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DIPLOMOVÁ PRÁCE

Komunikační strategie, jejich použití a rozvoj u nerodilých mluvčích ve výuce angličtiny

Communication strategies, their usage and development by nonnative speakers in English language

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Anotace

Komunikační strategie, jejich použití a rozvoj u nerodilých mluvčích ve výuce angličtiny

Klíčová slova: komunikace, komunikační proces, komunikační strategie, taxonomie, praktická cvičení

Hlavním tématem této diplomové práce je vymezení, určení a prozkoumání komunikačních strategií. Teoretická část se zaměřuje na komunikaci všeobecně, poskytuje čtenáři celkový pohled na tuto problematiku. Další kapitoly se věnují už jen komunikačním strategiím, především vymezení pojmu a s ním spojené koncepty. Poslední kapitola teoretické části se zabývá nejznámějšími rozděleními komunikačních strategií.

Praktická část poskytuje cvičení zaměřená na komunikaci ale i cvičení na rozvíjení komunikačních strategií ve třídách na základní škole, což je často zanedbáváno. V neposlední řadě je uveden výzkum, který porovnává použití komunikačních strategií u dospělých a dětí učící se angličtině jako druhému jazyku. Výsledky výzkumu jsou zaneseny do přehledného grafu, který uzavírá tuto diplomovou práci.

<u>Abstract</u>

Communication strategies, their usage and development by non-native speakers in English language

Key words: communication, communication process, communication strategy, taxonomies, practical exercises

The main topic of this diploma thesis is to define, determine and examine communication strategies. The theoretical part concentrates on communication in general, and provides the reader with a complex view of this issue. The next chapters are devoted to communication strategies only, mainly defining the term and associated concepts. The last chapter of the theoretical part deals with the commonly known divisions of communication strategies.

The practical part of this thesis provides exercises which concentrate not only on communication but on exercises for development of communication strategies in classrooms including those in basic schools as well; an area which is very often neglected. Last but not least, is the research, which compares the usage of communication strategies by adults and pupils learning English as a second language. The results of the research are recorded in the graph which closes this diploma thesis.

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1. Introduction

Communication strategies are a neglected topic among foreign language teachers in the Czech Republic. The aim of this diploma thesis is to introduce communication strategies and their broad usage in the teaching of foreign languages. The structure is designed to introduce communication strategies and their usage in foreign language teaching. It consists of a theoretical and practical part.

It is well-known that almost no English teachers in the Czech Republic teach these strategies to their pupils. Either they do not know about them or they regard them as having lower priority. I went through the schooling system of the Czech Republic and have not encountered these strategies at all. None of my teachers either mentioned them or used them. It is not true that they are not important. They are crucial elements in the mastery of a foreign language, especially if one wants to attain the highest level to use a language as a native speaker.

I have chosen this issue for two reasons. The first I have already mentioned above. I want to enhance the importance of this area of foreign language teaching and get it into the consciousness of other foreign language teachers. The activities - prepared for these purposes in this diploma thesis, can be fully utilized by these teachers in their English lessons. But they are not restricted only to English. They can be adjusted as necessary by teachers of other foreign language and used in their lessons.

The second reason flows from the fact that, although these strategies experienced a great boom in the second half of the twentieth century. Linguists seemed to have stopped carrying out research or publishing articles, studies or books on this topic. I would like to recall these neglected strategies in order to restore their lost importance. The theoretical part deals with communication and its most interesting concepts, a definition of 'communication strategies', their brief history, elements influencing the choice of strategy and the most common taxonomies. Linguists such as Tarone, Faerch, Kasper or Bialystok have contributed to the wide dissemination of this subject and this diploma thesis reflects their main knowledge and ideas.

In contrast, the practical part offers a wide variety of communication activities, and, there are worksheets concentrating on practicing communication strategies. These worksheets were proposed for second language learners at second grade; namely 8th and 9th class in basic schools. I have chosen these classes because I am going to be a teacher of English and German at second grade in basic school and I can employ these worksheets in my lessons. The last pages of my diploma thesis are filled with research which examines the usage of communication strategies by non-native speakers, namely by adult learners and pupils at basic school.

To sum up, this diploma thesis provides the reader with overview of this issue. Moreover, it is supplemented by many examples of communication strategies which support the reader's further interest in this topic.

The aims of my work are these:

- to extend the reader's knowledge of the strategies
- to compare each taxonomy of communication strategies in terms of their extent
- to propose activities supporting the communicative approach in the classroom
- to develop worksheets concentrating on communication strategies
- to find out the communication strategies most used by school pupils and adult learners

Theoretical part

2. Communication

The theoretical part starts with a long chapter on *communication*, because communication is a part of communication strategies and these strategies were named because of it. I will concentrate especially in this part on topics such as the nature of communication, important concepts related to communication, and the rules of conversation and teacher-pupil communication which are, in my view, not only interesting but also provide useful hints for those dealing with communication.

2.1 Nature of communication

All living creatures need to communicate in their every day lives. It does not matter whether or not they use verbal or nonverbal behaviours, these behaviours maintain contact with others and form social relationships with them. Of course, animals differ from humans because they produce a specific system of sounds for communicating among themselves. People in most cases use words for this purpose and produce speech. Human beings use every day a very large number of words in various situations so there is no doubt that verbal communication is one of the most important components of their lives.

Communication is assumed to be an extensive concept, suitable for a discussion in a diploma thesis. The next paragraph reflects the distinct definitions of communication. In the article "Communication and Leadership", (U. S. Army: author – Clark Donald) communication is described as "the exchange and flow of information and ideas from one person to another; it involves a sender transmitting an idea, information, or feeling to a receiver." Gumperz gives a more detailed definition of communication, and states: Communication is a social activity requiring the coordinated efforts of two or more individuals. Mere talk to produce sentences, no matter how well formed or elegant the outcome, does not by itself constitute communication. Only when a move has elicited a response can we say communication is taking place [...] Before even deciding to take part in an interaction, we need to be able to infer, if only in the most general terms, what is the interaction about and what is expected of us. For example, we must be able to agree on whether we are just chatting to pass time, exchanging anecdotes or experiences, or whether the intent is to explore the details of particular issues.

(Gumperz 1982: 1)

Michael Canale cites characteristics of communication based on the work of Breen and Candlin (1980), Morrow (1977) and Widdowson (1978) as follows:

- it is a form of social interaction, and is therefore normally acquired and used in social interaction;
- it involves a high degree of unpredictability and creativity in form and message;
- it takes place in discourse and sociocultural contexts which provide constraints on appropriate language use and also clues as to correct interpretations of utterances;
- it is carried out under limiting psychological and other conditions such as memory constraints, fatigue and distractions;
- it always has a purpose (for example, to establish social relations, to persuade, or to promise);
- it involves authentic, as opposed to textbook-contrived language;
- it is judged as successful or not on the basis of actual outcomes.

(Canale 1983: 3-4)

In comparing Gumperz and Canale's statements about communication, there are not many differences; the basic statements are similar, but Gumperz concentrates more on interaction and claims that it does not depend on the outcome, but on the mutual interaction. In contrast, Canale stresses the importance of the outcome and adds that communication is carried out for a specific purpose.

2.2 Important concepts related to communication

In previous section the word *communication* has a broad meaning and we can imagine many things included in this word. Below there are the most important concepts connected with communication.

2.2.1 The communication process

I have chosen the term the *communication process* as the first. It reveals the communication phases step by step. The communication process has 3 main phases which are described in the article "Communication and Leadership":

Thought: First, information exists in the mind of the sender. This can be a concept, idea, information, or feelings.

