of both the sender and receiver. Thus, they represent the conscious thinking of both parties, either preparing or receiving the communication. This extension of the language system in the mind represents the fact that most of us are conscious about our language symbols. Further, the rectangle bridging the space between the two minds represents the spoken or written words and the nonverbal vocal or visual signals, all of which communication is composed of. The arrow labelled "static" represents any kind of interference which may

23

obstruct the reception of the communication. Interference may range all the way from nervous movements to language habits of the sender, as they interfere and distract the receiver's attention from the book or the speech of others. Finally, the line labelled "feedback" represents the various kinds of signals whether consciously or not made by the receiver, which indicate to the sender that his/her communication has been received.

The diagram further illustrates the communicative process which begins with the controlling purpose of a speaker or writer and ending in the response of his/her audience. There are two basic principles for effective communication process. One, what the participants are trying to accomplish in talking, writing, reading or listening must be determined. The other is to remember who the audience is and what ought to be communicated to them in order to accomplish the same purpose. With these principles in mind, the communication diagram shows a translation of ideas and emotions into language symbols which makes for more effective communication. In fact, people think greatly in language symbols, and this translation process is somewhat inseparable from thinking. In other words, the study of communication has to be more than the study of language itself because communication can be said to be a two way social process in which each individual must function effectively for precise interpretation. Dean and Bryson express a similar view: "It involves the effective use of language symbols in the development of ideas as well as the expression of them, and it involves an awareness of psychological factors which affect the process at every stage." (Dean and Bryson, 1953, p.216)
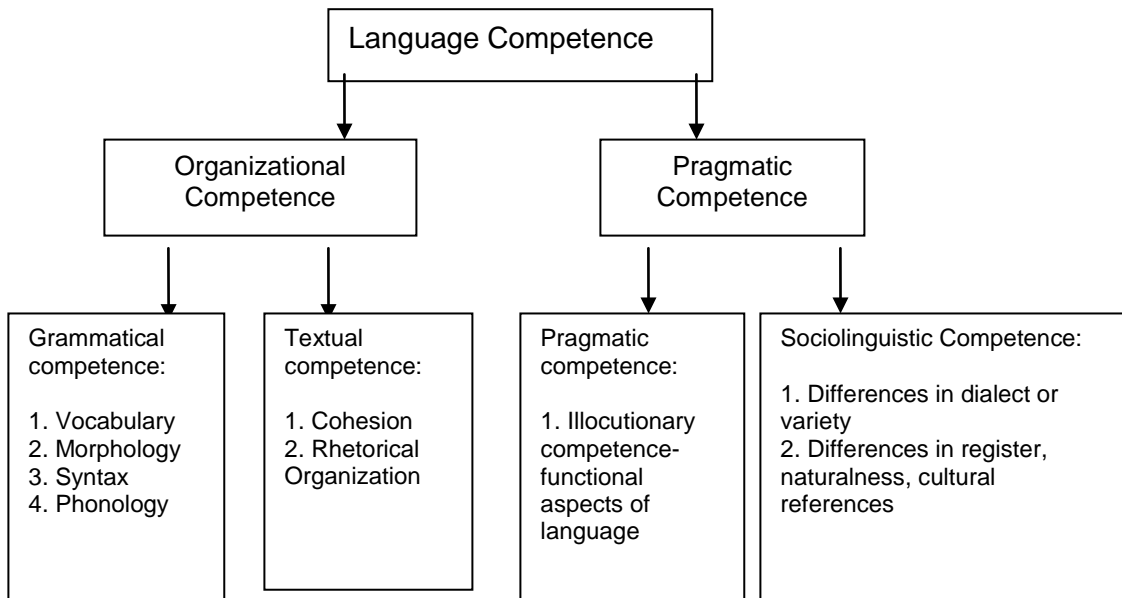
2.2 Communicative Competence

The term communicative competence is seen as a linguistic term which refers to a learner's L2 ability. It is necessary to examine the learner's ability of applying and using grammatical rules correctly, besides understanding how L2 learners form correct utterances under specific approach. At the same time, it also helps to show how these utterances are used appropriately. Chomsky (1965) makes a distinction between competence and performance. According to Chomsky's view of linguistic competence, it is derived from the theory of the linguistic system itself and it was meant to idealize as the abstract language knowledge of the monolingual adult native speaker, who was distinct in terms of using experience toward the development of the language. Canale and Swain (1983) defined communicative competence in terms of four components:

1. Grammatical competence - the knowledge of the language code grammatical rules, vocabulary, pronunciation, spelling, etc.).

2. Discourse competence - the ability to combine language structures into different types of cohesive texts (e.g. political speech, poetry).

3. Sociolinguistic competence - the mastery of the socio-cultural code of language use (appropriate application of vocabulary, register, politeness and style in a given situation).

4. Strategic competence - the knowledge of verbal and non-verbal communication strategies which enhance the efficiency of communication and, where necessary, enable the learner to overcome difficulties when communication breakdowns occur.