Encoding: Next, a message is sent to a receiver in words or other symbols.

Decoding: Lastly, the receiver translates the words or symbols into a concept or information that he/she can understand.

(http://www.nwlink.com/~donclark/leader/leadcom.html#process: 1)

Further, according to this article, the receiver gets two elements, namely *content* and *context* in the communication process. *Content* "contains the actual words or symbols of the message that is known as language – the spoken and written words combined into phrases that make grammatical and semantic sense." Whereas *context* "points out the way the message is delivered and is known as paralanguage – it is the nonverbal elements in speech such as the tone of voice, the look in the sender's eyes, body language, hand gestures, and state of emotions (anger, fear, uncertainty, confidence, etc.) that can be detected."

(http://www.nwlink.com/~donclark/leader/leadcom.html#process: 1)

2.2.2 Active listening and feedback

These two notions were grouped together because they are interrelated. They are used in the third phase of communication: decoding. The receiver listens to the message actively to produce proper feedback to the sender. Listening in general is divided into two main categories: passive and active. Passive listening is characterized as free listening without any purpose. You listen to music, radio or television and it serves as background for your main activity. On the other hand, if you listen actively, you listen to something on purpose. An example can be mentioned listening during foreign language lessons in schools.

Feedback is the last step in communication; it tells the sender that the receiver listened to him and that he can react to his utterances. It does not have to be only spoken but written as well. For instance if the pupils write papers, the results provide certain feedback not only to the pupils but the teacher also. In addition to these types of feedback, nonverbal feedback should be stressed as important in communication. Various gestures such as nodding or smiling can replace spoken words.

2.2.3 Communicative competence

Communicative competence is assumed, with Canale, to be "the underlying systems of knowledge and skill required for communication (e.g. knowledge of vocabulary and skill in using the sociolinguistic conventions for a given language)" (Canale and Swain 1980, paraphrased in Canale 1983). This competence is emphasized especially in the domain of teaching foreign languages where it must be respected by the teachers who must prepare exercises involving speaking activities to develop the communicative skills. Canale (1983: 5) states:

It is important to stress again (see Canale and Swain 1980, p. 34) that communicative competence is an essential part of actual communication and refers to both knowledge and skill in using this knowledge when interacting in actual communication. Knowledge refers here to what one knows (consciously and unconsciously) about the language and about other aspects of communicative language use; skill refers to how well one can perform this knowledge in actual communication.

As pointed out by Canale (1983: 6), there are four areas of knowledge and skill: grammatical competence (knowledge of the grammatical rules of the target language) sociolinguistic competence (knowledge of the social adequacy of the rules of language use), discourse competence and strategic competence (knowledge of verbal and non/verbal communication strategies). I will concentrate on strategic competence later because it is connected with the topic of this diploma thesis.

2.2.4 Referential communication

Dickson (1982: 1) defines referential communication as "that type of communication involved in such activities as giving directions on a map, telling someone how to assemble a piece of equipment, or how to select a specific object from a larger set of objects." The activities mentioned above are described in the area of

second language studies as *tasks*. There are two types of tasks according to Yule (1997: 1-2), "they might be real-world tasks encountered in everyday experience or pedagogical tasks specifically designed for second language classroom use." We should not forget to add that "referential communication tasks represent research instruments that differ from other techniques of the investigation of second language acquisition" (ibid.).

Yule (1997: 9) defines reference as "some kind of basic connection between words and things." We should understand how reference actually works, rather than how we often assume it works. In short, "reference is an action through which a speaker (or writer) uses linguistic forms to enable a listener or reader to identify something" (ibid.).

The practical part of this thesis offers referential communication tasks which can be used as exercises to support communicative competence in a second language class.

2.3 Rules of conversation

The issue of 'rules of conversation' is presented as the next subchapter. This topic belongs rightfully to this chapter *Communication* because these rules can get a person into troubles if s/he does not manage them, and his/her communication efforts can easily fail.

Native speakers do not have to learn rules of conversation of their native language because they are immersed in its environment and use the rules automatically without thinking. In contrast, pupils, students or adult learners of foreign languages have to learn these rules of conversation for the given language through various methods at schools, universities or courses.

The following phases of speech should be known by all learners for better communication with an interlocutor (no matter if they use them in their native language or in a foreign language). At first, conversation is opened with certain phrases, then turn-taking follows and finally, conversation is closed, again with certain phrases. Turntaking seems to cause most problems because it is difficult to recognize when to speak.

Beňuš (2009: 19) wrote a study about *turn-taking strategies*. He stresses the importance of *turn-latencies*, the distribution of turn types and gender of the interlocutors. These factors influence the conversation in many ways.

Turn-takings are governed by certain rules. For example, if the speaker stops in mid-sentence, it is against the rule to jump in and interrupt him. But it is sometimes difficult to recognize if the behaviour is right or wrong. In his study Beňuš describes a situation whether we should start speaking 0. 2 seconds after the interlocutor finished speaking. In this case waiting loger would be awkward while waiting less would be rude. It is also important to add that turn-taking behaviour is acquired unconsciously and without explicit instructions in the native language and is clearly socially-determined so it means that the rules and conventions differ from culture to culture (Beňuš 2009: 19).

Mulholland (1991: 54-63) examines turn-taking and stresses that there are four possible behaviours involved in the speaking turn:

- 1) yielding a turn
- 2) holding the floor
- 3) claiming the turn
- 4) listening

He listed a few situations and expressions appropriate to each speaking turn, but below are described the most interesting expressions which can be useful to the English learners.

1) Yielding a turn

To recognize the start of speaking is difficult because we do not know if the speaker wants to continue or stops speaking. Yielding a turn helps us to distinguish an opportunity to speak. Mulholland (1991: 55) identified these elements as part of the process:

- 1) The grammatical construction of the speaker's language
- 2) The voice quality of the speaker
- 3) Certain phrases as 'and so on', 'and things', 'so, anyway'
- 4) The non-verbal signals
- 2) Holding the floor

But sometimes it is very complicated to hold a turn because other people want to speak as well. According to Mulholland (1991: 56), if you follow these methods, you will be successful with holding a turn:

- 1) Announcing of a long turn 'I wish to make three points'
- 2) Rejection phrases as 'Just a minute', 'Let me finish', Hang on' or 'Just wait'.
- 3) Terminating signals-speaking in 'periodic' sentences
- 4) Not pausing for breath and speaking loudly and quickly
- 5) Not looking at the person who is indicating a wish to take a turn
- 6) Assertive non-verbal signals
- 3) Claiming a turn

A hearer wishes sometimes to claim a turn. Mulholland (1991: 56) listed several hints as tohow to claim a turn:

- 1) Noticing a possible termination point and beginning to speak quickly
- 2) Overlapping in speech with the speaker
- 3) Interrupting in a pause by the speaker
- 4) Beginning to speak hesitantly

- 5) Supportive noises
- 6) Responding a question, going beyond the response to initiate your own move
- 7) Using non verbal language
- 8) Trying to catch the speaker's eye
- 4) Listening

Mulholland (1991: 58) made this list of the devices used in being a good listener in a conversation:

- 1) Support noises as 'mhm', 'aha', 'Yes', 'That's great', 'Exactly'
- Positive encouragement as 'Go on', 'What happened next?' or 'Tell them about the X'

The above-mentioned rules are valid for English communication in general. Hymes (1972a) describes these as rules of speaking: the patterns of sociolinguistic behaviour of the target language. These rules concentrate mainly on vocabulary in specific situations with respect to the varieties of English (American, British...). Wolfson (1983: 61) stresses that "if the learners want to communicate effectively with the native speakers of the language they are learning, they must understand and know appropriate speech behaviour."