Bachman (1990) proposed another model of communicative competence, which he called "language competence," and this was further divided into two subcategories: organizational competence and pragmatic competence. Each subcategory has two components which are

shown in the figure below:

Figure 2.4 The classification of Communicative Competence

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                        ┌──────────────────────┐
                        │ Language Competence  │
                        └──────────┬───────────┘
              ┌────────────────────┴────────────────────┐
              ▼                                          ▼
   ┌──────────────────┐                    ┌──────────────────┐
   │  Organizational  │                    │    Pragmatic     │
   │    Competence    │                    │    Competence    │
   └────────┬─────────┘                    └────────┬─────────┘
       ┌────┴────┐                             ┌────┴────┐
       ▼         ▼                             ▼         ▼
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Grammatical competence:	Textual competence:	Pragmatic competence:	Sociolinguistic Competence:
1. Vocabulary 2. Morphology 3. Syntax 4. Phonology	1. Cohesion 2. Rhetorical Organization	1. Illocutionary competence-functional aspects of language	1. Differences in dialect or variety 2. Differences in register, naturalness, cultural references

(Bachman: 1990)

According to Bachman, grammatical competence and textual competence are equivalent to the first two competences as defined by Canale & Swain (1983). However, Canale and Swain's third competence of sociolinguistic competence was divided into two categories: illocutionary competence and sociolinguistic competence, like Bachman (1990) who further added strategic competence as an entirely separate element of communicative language ability. He claims that strategic competence works as the final decision using "knowledge structures," based on the background knowledge of the speakers who have added together with "language competence." Bachman (1990: p.107) states that strategic competence should be seen as the capacity that relates language competence, or knowledge of language, to the language user's knowledge structures and the features of the context in which

communication takes place. Strategic competence performs assessment, planning and execution functions in determining the most effective means of achieving a communicative goal.

2.3 Communication Strategies

As it has been said before, communication is an aspect of everyday life. The concepts of communication strategies have been acknowledged from early research in interlanguage, but it is only in the recent years that these concepts have been given attention as the focus of interlanguage research. Cohen (1998) defines communication strategies as: "those processes which are consciously selected by learners and which may result in action taken to enhance the learning or use of a second or foreign language, though storage, retention, recall, and application of information about the language" (Cohen, 1998: p.4).

Selinker (1972) introduced the concept of communication strategies in the learning processes of second language learners. Applied linguists, Faerch and Kasper (1995), define communication strategies as, "potentially conscious plans for solving what to an individual presents itself as a problem in reaching a particular communicative goal" (Brown, 1994: p.118). They claim that communication strategies differ from "learner strategies" in that communication is associated with output while learning is related to the input. (Reichelt,1990, p.586) is among those who found promising results in the investigation concerning relationships between training in strategy use and the linguistic gains that achieve in proficiency.

Rossiter (2003) says that the range of communication strategies available to L2 learners may be enhanced by explicit instruction. He adds that the development of curriculum for gifted second language learners must consider the students' elevated capacity for higher order thinking via the direct instructions of the purposes, limitations, and nuances of the use of communication strategies in their production of the target language.

For communication to succeed both parties need to work together and coordinate their individual actions and beliefs in order to build a mutual agreement on the content of their messages. From this perspective, it can be said that communicative problems arising in foreign language interaction are mutually shared problems, in the sense that their solution is the responsibility of all the interactional participants. Subsequently, communication strategies may need to be considered in relation to "a mutual attempt of two interlocutors to agree on a meaning in situations where requisite meaning structures do not seem to be shared" (Tarone, 1981, p.288).

By the term communication strategies, reference is made to all those techniques language learners use when, in their attempt to communicate in the foreign language with a reduced interlanguage system, may find that the target language items or structures desired to convey their messages are not available. In order to keep communication steady, learners' may circumvent by changing or reducing the content of their messages. In other words, they may avoid reference to a concept or topic in order to overcome the lack of the target language term or expression needed to convey this meaning.

2.3.1 Classification of Communication Strategies

In the context of this study, two main types of communication strategies are classified and these are achievement or compensatory strategies and avoidance strategies. However, there are different approaches to conceptualizing communication strategies. Among these are the communication strategies from the traditional view; communication strategies from Tarone's interactional (1997) perspective, and communication strategies from Dörnyei's (1995) extended view.
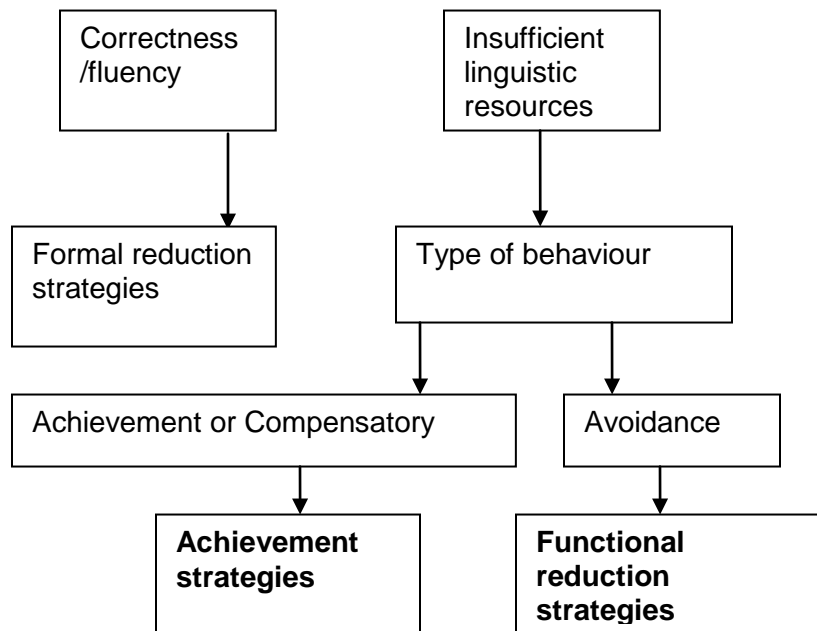
2.3.1.1 Communication strategies from the traditional view

Researchers originally saw communication strategies as verbal or nonverbal first-aid devices used to compensate for gaps in the speaker's L2 proficiency. This view is reflected in Tarone's (1977: p.195) definition, "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" and Faerch and Kasper's (1983b:p.36) definition 'communication strategies are potentially conscious plans for solving what to an individual presents itself as a problem in reaching a particular communicative goal'.

According to this conceptualization, communication strategies constitute a subtype of L2 problem-management efforts, dealing with language production problems that occur at the planning stage. They are separated from other types of problem-solving devices, meaning-negotiation and repair mechanisms (e.g. requesting and providing clarification), which involve the handing of problems that have already surfaced during the course of communication. The figure below indicates their division of communication strategies.

Figure 2.5: Types of communication strategies

Two main types of communication strategies are classified which are achievement or compensatory strategies and avoidance strategies.

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┌──────────────┐          ┌──────────────┐
│ Correctness  │          │ Insufficient │
│ /fluency     │          │ linguistic   │
│              │          │ resources    │
└──────┬───────┘          └──────┬───────┘
       │                         │
       ▼                         ▼
┌──────────────┐          ┌──────────────┐
│ Formal       │          │ Type of      │
│ reduction    │          │ behaviour    │
│ strategies   │          │              │
└──────────────┘          └──┬────────┬──┘
                             │        │
                             ▼        ▼
┌──────────────────────────┐   ┌──────────────┐
│ Achievement or           │   │ Avoidance    │
│ Compensatory             │   │              │
└────────────┬─────────────┘   └──────┬───────┘
             │                        │
             ▼                        ▼
   ┌──────────────────┐     ┌──────────────────┐
   │ **Achievement**  │     │ **Functional**   │
   │ **strategies**   │     │ **reduction**    │
   │                  │     │ **strategies**   │
   └──────────────────┘     └──────────────────┘
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(Faerch and Kasper, 1982)

2.3.1.2 Communication strategies from Tarone's interactional perspective

Tarone (1980) identifies communication strategies as mutual attempts to solve L2 communication problems by participants and she emphasizes on the social aspects of communication. Participants make tremendous effort in trying to overcome their lack of shared meanings, when something goes wrong and both parties try to devise a communication strategy to overcome the difficulty. This is characterized by the negotiation of an agreement on meaning between interlocutors (Tarone,1981:288).

This interactional approach was adopted in Tarone's study which consists of nine subjects, however Tarone (1981) had divided communication strategies into three types: paraphrase, borrowing and avoidance.

1. Paraphrase

    a. 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 water pipe)

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

    c. Circumlocution … the learner describes the characteristics or elements of the objects or action instead of using the appropriate target language item or structure (e.g. She is smoking something. I don't know what is the name.)

2. Borrowing

    a. Literal translation … the learner translates word for word from the native language

    b. Language switch … the learner uses the native language term without bothering to translate

    c. Appeal for assistance … the learner asks for the correct term (e.g. What is this? What called?)

    d. Mime … the learner uses non-verbal strategies in place of a lexical item or action

3. Avoidance

    a. Topic avoidance … the learner simply tries not to talk about concepts for which the target language item or structure is not known