Foreign-language learners usually make mistakes by using the wrong speaking rules; they are influenced by their mother tongue. Sometimes it can be insulting and sometimes the native speaker can recognize that you have not mastered the language very well. An illustrative example shows the wrong use of the title 'Mrs' in American English.

Wolfson's example (1983: 65) is "Thank you, Mrs." This use is wrong because if you address somebody by the abbreviations 'Mrs', you should add his/her last name. According to Wolfson (1983: 66) it is useful to know that the form 'Mrs' differs from the forms 'Mr' and 'Miss' it is not a free form in modern American English and it cannot be used without the addition of the addressee's last name. From the above-mentioned literature it follows that the rules of conversation support the idea of sociocultural competence. This sociocultural competence shows its importance. It is important to know not only the grammar rules and vocabulary, but that culture is also a part of the foreign language one is learning.

2.4 Teacher-pupil communication

The last section of the chapter *Communication* deals with the relationship between the teacher and the pupil in the classroom and the importance of communication in the school environment. My own experiences during teaching practice at basic school have proved to be invaluable experience in this section.

Children in primary grades spend almost half of the day with one teacher who knows them very well. On the other hand, children in secondary grades have more teachers who teach them only one subject. This is the reason why it takes a longer time to get to know them and sometimes is difficult to identify, for example, pathological phenomena. Most of us have gone through schooling and it is noticeable that the system has changed since my mother attended school; for one thing, as I have mentioned above, communicative competence is emphasized in lessons.

Obviously, a good teacher will be respected in the classroom and show interest in his/her subject. S/he does not take it as everyday routine, but s/he prepares the materials improving his/her teaching methods and provides the pupils space for discussion. The pupils themselves listen to the teacher with interest and are not ashamed to ask questions. But sometimes it is not easy to create such an atmosphere as Jones (1981: 101) points out that "student disruptions will occur frequently in classes that are poorly organized and managed where students are not provided with appropriate and instructional tasks".

An article on the internet (The positive teacher-student relationship) provides a fitting sentence for summing up this section of 'teacher-pupil communication':

For teachers conducting a classroom and shaping the minds of the pupils, an effectively communicating teacher should give appropriate and helpful feedback to their students. A successful relationship between a teacher and a pupil forms a good base for the future interaction and getting confidence in the teacher.

(http://www.csun.edu/~acc50786/Education.html: 1)

3. Communication strategies

"It is through the adoption of appropriate learning sets and strategies that learners can often be successful even when the talents they bring to the task are moderate, or indeed only minimal" (Carroll 1977: 2).

This chapter is called *Communication strategies* (CS) and describes the essential notions belonging to the crucial points of this diploma thesis. This chapter is the last section of the theoretical part and concentrates on defining, identifying and evaluating CS in general. It is followed by a discussion of the methods adopted by speakers in choosing a communication strategy, elements influencing this decision-making and the classification systems of CS. It is important to stress that this thesis mostly deals with communication strategies adopted by the second-language learner, but that the use of these strategies is not confirmed to second-language speakers.

For clarity, I would like now to present some examples of CS, because not all people are acquainted with this problem area and these examples are a good introduction. They were adopted from a study by Paribakht (1985: 135-138) and of course, there are other types of strategies (See the last section concerned with the different taxonomies of CS).

'Is the same like lamp' (lantern)

This strategy is called *positive comparison* and exploits the similarities between the words.

'When you don't have it, you're scared' (courage)

Next strategy is called *negative comparison* and expresses the required word by contrast.

'Peacock' (pride)

The last given strategy is called *metonymy*. This term is shared in more languages so there is no need to describe it.

3.1 Defining communication strategies

To define precisely the meaning and function of CS is very difficult. The linguists who deal with these questions cannot find a uniform description of CS; there are so many controversies. I will aim for choosing the best statements about CS and provide brief directions to distinguish CS from the rest of the strategies.

Firstly, the terminology must be clarified because two terms are used:

- communicative competence, and
- communication strategies

As I mentioned above, Canale (1983) finds four areas of knowledge and skill and one of them is called 'strategic competence'. This was defined by Canale and Swain (1980: 30) as "verbal and non-verbal communication strategies that may be called into action to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to performance variables or to insufficient competence." Some authors or linguists use both terms 'communication competence' or 'communication strategies' for marking this phenomenon. Faerch and Kasper (1986) summarize that communication competence is a hyperonym for CS and learning strategies. This statement is confirmed by Corder (1978a) who also distinguishes between *communication strategies* and *learning strategies*. He observes this difference especially in the usage 'learning strategies' help with the development of interlanguage systems and 'communication strategies' help to overcome the communicating problems which occur within the conversation. Bialystok (1983: 101) defines this distinction more precisely:

The learning strategies refer to activities in which the learner may engage for the purpose of improving target language competence and hence, are revealed by the learner [...] Communication strategies are revealed through linguistic analyses of the learner's interlanguage.

In my experience, almost all books dealing with this issue use the term 'communication strategies'.

To best present these strategies, I would like to introduce these strategies and the researchers dealing with them in a brief historical overview. Larry Selinker was the first researcher who created the term *communication strategy*, which he defined in terms of interlanguage as "strategies of second language communication" (Selinker 1972: 229). The next contributor in this domain was Elaine Tarone who with her associates published two studies (Tarone, 1977, Tarone, Cohen & Dumas, 1976) concentrating on CS. Moreover, she defined the term *communication strategy* and coined the first *taxonomy of CS*. Later CS were incorporated as a strategic competence into Canale and Swain's model of competences (Canale and Swain 1980; Canale 1983). The 1980s were major years for CS because most of the major research was published then and the popularity of these strategies increased (e.g. Faerch and Kasper, 1983; Paribakht, 1985; Bongaerts and Poulisse, 1989; Bialystok, 1990). Particularly important at this time was the research carried out in 1980s in the Netherlands at Nijmegen University which became the dominant centre for CS studies (Dörnyei and Thurrell 1997: 175-177).

3.1.1 Definitions of communication strategies

There are few definitions of CS and they are slightly different, but they are trying to describe the same thing in a different way. Tarone (1977: 195) states that communication strategies are "used by an individual to overcome the crisis which occurs when language structures are inadequate to convey the individual's thought." The next definition of CS was written by Faerch & Kasper (1983a: 36); they are "potentially conscious plans for solving what to an individual presents itself as a problem in reaching a particular communicative goal." Poulisse asserts that CS 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 short-comings" (Poulisse et al. 1984: 72).

A study by Faerch and Kasper (1984), which is called "Two ways of defining CS", deals with two different definitions which were made by Faerch, Kasper and Tarone. Tarone (1980: 420) presents her "interactional perspective" and states about CS

that "CS are seen as tools used in a joint negotiation of meaning where both interlocutors are attempting to agree as to a communicative goal." A "psycholinguistic" definition suggested by Faerch and Kasper (1984: 45) defines CS as "related to individual language users' experience of communicative problems and the solutions (cooperative or noncooperative) they pursue." For better understanding, Tarone (1980, cited in Faerch and Kasper 1984: 51) defined the negotiation of meaning as "a joint effort of two interlocutors and it is central to the concept of CS."

It in short, these strategies should be used if you would like the conversation to proceed smoothly and fluently. The speaker is able to cope with conversation problems without any pauses or stammers because s/he wants to reduce their speech or want to achieve their goal by all possible means. In my view, communication strategies can be employed in L1 as in L2 or L3. It can happen that you use these strategies without knowing them.