    b. Message abandonment … the learner begins to talk about a concept but is unable to continue and stops in mid-utterance
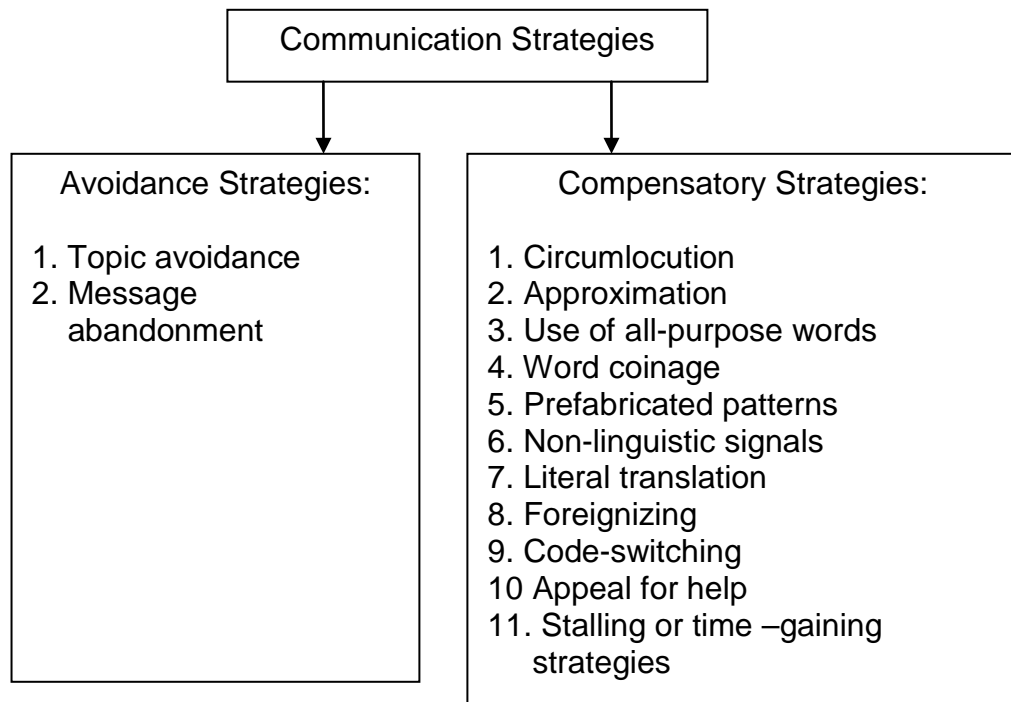
As indicated by Tarone, these strategies are used when second-language learners attempt to communicate with speakers of the target language. In conversations, speakers and listeners have to work together to exchange a message. Tarone's (1983:65) definition of communication strategies will be broadened, where the term is further extended to encompass a mutual attempt for two interlocutors to agree on a meaning in situations where requisite meaning structures do not seem to be shared. Meaning structures here would include both linguistic structures and sociolinguistic rule structure. Communication strategies, viewed from this perspective, may be seen as attempts to bridge interlocutors in real communication situations. Approximation, mime, and circumlocution may be used to bridge this gap. Message abandonment and avoidance may be used where the gap is perceived as unbridgeable.

However, in Tarone's words, "Communication Strategies are seen as tools used in a joint negotiation of meaning where both interlocutors are attempting to agree to a communicative goal." (Tarone,1980 :420). This Interactional perspective would allow for the inclusion of various repair mechanisms, which Tarone considered as communication strategies if their intention was "to clarify intended meaning rather than simply correct linguistic form" (Tarone,1980 :424). Even though Tarone herself never extended the scope of communication strategies' taxonomy to include interactional trouble-shooting mechanisms, other researchers did specifically list meaning negotiation strategies.

2.3.1.3 Communication strategies from Dörnyei's extended view

Tarone's categories of communication strategies explained above are not enough, however, some other categories from Celce-Murcia (1995 :28) needed to be combined with the use and the problems in the researches of the 1970s (Varadi, 1973 and others who have commanded a great deal of recent attention towards communication strategies) need to be analysed (see McDonough, 1999; Dörnyei, 1995; Rost & Ross,1991; Bialystok, 1990a; Bongaerts & Poulisse, 1989; Oxford & Crookall 1989). Some time ago, Faerch and Kasper, (1983a: p36) defined communication strategies as "a target to reach in a particular communicative goal." While the research of the last decade does indeed focus largely on the compensatory nature of communication strategies, more recent approaches seem to take a more positive view of communication strategies as elements of an overall strategic competence in which the learner has to bear all the positive facts of their flowing competence in order to send clear messages in the target language. According to Bongaerts and Poulisse (1989), such strategies may or may not be "potentially conscious", and support for such a conclusion comes from observations of first language acquisition strategies that are similar to those used by adults in second language learning contexts. Perhaps the best way to understand what is meant by communication strategy is to look at a typical list of such strategies in the table below which offers a taxonomy that reflects accepted categories over several decades of research (Dornyei,1995 :58). Dornyei's classification is a good basis for some further comments on communication strategies. It is mainly divided by two parts which are avoidance strategies and compensatory strategies as shown in the diagram below:

Figure 2.7 Communication Strategies

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                ┌─────────────────────────────┐
                │  Communication Strategies   │
                └─────────────────────────────┘
                     │                    │
                     ▼                    ▼
┌──────────────────────────┐  ┌──────────────────────────────┐
│ Avoidance Strategies:    │  │ Compensatory Strategies:     │
│                          │  │                              │
│ 1. Topic avoidance       │  │ 1. Circumlocution            │
│ 2. Message               │  │ 2. Approximation             │
│    abandonment           │  │ 3. Use of all-purpose words  │
│                          │  │ 4. Word coinage              │
│                          │  │ 5. Prefabricated patterns    │
│                          │  │ 6. Non-linguistic signals    │
│                          │  │ 7. Literal translation       │
│                          │  │ 8. Foreignizing              │
│                          │  │ 9. Code-switching            │
│                          │  │ 10 Appeal for help           │
│                          │  │ 11. Stalling or time –gaining │
│                          │  │     strategies               │
└──────────────────────────┘  └──────────────────────────────┘
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(Adapted from Dörnyei 1995:58)

2.3.2 Avoidance Strategy

This phenomenon initially appeared in an L2 study by Duskova, (1969) Avoidance (Schachter, 1974), or low representation (Levenston, 1971), is the procedural strategy that the speaker uses when substituting the required form with another, due to a lack of the necessary linguistic resources (Faerch and Kasper, (eds). 1983). It involves a plan with the objective of resolving a linguistic problem. "Linguistic problems" can be understood as "recognition by an individual…of the insufficiency of his … existing knowledge to reach a … goal and of the consequent need for expanding this knowledge" (Klaus and Buhr, 1976, :974).

Avoidance behavior is among the most difficult to recognize and document, but it may be the most prevalent for all levels of language learners on communication strategies. Hulstijn and Marchena (1989), authors of "Avoidance: Grammatical or Semantic Causes," clarify that avoidance strategies cannot be explained by using ignorance as a reason. As a strategy, avoidance techniques imply that a choice is made by the learner not to use a particular element of the target language system. In their study in avoidance, Laufer and Eliasson (1993) claim that "it presumes awareness, however faint, of a given target language feature, and it always involves a quasi-intentional or intentional choice to replace the feature by something else" (Laufer & Eliasson, 1993, :36). Learners sometimes choose to use those target language structures with which they are the most comfortable with thereby, playing safe. Avoidance strategy can allow students who have a tendency toward perfectionism, a way out of a communicative situation which is perceived to be heading towards frustration.

From Dornyei's approach, avoidance strategies are divided into two main parts: 1) Message abandonment which means leaving a message unfinished because of language difficulties; 2) Topic avoidance which means avoiding topic areas or concepts that pose language difficulties. Most learners avoid a word or message, rather than abandon the thought. He/she may simplify the utterance with a related word, concept or syntactic structure. If gifted students are geared towards a sound grammatical understanding of the language and provided a vast vocabulary bank from which to choose, this strategy can be utilized regularly to improve communication. Providing students with a strategy to prevent communication from ceasing will prolong discourse, thus allowing the intended message to be articulated.

2.3.3 Topic avoidance

Tarone, Frauenfeder and Selinker (1976); Tarone (1977); Corder (1976); Tarone, Corder and Dumas (1976); Faerch and Kasper (1983a) refer to the learner's decision to totally evade communication which requires the use of target language rules or forms which the learner does not yet know very well as topic avoidance. Faerch and Kasper (1983) maintain that the decision to avoid topics occurs in the planning stage of the communication as opposed to message abandonment which occurs when problems with retrieval are encountered in the execution phase.

Several other studies (Ervin 1979; Calvan and Campbell 1979; Tarone 1981; Kellerman 1977, 1978; Faerch and Kasper (1983a) have also taken this topic avoidance phenomenon into account. Tarone(1979:182) also discovered in her study that topic avoidance was "a particularly strong strategy" for her subjects, pointing out that " if they did not know how to describe an item in a picture, they simply did not mention it"

2.3.4 Message abandonment

Faerch and Kasper, as was pointed out earlier, claim that message abandonment occurs in the execution phase of a communication event when a problem with retrieval is encountered. Tarone, Cohen and Dumas (1976), however define this strategy in the following way:

> "communication of a topic is initiated but then cut short because the learner runs into difficulty with a target language form or rule. The learner stops in mid-sentence, with no appeal to authority to help finish the utterance (reprinted in Faerch and Kasper 1983a:11)

2.3.4.1 Semantic avoidance

Semantic avoidance is an example of the ambiguity that surrounds the definition and description of the nature of communication strategies. Tarone, Frauenfelder and Selinker(1976) and Blum-Kulka and Levenston(1983) refer to the phenomenon as one in which the learner deals with a topic by means of more general expressions when he is confronted by a planning or retrieval problem. Varadi labels this as 'meaning replacement', a strategy used when the learner tries to shift or replace his optimal meaning by "…substituting new subject matter preferably as his approximative system (AS) will allow." Varadi (1980:83) claims that when semantic avoidance occurs, although the topic might be somewhat "preserved", the result is an inevitable amount of vagueness.

Tarone, Frauenfelder and Selinker (1976:127) define semantic avoidance as 'lexical substitution' where a learner use a word in the target language which does not communicate the exact meaning intended but which shares some common features with the desired concept, so as to satisfy the learner. Calvan and Cambell (1979) maintain that it is at the lexical level that approximations most often occur. Early studies on L1 communication, in any case, have tended to focus on the lexical level.

2.3.5 Avoidance and empirical evidence

The few empirical studies carried out in this field have had, as a main research topic, the origin of avoidance. Schachter (1974), Hakuta (1976), Kleinmann (1977) and Dagut and Laufer (1985) have all agreed that it is due to the difference that exists with respect to syntactical structures between the mother tongue language and the second language. They

conclude that L1 plays an important role in the learning of L2, and avoidance is a valid index of learning difficulty that can be predicted through analysis. Schachter (1974) studied the frequency of relative clause sentences by adult students from two different languages, firstly Arabs and Persians and secondly, Chinese and Japanese. He found that the Chinese and Japanese had made fewer mistakes. This difference was due to the difficulty they have with this structure. This difficulty had caused them to use relative clauses very carefully, thus ensuring a low level of mistakes.