3.1.2 Three features of communication strategies

As I wrote above, it is difficult to define CS, but these strategies have characteristic features - problematicity, consciousness and intentionality. These features reveal the main points of these strategies and enable linguists or teachers to compare them with other strategies which are frequently used in other branches. Can we really rely on these features? They are questioned not only by Ellen Bialystok, who devised them, but also Faerch and Kasper, whose work deals with similar features of CS.

Ellen Bialystok (1990: 3) states that communication strategies are used only if there is a problem and the speaker perceives it. Bialystok supports her statement with two implications:

First, the way in which speakers use language strategically, that is, when strategies are being employed, would need to be kept distinct from the way in which those speakers used language nonstrategically, that is, for ordinary communication. [...] A second implication of using problemacity

as a defining feature is that it leaves uncertain the status of communicative language use that is not normally perceived as problematic, but which none the less may be strategic.

But she also adds that there are certain situations where there is no problem and the speaker uses them.

Faerch and Kasper (1983: 31) adopt the term 'problem-orientedness'. In comparison with Bialystok, they concentrate more on communicative needs. The syllabus should be made up of all communicative functions and linguistic means for learners. After participating in such a course, learners are prepared for the problems which can occur in a conversation. However, they stress that it is better to prevent the learner from running into communicative problems. "In order to be able to do so, it will be necessary to learn much more about the types of communication problems which might occur in various types of interaction, and about how learners cope with them most successfully" (Faerch and Kasper 1983: 32).

'Consciousness' is described as the second feature of CS. Bialystok included consciousness among the features of CS, but it is not easy to define the boundaries between consciousness and unconsciousness. Further, Bialystok (1983: 101) adds that "hence even if the distinction between conscious and unconscious is accepted theoretically, its practical measurement is virtually impossible and its usefulness thereby decreased." She also states that

if communication strategies are truly conscious events of language use, then it follows that speakers who employ them are aware (to some extent, in some undefined way) of having done so. Yet is not self-evident that speakers are indeed aware that their utterances constitute strategic uses of language.

(Bialystok 1990: 4)

The feature 'consciousness' is understood by Faerch and Kasper (1983: 32) a little differently:

The point is rather that a learner who has gone through a stage of conscious analysis of a given problem in a given context in terms of an explicit situational assessment, and the conscious establishment of a plan (or alternatives plans) geared at its solution, might be better capable of applying such 'strategic' knowledge to new situations in a creative and efficient way. (cf. Bialystok 1990)

In addition to these two features, Bialystok deals with the question of intentionality. It is supposed that a learner will adopt a repertoire of strategies which s/he can use and knows. S/he chooses the right one and it helps him/her to achieve the desired effects. "Thus, one would expect that learners would select a strategy according to some relevant factor, such as the learner's level of proficiency with the language, the nature of the concept communicated, the conditions under which communication is occurring, and so on" (Bialystok 1990: 5).

3.1.3 Identifying communication strategies

We have already got to known the definitions of CS and the features or criteria which characterize them. The last part of this section is called *Identifying communication strategies* and will be concerned with hints for recognizing CS in a a common speech, defining strategic behavior for second-language learners, what the strategies are and the principles of their use. This part follows up the previous subchapter. Here will be mentioned issues such as strategic and nonstrategic language, problematicity and consciousness, again relating to more precise and detailed descriptions of CS.

Language use has a number of descriptive levels, see table 1 (p. 21) below, he last of which is called 'specific types of strategies' and that is the last area we shall deal with. But first it is necessary to discuss the difference between strategy and process. Processes are divided into 3 categories:

• visual processes

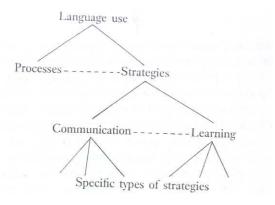
- computational processes, and
- mental processes.

According to Bialystok (1990: 15) "processes can be completely unconscious and inaccessible to the individual, such as the visual processes that allow us to recognize faces, judge distances, and read text." Further she claims that "other processes operate at a higher level and are more amenable to inspection and modification, such as the computational processes that allow us to add a column of numbers or follow a route on a map." She stresses that

mental processes of both these kinds control communication as well: relatively unconscious processes are responsible for generating well-formed utterances according to the rules of grammar, while more conscious processes are involved in monitoring the conversation and determining the intentional content of utterances.

Blum and Levenstone (1978: 402) assert that strategies are "the way the learner arrives at a certain usage at a specific point in time." Faerch and Kasper (1983: 119-139) published a Blum and Levenston's study called "Universals of lexical simplification". Blum and Levenston introduce as an example of simplification "the use of a hyperonym (e.g. flower in place of rose) by a teacher in the classroom is a strategy of communication, used to overcome the learner's lack of vocabulary."

TABLE 1



From E. Bialystok, Communication strategies, 1990, page 15

Such examples of simplification can change the organization of the second language. The word *flower* is often used as a reference to *rose* and the learner's interlanguage is simplified. Blum and Levenstone (1978: 402) define this process as "the systematic series of steps by which the learner arrives at the same usage over time." Blum and Levenstone were among the first to describe this process of simplification, which became one of the CS. Particularly interesting is their taxonomy, based on lexical simplification, influenced the taxonomy of communication strategies. Elaine Tarone's taxonomy of CS is similar.

Blum and Levenstone (1978) were interested in strategies and divided them into two groups: strategies that initiate processes and strategies that are situation bound, see the table 2 (p. 22) below. They suggested that Group A, which they called "Potentially process initiating strategies" might be seen as learning strategies. Moreover, Group B "Situation bound strategies" - are equivalent to the typical communication strategy.

TABLE 2

Group A: Potentially process initiating	Group B: Situation bound	
 1 Overgeneralization realized by: a) the use of superordinate terms b) approximation c) the use of synonymy d) word coinage e) the use of converse terms 	 Circumlocution and paraphrase Language switch Appeal to authority Change of topic Semantic avoidance 	18 2 2
2 Transfer		

Communication strategies of lexical simplification

From S. Blum-Kulka and E. Levenstone, Universals of lexical simplification, p. 126. In C. Faerch and G. Kasper (Eds), Strategies in Interlanguage Communication, Longman, 1983

There are a few other views on the problem of defining strategies. Selinger (1984: 38) stresses the contrast between strategy and tactic. He presents strategies as "universal, age-, context- independent, and when engaged must be assumed to lead to long-term acquisition." According to him (ibid.), tactics are "dependent on a wide variety of factors such as environment, age, personality, affective constraints, and first language."

Selinger, Blum and Levenstone have shown possible solutions to these problems, but the answer to the question of the difference between strategy and process is ambiguous and there are many factors which influence it. Bialystok concludes:

The proposals to discriminate between strategy and process are sensible and lead to a rational means for relating strategy and process, but the use of temporality as the deciding criterion presents some difficulties with the analysis. The main problem is that the critical dimension which serves to distinguish strategies from processes lacks objective measure. (Bialystok 1990: 18)

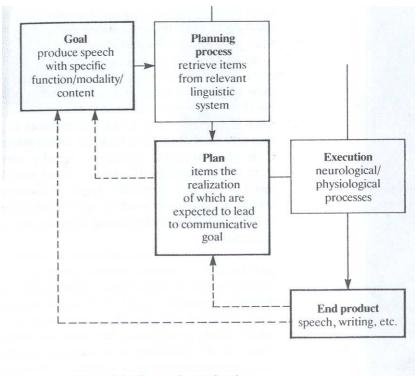
Faerch and Kasper see a difference between *plans* and *strategies* in foreign language communication. They adopted a psycholinguistic approach "The approach we adopt is psycholinguistic in that we locate communication strategies within a general model of speech production." (1983a: 22). They proposed this typology as a framework for better identification of CS.