Hakuta (1976), like Schachter, concluded that avoidance was determined by the different syntactic difficulty between L1 and L2. However, the first exhaustive study of avoidance was by Kleinmann (1977), which concluded that avoidance could be considered as a symptom of transfer. Gass (1980) criticised Kleinmann's study, stating that avoidance does not depend on the differences between L1 and L2 and is not related to linguistic transfer. Chiang's study (1980) of relative clauses adds another new variant. Although agreeing with Kleinmann that avoidance stems from the differences between L1 and L2, he also considers that it can be explained by the proficiency level of the student. Babear (1988) carried out a study of avoidance of passive voice structures with Arabic and Hispanic students to show a relevant occurrence of this in both groups.

Irujo (1993) highlighted how Spanish speakers with a fluent knowledge of English avoided using English colloquial expressions. Laufer and Eliasson (1993) studied the phrasal verbs used by Swedish speaking English as L2 and found that avoidance occurred when these English expressions had a semantic structure which was very different from English.

2.3.6 Compensatory Strategies

Several definitions of compensatory strategies have been proposed but most definitions are based on the concept of "problematicity" (Kasper and Kellerman 1997: 2). Tarone (1977: 195) defines them as "conscious communication strategies that are used by an individual to overcome the crisis which occurs when language structures are inadequate to convey the individual's thought" while Poulisse (1990) suggests that "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, 1990 :88).

Compensatory strategies which is also called Achievement strategies have been popularly adopted for use in all the language resources to convey meaning, irrespective of whether the utterances are grammatical or socially acceptable or not. Improvisation, which is looking for a substitute to compensate for a gap in the language, is the primary element in this category. Learners who use such strategies could be described as risk takers who are confident in experimenting with the target language, but perhaps not very concerned with face, or losing it, in an interaction. This category would include guessing, paraphrasing and using cooperative strategies (Bygate, 1987 :44-46).

In order for spontaneous communication to take place effectively, achievement strategies are vital. This is not limited to a foreign language but to the mother tongue, too. Apart from this, restarts and repairs are more than common in on-going speech. As Johnson (2004) states, the speakers, whether language learners or native speakers, should get in or miss the boat, so as to avoid a communication break down. Cohen (1998) claims that there are no

"inherently good or bad" strategies but rather learners "have the potential to be used them effectively." He goes on to say that "the total number or variety of strategies employed and the frequency with which any given strategy is used are not necessarily indicators of how successful learners will be in a language task" (Cohen,1998, p.8).

There are variables that can influence the use of strategies. These could be demographic, such as age, cultural background or gender, or could be issues like language proficiency and learning style, as well as context, task demands and students' approaches. However, one can also assume that the learner using achievement strategies, would, at least, be more successful in an interactional situation. Poulisse (1990) has identified two main communication strategies types; conceptual and analytic strategy. She defines communication strategies as processes, operating on conceptual and linguistic knowledge representations, which are adopted by language users in the creation of alternative means of expression when linguistic shortcomings make it impossible for them to communicate their intended meanings in the preferred manner (Poulisse, 1990 :192-193). Dornyei (2000) on the other hand outlines eleven types of compensation strategies in a comprehensive manner which include circumlocution, word coinage, prefabricated patterns, appealing for help and staling or time- gaining strategies (Dornyei, 2000 :128).

2.3.6.1: Stalling or time gaining strategies

Using fillers or hesitation devices to fill pauses and to gain time to think (e.g., well, now let's see, uh, as a matter of fact). These devices are introduced in order to help speakers hold the floor and have time to think. Examples of phrases used for stalling are

"Hmm...Let me think", "Hmm... Let me see" and "That's a difficult question".

Under this theory, it is assumed that prefabricated chunks are stored as one unit in lexical in the lexicon and retrieved as a block. Generally, there devices are adopted to help speakers to hold the floor while thinking of the next sentence. These stalling or time gaining strategies are indicated when learners use pauses, fillers and hesitations (e.g. 'as a matter of fact', 'ah', 'yes', 'i mean', 'so', and 'actually'). Hesitation are performance features that indicate the existence of a communication problem; and the learners use them to gain time by repeating words, like 'er', 'uh', 'well', 'let me think', and 'em'.

It is assumed that a learner does not use all of these strategies, but chooses, if at all, from these according to, among others, the situation he is in, the meaning he wants to convey and the impression he wants to give. It should be understood that it is not always the lack of the language that can lead the learner to the use of communication strategies but other factors, too, such as the context and the learner's personality. Indeed, it is not in production only that strategies are used but also in comprehension. This fits in well with the interactional approach since communication is seen as being built by both interlocutors, and, at least some strategies are used as a result, perhaps due to the incomprehension of the original message.

2.3.6.2: Code-Switching

Including L1/L3 words with L1/L3 pronunciation in L2 speech; this may involve stretches of discourse ranging from single words to whole chunks and even complete turns. Here the speakers switch to Chinese and continue to express what they had difficulty in expressing.

2.3.6.3: Appeal for help

Asking for help from the interlocutor either directly (e.g., raised intonation, pause, eye contact, puzzled expression) or appealing for assistance are receptive skills (e.g., "Pardon me?") and not for production, as in "How do you say jinja in English?" The 'basic phrases' are: "I have no idea what you're talking about, How do you say that in English?, I don't get it, What do you mean? and Can you say that again?". In other words, it appeals for help to give explanation.

2.3.6.4: Approximation

Tarone (1977) explains Approximation as "the use of a single target language vocabulary item or structure, which the learner knows is not correct, but shares enough semantic features…." (cited in Bialystok, 1990 :40); and Dörnyei's definition is "using an alternative term which expresses the meaning of the target lexical item as closely as possible" (Dornyei, 1995 cited in Brown, 2000 :128). The speaker substitutes the desired unknown target language item for a new one, which is assumed to share enough semantic features with it to be correctly interpreted for e.g. 'you can see…a pigeon hole (letterbox). A learner can manoeuvre his production around difficult target language structures through approximation by using an alternative term which expresses the meaning of the target lexical item as closely as possible (e.g., ship for sailboat).

Approximation is also seen as the substitution of a familiar vocabulary for unknown structures. As the name implies, synonymy utilizes certain semantic structures understood to have the same meaning as others. In the substitution of true synonyms, the result is only the work of repetition, which, although not native-like, is still considered appropriate.

Allowing high-ability students to make use of the tools with which to expand their language structure and vocabulary, and subsequently giving them the permission to manipulate it in a way that communicates an idea effectively should be adopted by the students. Developing strategic competence, in addition to grammatical competence is essential for communication to develop and mature in gifted individuals.

2.3.6.5: Literal translation

Literal translation means translating literally a lexical item, idiom, compound word, or structure form L1 to L2. This occurs for example when a person doesn't know the English meaning of "巴黎", literal translation is "Paris". Another example is 'I made a big fault', this sentence can be translated into Chinese '我犯了大错'.

2.3.6.6: Circumlocution

Describing or exemplifying the target object of action (e.g., the thing you open bottles with for corkscrew) in language reveal strategies that are common to language learners and native speakers. Native speakers make use of such strategies when they find themselves unable to come up with the exact words. Second language learners may frequently have no alternative but to attempt to come as close as possible to their intended meaning through circumlocution. Learners may present a semantic structure in terms of its opposite, such as "not hard" to replace the unknown word "soft". They may substitute a description of a word or concept in place of a word or phrase that is not yet part of the student's knowledge base, like a student saying, "where you rest your head while you sleep" in place of "pillow." At times intended meaning in the production of second language learners may be modified or adjusted in order to bring the structure within the reach of his linguistic capabilities. While

caution needs to be exercised when employing the strategies of circumlocution or paraphrase, it seems that the proper way of teaching these strategies would be through the instruction of synonyms and antonyms in vocabulary lessons. Further, encouraging the use of a variety of ways to communicate a message can also greatly expand the potential for speech, and consequently, self-confidence maybe elected.

Some students will accept that the ultimate goal of language production is communicating a desired message rather than grammatical perfection. To that end, teaching communication strategies is of considerable help to assist in their ability to successfully communicate ideas which can dramatically improve self-efficacy and lessen the debilitations of perfectionist tendencies.

2.3.6.7: Non-linguistic signals

Non-linguistics signals consist of facial expressions, gestures, posture, and tone of voice which are important components to form good personal communicational interactions. This includes factors such as tone of voice, loudness, inflection, and pitch. Sometimes tone of voice can have a powerful effect on the meaning of a sentence. When something is said in a strong tone of voice, listeners might interpret approval and enthusiasm. On the other hand, when the same words are said in a hesitant tone of voice, it might convey disapproval and a lack of interest or confidence, particularly in a situation of anger, causing depression and hatred. The following figure indicates the various non-linguistic signals:
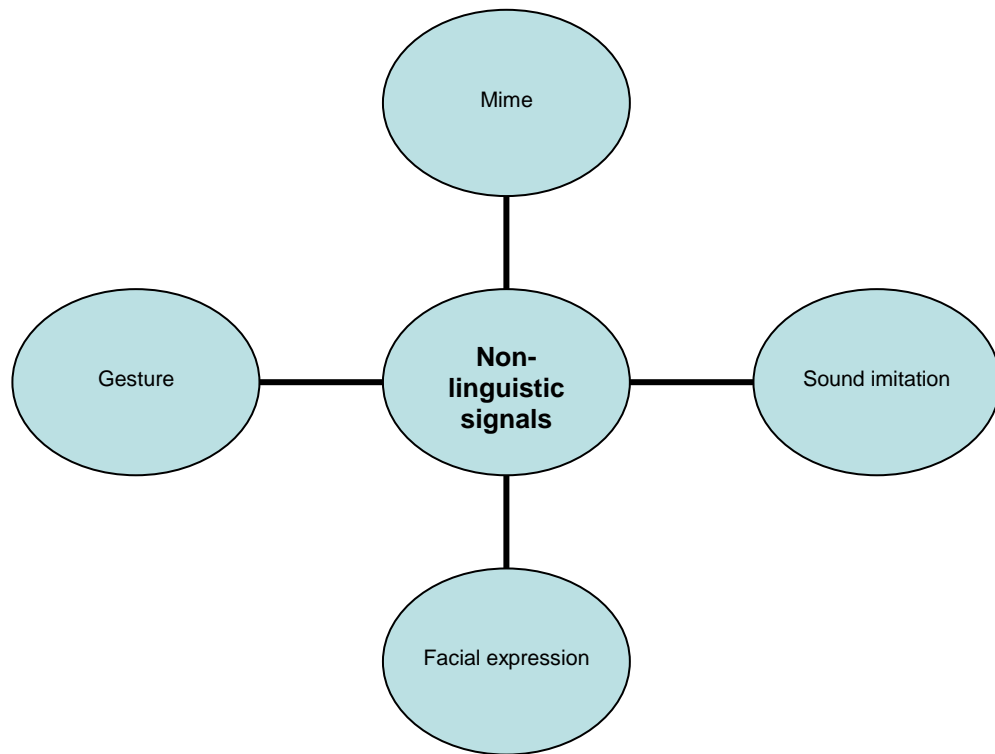
Facial Expression