They used a simplified general model of speech production which describes the main phases as a planning phase and an execution phase.

The model divides into phases: a planning phase, comprising 'goal', 'planning process' and 'plan', and an execution phase, which comprises 'plan', 'execution process' and 'action'. [...] The aim of the planning phase is to develop a plan, the execution of which will result in an action which will lead to the actional goal.

(Faerch and Kasper 1983a: 23)

TABLE 3



A model of speech production

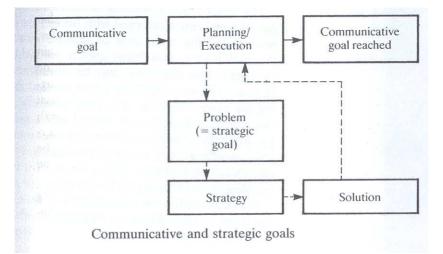
From C. Faerch and G. Kasper, Plans and strategies in foreign language communication, p. 25. In C. Faerch and G. Kasper (Eds), Strategies in Interlanguage Communication, Longman, 1983

It is important to stress that they distinguish the planning process and the plan itself. They solve the question of whether a conversation can take place without a plan, that it is important for our treatment of CS. Generally, they point out that "we adopt what we consider the stronger claim as seen from a cognitivist view and consider all intellectual processes to be planned by either ready-made, automatic plans or by plans constructed ad hoc" (1983a: 24). There is a goal in table 3 (p. 23) above and it is understood as a communicative goal. This communicative goal emerges in communicative events related to a conversation or writing a letter. They propose that "a communicative event (e.g. a conversation or writing a letter) can be characterized as having both a global goal (or possibly a number of global goals), holding for the entire event, and a series of local goals which appear as part of the execution of the global goal(s)."

Faerch and Kasper (1983a: 25) summarize that, in the planning phase, the learner thinks of rules and items which are convenient for a plan. The execution of the second phase leads to some verbal behavior which satisfies the original goal. It is interesting that the planning phase is automatic or subconscious in L1 conversation. This model of speech is important for a better understanding of the process of CS.

A contrasting view is raised by Faerch and Kasper (1983a: 33) in defining strategic plans. They state that "strategic plans are not identical with plans established in order to reach a communicative goal: the goal of a strategy (the strategic goal) is the problem, and the product of the execution phase controlled by the strategy is a solution to this problem." See table 4 (p. 25) and compare it with table 3 (p. 23).

TABLE 4



From C. Faerch and G. Kasper, Plans and strategies in foreign language communication, p. 33. In C. Faerch and G. Kasper (Eds), Strategies in Interlanguage Communication, Longman, 1983

The last paragraphs of this section describe criteria for identifying CS, using all the rules and items referring to the topic. Of course, there are several hypotheses for the identification of CS. Linguists do not always agree.

I have presented some basic parameters that attempted to distinguish between a strategy and other factors which influence CS. We should respect these factors and take them into account when we think of a communication strategy. Bialystok summarized the opinions of other linguists on this issue:

Blum and Levenston, and Seliger, distinguished strategy from process by evaluating temporal conditions [...] Faerch and Kasper set aside processes as referring to events at a different level of analysis, then distinguished strategy from plan in terms of problem-relatedness and consciousness of the event (see the features of CS). (Bialystok 1990:23)

In the following, these two criteria (behavioural evidence and objective measure) need to be kept in order to distinguish CS from other constructs. Bialystok (1990: 23) states that "if we are to assume that strategies and processes are unique systems underlying

production, then there must be distinct non-overlapping evidence for the existence of each." She adds that processes or strategies need not be directly observable. Faerch and Kasper are closest to this in their statements about *plan*. They distinguish performance features which are called *temporal variables* such as: rate of articulation-pauses, drawls, repeats; self-repairs (false starts and new starts) and speech slips (lapses and speech errors). These temporal variables can signal the presence of strategic intervention, but we cannot rely on it (1983b: 214).

Bialystok (1990: 24) presents as the second criterion *objectiveness* for better distinguishing between strategy and process. It is difficult to follow this criterion because we cannot recognize from a single speech whether communication was governed by a strategy or by a process. As a part of this criterion, it is important to be aware of the mental states of language learners.

A summary of these rules about the differing criteria for identifying communication strategies was made by Bialystok (ibid.) who states that "to define the criteria by which communication can be attributed to strategic intervention have been fragile. No criterion proposed thus far has managed to indicate the special part of language production that is properly strategic." A clearer framework of CS will be introduced with the taxonomies of CS.

3.2 Elements influencing the choice of communication strategies

In this part, I would like to concentrate on the elements influencing the choice of communication strategies. The following elements were chosen as important:

- the proficiency level of the learner
- features of the communicative situation
- the nature of the task

This diploma thesis will describe on the following pages the proficiency of the learner especially in more details because it is seen as the most controversial and discussed issue.

3.2.1 Proficiency level of the learner

The relationship between strategic competence and language proficiency has been examined by many linguists e.g. Tarone 1977, Corder 1978a, Bachman and Palmer 1981 or Bialystok and Fröhlich 1980. Each linguist defined this relationship differently with respect to some factors. Bachman and Palmer studied the learner's varying strategic abilities. On the other hand, Bialystok and Fröhlich listed some interactions between learners' levels of target language knowledge and their strategy use (Paribakht 1985: 1). Bialystok (1990: 48) stresses in her book that "the strategies make different linguistic demands, and some may be too sophisticated for less advanced language learners."

Also as with the definition data, the quality and effectiveness of the strategy did vary with the proficiency of the speaker. Furthermore, in studies comparing learners of different proficiency levels solving the same tasks, proficiency was virtually never related to the selection of either the conceptual or the code strategy. [...] Selection of a strategy was in general not made on the basis of speaker proficiency. (Bialystok 1990: 112)

Bialystok (1990: 112) takes into account that there is a problem with the specification of the difference between the compensatory strategy and the properties of the referent. She points out a relation between the object itself and the properties. Concepts such as hope, love, justice - so-called abstract concepts - are expressed through the conceptual strategy. She has presented the conclusion that "strategy choice, that is, is not determined by the properties of the referent, but the specific information incorporated in the strategy is very sensitive to those properties" (1990: 113). Kellerman (1991), cited in Bialystok, (1990) claims that "the form that referential communication

will take for a native speaker is determined by the speaker's goal and the need to satisfy the usual constraints present in the speech setting."

At this point I would like to introduce in two short studies published by Ellen Bialystok and Tahereh Paribakht which are concerned with the influence of CS by of the proficiency level of a learner. Both these studies are a significant contribution to this problem area and other similar domains. Bialystok (1983: 103) has chosen 'picture reconstruction task' for her research. There are some specific criteria which the task requires. Firstly "it has to simulate real communicative exchange in which one of the interlocutors was a monolingual speaker of the target language." Secondly "the task had to provide an incentive for the learner to attempt to convey difficult information." Thirdly "it was necessary to have control over the items for which the communication strategies were to be examined."

In Bialystok's study, there were a group of sixteen grade 12 students learning French in high school and a group of 14 adults learning French in a Civil Service French Language Training Programme. These 16 grade 12 students were divided for analysis into two groups. All these people included into the research, completed a cloze test designed to identify their language proficiency. The task was to describe a picture to a French native speaker so that he can could reconstruct it. The research was based on observations of the ability of the learner to describe 8 target items referring to the main topic. The picture is reconstructed on a large flannelboard on which the native speaker places the items as they are described. Of course, there are some false items (e.g. semantic similarities, phonetic similarities or items which fit into the context of the picture) designed to confuse the subject (ibid.).

After this research a new taxonomy of CS was devised. The basic classification from Tarone's taxonomy was used, but was reorganized for the new taxonomy, which divides CS into L1-based strategies (language switch, foreignizing native language and transliteration) and L2-based strategies (semantic contiguity, description and word coinage).

To this end, a trichotomy was proposed: the information incorporated into the strategic effort may be derived from (a) the learner's source language, or any language other than the target language, (b) the target language itself, or (c) non-linguistic or contextual information given with the situation.

(Bialystok 1983: 105)

The research showed that "learners with greater formal ability in the target language or more experience in employing CS may be more likely to use those strategies based on the target language than on some other language." Generally, this study measured more factors; not only the influence of proficiency, but also the usage of strategies and their effectiveness. In relation to the influence of proficiency:

The role of proficiency is seen as an intervening variable rather than a determining variable because there were relatively few differences between adults and students and between the individuals in each of those groups in terms of the selection of strategy types. [...] a minimal level of proficiency is initially required for appropriate selection of strategies. (Bialystok 1990: 115)

It can be seen that, proficiency plays a main role in choosing an appropriate communication strategy, but it is not the rule that the learner follows this hypothesis. The last sentence warns that a learner should master the language minimally to select an appropriate strategy.

The second research was carried out by Tahereh Paribakht. The nature of this study is to examine the relation between a speaker's proficiency level in the target language and his/her CS use. There were two hypotheses, which Paribakht (1985: 133) introduces as:

H1: The type of CS used by the speakers will vary according to their target language proficiency level.

H2: The relative frequency with which speakers use different types of CS will vary according to their proficiency level.

The subjects in the study were three groups of twenty adults - two groups of Persian ESL students of intermediate and advanced level in the target language and a group of English native speakers. The Persian groups consisted of students from language schools, colleges and universities, and the native speakers were mainly graduate and undergraduate students from the University of Toronto (see Bialystok's study) (ibid.).

In the task the native speakers acted interlocutors and led a conversation the goal of which was to describe 20 single lexical items comprising concrete, as well as abstract concepts. Paribakht (1985: 133) chose abstract concepts because "abstract concepts, lacking visual clues, were expected to place heavier linguistic and cultural burdens on the speakers than concrete concepts." A few examples from Paribakht's study (1985: 134) are: "concrete concepts-abacus, hammock, lantern [...], abstract concepts-fate, martyrdom, flattery [...]." The researches wanted to be sure that the students understood concrete concepts so they provided them with pictures illustrating these concepts. As they also wrote the abstract concepts on separate cards in both languages, English and Farsi, to ensure that the meanings of the words were clear. As the students described the concepts they were asked to convey the items to their interlocutors without using the exact target word. According to Paribakht's study (ibid.) "interaction between the subjects and their interlocutors continued until either the interlocutors identified the target concept, or one of the parties gave up."

In comparison with Bialystok, Paribakht developed a typology of the strategies which included the results of this research. Then she took into account the subject's point of view, which was important for identifying his or her CS. Paribakht (1985: 134) stresses the idea that "CS are only vehicles through which speakers use their different kinds of knowledge to solve their communicative problems." And last criterion which was crucial for her research was that the subject's statement contained several CS.

It is important to stress again that the new taxonomy of CS was derived from the basis of this study. Of course, she developed this taxonomy also from previous taxonomies of CS which supported the development of her new taxonomy. She listed four major communicative approaches (1985: 135) (cf. Bialystok):

- I. The linguistic approach, which exploited the semantic features of the target items.
- II. The contextual approach, which exploited the speakers' contextual knowledge.
- III. The conceptual approach, which exploited the speakers' world knowledge.
- IV. Mime, which exploited the speaker's knowledge of meaningful gestures.

(Paribakht 1985: 135)

Paribakht (1985: 138) also uses in the conclusion of her study the same taxonomy of CS as Bialystok, and states that the low proficiency group used mainly two L1-based strategies (idiomatic transfer and transliteration of L1 idioms and proverbs). On the other hand, the high proficiency group used L2-based CS. She stresses that some points influencing CS should be taken into consideration as cultural aspects and learners' awareness of the large distance between L1 and L2 (1985: 140). Furthermore, her research revealed that CS are not unique interlanguage property. Although there were some differences in using CS between advanced-learners and low proficiency-learners, they were minimal and the results do not confirm Hypothesis 1. Hypothesis 2 was supported by these data because the learners at the earlier stages of L2 learning draw from their other knowledge. This study was concluded with a statement that "It appears that in general, speakers' use of CS and their level of target language proficiency are related."

To sum up these two studies, both researches made important contributions to this area of study; they enriched it with new taxonomies of communication strategies based on their data. They supported the generally known idea that low-proficiency learners had more communicative problems than advanced learners and that this influenced their usage of CS: low-proficiency learners employed more CS. My own work has led me to the view that there has to be a relation between the proficiency of the learner and the choice of CS, and my research shows that advanced-learners employed more CS in their conversation because their vocabulary allowed it them. It is discussed later.

3.3 Classification systems of communication strategies

The third and last chapter of the theoretical part studies classification systems of CS the - so-called taxonomies of CS. I consider this issue as the broadest and most varied. There are several taxonomies coined by the researchers most often associated with work in this area. Each researcher or group of researchers prefers different concepts of CS and these studies lead to diversity in many ways. My task is to provide a brief framework to support the awareness of taxonomies of CS. I will present to you the most well-known and basic taxonomies in more detail and will only refer briefly to the rest of the taxonomies because the range of these taxonomies is broad.

A number of points must be taken into consideration, in choosing the most appropriate taxonomies. I consider Tarone's taxonomy the most influential in this field to date. The fathers of CS, Faerch and Kasper, coined the next one on the basis of their research. The last taxonomy to be presented is that of Dörneyei & Scott's taxonomy of communication strategies, which is the most current one and brings new approaches to this field. It is important to stress that the classifications of CS work with different language devices, and differ in their degrees of elaborateness (Dörnyei & Scott 1997: 187).

Bialystok asserts about the basic convergence around similar concepts that

the variety of taxonomies proposed in the literature differ primary 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.

(Bialystok 1900: 187)

Bialystok and Kellerman (1987) introduced three requirements for a producing taxonomy of CS as cognitive processes. These requirements are *parsimony*, *generalizability* and *psychological plausibility* all of which are characteristics for of strategic behavior. *Parsimony* determines that there should be only a few discrete

strategy types. *Generalizability* requires the equal applicability of taxonomy for all speakers aiming to reach strategic behavior with no respect as to whether L1 or L2 are involved, later proficiency levels or the particular coupling of the learner's native and non-native languages. *Psychological plausibility* is the last requirement and it stresses that any proposed taxonomy of strategies should be based on what is currently known about language processing, cognition and problem-solving behavior.

3.3.1 Tarone's taxonomy

See the tables below (p. 34 - 35) for a better general overview of the taxonomies of CS. They help in understanding the main concepts and show the differences between them. The first taxonomy presented is called Tarone's taxonomy of CS (1977). This taxonomy was based on the terminological framework developed in Tarone, Cohen & Dumas (1976) (Tarone 1977: 194). The author points out that it is better to use both the native language and the target language for examining specific CS because then what the learner says when s/he uses a language code offers to the learner as many language structures as possible. Tarone further focused her research on story-telling activities which the learners narrated in both native language and their English IL. The experimental group consisted of nine adults learning English as a foreign language and it is interesting that they were from different first-language backgrounds (Spanish, Turkish and Mandarin). Their level of spoken English was intermediate. They were shown two series of simple drawings and an illustration from a children's book. Their task was to describe these illustrations in their native language and in English. All their utterances were recorded and it should be mentioned as well that they were asked some follow-up questions about specific problems which occurred during the narrating and about the forms used there.