Facial expressions are responsible for a huge proportion of nonverbal communication. Consider how much information, for example a smile or a frown can denote. While nonverbal communication and behaviour can vary dramatically between cultures, the facial expressions for happiness, sadness, anger, and fear are similar throughout the world.

Gestures

Deliberate movements and signals are an important way to communicate meaning without words. Common gestures include waving, pointing, and using fingers to indicate number or the amounts. Other gestures are arbitrary and related to culture.

Body Language and Posture

Posture and movement can also show a lot of potential meaning. Research on body language has grown significantly since the 1970's, but popular media has focused on the over-interpretation of defensive postures, arm-crossing, and leg-crossing, especially after the publication of Julius Fast's book Body Language, While these nonverbal behaviours can indicate feelings and attitudes, research suggests that body language is far more subtle and less definitive that previously believed.

2.4 Empirical research on communication strategies

Processes operating in language processing do not differ from those operating when communication strategies are used. Language is strategic when it is used for a purpose. Thus, Communicative Strategies are processes of communication used by non native speakers to overcome communicative (lexical) problems.

Different approaches adopted by Varadi (1983) and Tarone (1987) made a comparison of speakers' performances is story-telling tasks in their first and second languages. Another rather similar approach consists of a comparison of the performance of the native speakers and that of L2 speakers on an identical task (Hamayan and Tucker 1980; Ellis 1984). Bialystock (1983) have demanded a third approach that focuses on the use of specific lexical items in a picture story reconstruction task. Paribakht (1982) asks subjects to label pictures or translate from the L1, focusing also on the lexical items. Haastrup and Phillipson (1983) analyse the video- taped conversation between L2 and native speakers.

The findings of the above researches are suggestive rather than definitive. First of all, the proficiency level of the speaker can influences his choice of strategy. Tarone (1977) has pointed out those less able students whom she had investigated preferred reduction to achievement strategies while Ellis (1983) discovered that one of the speakers opted for reduction strategies as he progressed. Similarly, Ellis (1984) found that ESL children relied more on avoidance strategies while native speaking English children depended on paraphrase strategies. Bialystok (1983) noticed that advanced speakers used significantly more L2 based strategies and significantly fewer L1 based strategies than less advanced speakers.

2.5 Communication problems encounter by SLA

For Chinese students, the most common difficulty encountered is associated with language ability, academic performance, and social adjustment (Hanassab & Tidwel, 2002; Huntley, 1993; Ku, Lee, Richard, Pan, Wang, Tao, 2001; Sun, 2005; Sun & Chen, 1997; Sun & Zou, 2000; Wan, 1999; Zimmermann, 1995). Language ability plays a vital role in the process of communication. Language inefficiency could trigger a series of inconveniences. As a result of the different teaching and learning styles between China and foreign countries, students face a lot of problems in communication for as discussed in chapter one clearly indicates that is lack of emphasis on oral communication in English.

In China, teachers are regarded as respectable authorities, and students are taught to be quiet listeners; while in the United States, classes are interactive and informal (Wan, 1999). Lee (2001) also found that in China, students are encouraged to follow and obey their

teachers. Consequently, students seldom ask questions in class and are quiet. Wang (2001) pointed out that it is the lack of communication and a restrictive cultural notion of propriety that becomes the major obstacle to Chinese students' interactions.

2.6 Summary

As discussed in this chapter, communication is essential to maintain social relationship both in formal and informal contexts. Since communication is seen as a two-way social process, it is highly necessary for the existence of communicative competence. Various definitions have been given for communication competence. Among these definitions are those given by Chomsky (1965), Canale and Swain (1980) and Bachman (1990). In order for communication to be successful, various communication strategies have been adopted. The term communication strategies, was coined by Selinker (1972) but then it has undergone a steady growth of interest and considerable dispute. Numerous definition have been given by researchers like Varadi (1973), Tarone (1976), Corder (1978), Faerch and Kasper (1980), but all these researchers agree that CS are used to bridge the gap that is left by the limited vocabulary of the speakers with the intention to maintain effective communication.

Empirical research agree that communication strategies are used to attempt to bridge the gap that occurs in communication when a L2 speaker is unable to find the needed vocabulary to complete the communication effectively. Further, the various researchers too have identified a list of communicative strategies which on analysis can be divided into either compensatory or avoidance strategy as defined by Dornyei (1998). In total any kind of compensatory strategy used helps the speaker to achieve his intended meaning and thus

it is beneficial to second language learners as it is the way to overcome their communicative problems.