On the basis of the results from this research, Tarone coined her taxonomy of CS. I have to stress that it is not easy to analyse these data; the author says "the language researcher is always tempted to reduce language data to measurable entities which can be counted, graphed and statistically weighed [...]" (Tarone 1977: 196). Her

taxonomy differentiates five basic CS - avoidance, paraphrase, conscious transfer, appeal for assistance and mime. See the table 5 (p. 34) below.

TABLE 5

Tarone (1977)	Færch & Kasper (1983b)	Bialystok (1983)	Paribakht (1985)	Willems (1987)
AVOIDANCE	FORMAL	L1-BASED	LINGUISTIC	REDUCTION
Topic avoidance	REDUCTION	STRATEGIES	APPROACH	STRATEGIES
Message	Phonological	Language	Semantic	Formal
abandonment	Morphological	switch	contiguity	reduction
abandonment			-Superordinate	
	Syntactic	Foreignizing	-Comparison	-Phonological
PARAPHRASE	Lexical .	Tr ansliteration	* Positive	-Morphological
Approximation	and the second second		comparison	-Syntactic
Word coinage	FUNCTIONAL	L2-BASED	Analogy	-Lexical
Circumlocution	REDUCTION	STRATEGIES	Syno nymy	Functional
	Actional red.	Semantic	* Negative	reduction
CONSCIOUS	Modal red.	contiguity	comparison	-Message
TRANSFER	Reduction of	Description	Contrast &	abandonment
Literal	propositional	Word coinage	opposit.	-Meaning
translation	•	Hord comage	Antonymy	
	content	MON	Circumlocution	replacement
Language switch	-Topic avoidance		-Physical	-Topic avoidance
ADDDAT DOD	-Message	LINGUISTIC	description * Size	
APPEAL FOR	abandonment	STRATEGIES	* Shape	ACHIEVEMENT
ASSISTANCE	-Meaning		* Color	STRATEGIES
	replacement		* Material	Paralinguistic
MIME			- Constituent	strategies
	ACHIEVEMENT		features	Interlingual
	STRATEGIES		* Features	strategies
	Compensatory		* Elaborated	-Borrowing/code
	strategies		features	switching
	-Code switching		-Locational	-Literal
	-Interlingual		property -Historical	translation
	transfer		property	-Foreignizing
	-Inter-/		- Other features	Intralingual
	intralingual		-Functional	strategies
	transfer		description	-Approximation
	- IL based		Metalinguistic	-Word coinage
	strategies		clues	- Paraphrase
	* Generalization		CONTEXTUAL	* Description
	* Paraphrase		APPROACH	* Circum-
	* Word coinage		Linguistic	locution
	* Restructuring		context	* Exemplifi-
	-Cooperative		Use of L2 idioms	cation
	strategies		and proverbs	- Smurfing
	-Non-linguistic		Transliteration	- Self-repair
	strategies		of L1 idioms	
	Retrieval		and proverbs	-Appeals for
			Idiomatic	assistance
	strategies		transfer	* Explicit
			CONCERNMENT	* Implicit
			CONCEPTUAL	* Checking
			APPROACH Demonstration	questions
			Exemplification Metonymy	-Initiating repai
			MIME	
			Replacing verba	1
			Accompanying	

Various Taxonomies of Communication Strategies

From Z. Dörnyei and S. Thurrell, Communication strategies in a second language: Definitions and taxonomies, 1997, p. 196

TABLE 6

Bialystok	Nijmegen	Poulisse	Dörnyei & Scott
(1990)	Group	(1993)	(1995a, 1995b)
ANALYSIS- BASED STRATEGIES CONTROL- BASED STRATEGIES	CONCEPTUAL STRATEGIES Analytic Holistic LINGUISTIC/ CODE STRATEGIES Morphological creativity Tran sfer	SUBSTITUTION STRATEGIES SUBSTITUTION PLUS STRATEGIES RECONCEPTU- ALIZATION STRATEGIES	DIRECT STRATEGIES Resource deficit-related strategies * Message reduction * Message reduction * Approximation * Approximation * Use of all-purpose words * Word-coinage * Restructuring * Literal translation * Foreignizing * Code switching * Use of similar sounding words * Mumbling * Omission * Retrieval * Mime Own-performance problem-related strategies * Self-rephrasing * Self-rephrasing * Self-repair Other-performance problem-related strategies * Other-repair INTERACTIONAL STRATEGIES Resource deficit-related strategies * Appeals for help Own-performance problem-related strategies * Comprehension check * Own-accuracy check Other-performance problem-related strategies * Comprehension check * Own-accuracy check Other-performance problem-related strategies * Asking for confirmation * Asking for confirmation * Asking for confirmation * Asking for confirmation * Expressing nonunderstanding * Interpretive summary * Responses INDIRECT STRATEGIES Processing time pressure-related strategies * Use of fillers * Repetitions Own-performance problem-related strategies * Verbal strategy markers Other-performance problem-related strategies * Verbal strategy markers Other-performance problem-related strategies * Verbal strategy markers Other-performance problem-related strategies * Verbal strategy markers Other-performance problem-related strategies * Selfigies * Verbal strategy markers Other-performance problem-related strategies * Feigning understanding

Various Taxonomies of Communication Strategies

From Z. Dörnyei and S. Thurrell, Communication strategies in a second language: Definitions and taxonomies, 1997, p. 197

The first communication strategy of this taxonomy is called *avoidance*. Two types of avoidance are proposed - *topic avoidance* and *message abandonment*. *Topic avoidance* "occurs when the learner simply does not talk about concepts for which the vocabulary is not known." On the other hand, *message abandonment* "occurs when the learner begins to talk about a concept but is unable to continue and begins a new sentence." Tarone (1997: 198) introduces an example in her study where the learner says "The water spills" but her voice trails away and she begins with a new topic.

Paraphrase is described by Tarone (ibid.) 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." There are three main types of paraphrase - *approximation*, *word coinage* and *circumlocution*.

Approximation is "the 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 learner." Approximation is divided into 3 groups - high-coverage words, low- coverage words and the same level of generality. Examples of high-coverage words are "worm" for "silkworm" (cf. Bialystok 1990) and "pipe" for "waterpipe". Low-coverage words such as "labor" for "work" and simply inappropriate words which work on the same level of generality, such as "lamp" for "waterpipe". Approximation can be interchangeable with overgeneralization, but they are slightly different. In terms of approximation, the learner knows that s/he is using the wrong term, but uses it anyway. In contrast, overgeneralization is defined as knowing or not knowing about using the wrong term. Word coinage is "when the learner makes up a new word in order to communicate a desired concept." An example of word coinage is "person worm" or "jugworm" for an animated caterpillar. The last concept is *circumlocution*, which is used a lot by learners where "the learner describes the characteristics or elements of the object or action instead of using the appropriate target language structure." For instance, a waterpipe was described as "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" (ibid.).

Tarone presents *conscious transfer* as the next strategy. *Conscious transfer* has two forms - *literal translation* or *language switch*. *Literal translation* emerges in the study when a Mandarin speaker attempts to describe two people toasting one another as "He invites him to drink." S/he translated it word for word. *Language switch* was signified by using the native language term "balon" instead of the English term "balloon" (ibid.).

The fourth strategy is named *appeal for assistance*. It is any type of assistance provided by a native speaker, by a teacher, by other person or if a learner uses a dictionary. Examples are given "What is this? What called?" (ibid.).

Mime is defined as the last strategy. These nonverbal communication strategies are employed in any situation lacking the appropriate terms. A learner can act out an action in order to ensure successful communication. For example "and everybody say (claps his hands)" (Tarone 1977: 199).

The considerable information gained from this research serves as further supporting material for other researchers working on the same issue. The outcomes helped Tarone to specify the level of proficiency of each learner or to define the most difficult object to describe in English.

3.3.2 Faerch and Kasper's taxonomy

The next taxonomy of CS chosen is that of Faerch and Kasper which was created in the 1980s and offered researchers a different overview of CS. This taxonomy is part of the study written by Faerch and Kasper (1983a) which is called "Plans and strategies in foreign language communication" and was published in a book edited by Faerch and Kasper (1983).

They specified the major types of CS as:

- avoidance behavior, and
- achievement behavior

Avoidance behavior and achievement behavior both come from the idea that you either avoid a problem - you change your communicative goal - or you create a strategic plan of how to achieve the goal by other possible means. Using these statements they defined their major types of strategies as *reduction strategies* governed by *avoidance behavior* and *achievement strategies* governed by *achievement behavior* (cf. Tarone 1977) (1983a: 36). See table 5 (p. 34) above.

Reduction strategies and their classification will be presented first. Faerch and Kasper (1983a) divided reduction strategies into formal reduction strategies and functional reduction strategies. Formal reduction strategies are in first place in his taxonomy and in the list of further functional reduction strategies. They stress - about formal reduction strategies in general - that

in order to avoid producing non-fluent or incorrect utterances by using insufficiently automatized or hypothetical rules/items, learners may decide to communicate by means of a 'reduced' system, focusing on stable rules and items which have become reasonably well automatized. (Faerch and Kasper 1983a: 38)

It is remarked that there is no clear-cut distinction between *formal reduction* and *functional reduction*. They are closely related to each other. Four types of formal reduction (Faerch and Kasper 1983a: 41) are observed - *phonological, morphological, syntactic* and *lexical*. In relation to the phonological level as the authors state that "a particular phoneme is restricted to specific words (e.g. to loanwords only), a particular phoneme cannot generally be avoided through functional reduction strategies as topic avoidance, but only through achievement strategies providing a formal alternative to the interlanguage item being avoided." It is impossible to reduce the specific phoneme by completely avoiding the words containing this phoneme. The next level is *morphological* and it is similar to the phonological level in that, there is a need for various additional achievement strategies. Morphological items are substituted by syntactic or lexical items. Hamayan and Tucker (1979: 84) provided an example from their study where French learners did not use subordinate clauses containing the

subjunctive on purpose, but instead they used an infinitival verbal complement (*il faut aller for il faut que j'aille*).

The *syntactic* level has a similar function to the previous two. The learner should be conscious of *obligatory* and *optional* structures. The usage of the passive voice in English was offered as an example. The learners avoid the passive voice by using active voice if it is possible. The last level – *lexical* – is, as Faerch and Kasper (1983a: 42) summarize, achievable from both types of strategies-from reduction strategies (e.g. topic avoidance) and achievement strategies (e.g. paraphrase, borrowing). Blum and Levenstone (1978b: 10) add that "learners will avoid using words for which no direct translation-equivalent exists in their L1."

The second type of reduction strategies is called *functional reduction strategies*. These strategies according to Faerch and Kasper (1983a: 43) emerge in a planning phase or in an execution phase. They are defined by Faerch and Kasper that thus: "by adopting a functional reduction strategy the learner 'reduces' his communicative goal in order to avoid the problem." Reduction is seen from two points of view as global reduction and local reduction. Functional reduction can influence any element of the communicative goal (actional, modal, propositional). With respect to this statement, Faerch and Kasper takes this affect into accounts and "thus, learners may experience problems in performing specific speech acts and/or in marking their utterances appropriately for politeness/social distance ('speech act modality')." Functional reduction of the propositional content (Faerch and Kasper 1983a: 44) is divided into two main types - topic avoidance or message abandonment and meaning replacement or semantic avoidance (cf. Tarone 1977). Faerch and Kasper defined the concept of avoidance as referring "to the strategy of avoiding formulating goals which include topics that are perceived as problematic from a linguistic point of view" (Faerch and Kasper 1983a: 43). Topic avoidance occurs especially in the planning phase in comparison with message abandonment. Message abandonment is described by Tarone, Cohen and Dumas as follows: "communication on 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." On the

other hand, meaning replacement or semantic avoidance is determined by Faerch and Kasper (1983a: 44) who say that: "here the learner, when confronted by a planning or retrieval problem, operates within the intended propositional content and preserves the 'topic' but refers to it by means of a more general expression." But it is not easy to define strictly the boundaries between them because there are some cases which can belong to both types. We should take into consideration that this system is such a hint for us for better orientation.

Last but not least, *achievement strategies* are described. Faerch and Kasper (1983a: 45) concentrate on these strategies most and list examples for each strategy; although they did not produce many examples of formal reduction and functional reduction. Achievement strategies, as the name indicates, support the learner's effort to achieve his/her communicative goal instead of reducing this goal. Achievement strategies consist of *compensatory strategies* and *retrieval strategies*. *Compensatory strategies* are divided further into six groups (*code switching, interlingual transfer, inter/intralingual transfer, IL based strategies, cooperative strategies* and *non-linguistic strategies*) based on different problem-solving.

Code switching (Faerch and Kasper 1983a: 46) or sometimes called *borrowing* will be described as the first strategy. This strategy is well-known for each learner of a foreign language. In my words, if you do not know the right term in L2, you just use a term from your L1. The teacher can help to find an appropriate term for L2 (cf. Tarone 1977). An example provided below was taken from Faerch and Kasper (1983a: 46):

L: do you want to have some ah-Zinsen or do you want to have some more...

(BO¹, Zinsen German for 'interests)

Interlingual transfer is based on a combination of linguistic features from the interlanguage and L1. Faerch and Kasper (1983a: 47) stress that "interlingual transfer may not only involve the transfer of phonological, morphological, syntactic or lexical

¹ BO is an abbreviation for the project "Kommunikative Kompetenz als realisierbares Lernziel' which was carried out by Ruhr-Universität Bochum (Faerch nad Kasper 1983a: 56)

features of the IL (see Tarone, Cohen and Dumas (1983), but may also occur at the pragmatic and discourse level (Kasper 1981)." See an example below (ibid.):

NS: how do you go to school [...]

L: [...] sometimes I take my er-er what's it called er [...] 'knallert' [knælə]-

(PIF², knallert Danish for 'moped'

Inter-/intralingual transfer is used by a learner in situations when L2 is similar to his L1. This strategy is connected with the generalization of an IL rule. It is observable for example in Germanic languages because Danish learners of English apply the rule for regular verbs to irregular verbs. (e.g. Danish svømme - svømmede (past tense), English swim-swimmed) (Faerch and Kasper 1983a: 47).

In the characterization of interlanguage (IL) based strategies, the following items are listed:

- generalization
- paraphrase
- word coinage
- restructuring

(ibid.) Faerch and Kasper (1983a: 47) state that "by generalization, learners solve problems in the planning phase by filling the 'gaps' in their plans with IL items which they would not normally use in such contexts." There is some similarity with overgeneralization of a L2 item. To sum up this issue, the learner does not change his/her goal, but s/he tries to employ *lexical substitution* (cf. Tarone, Frauenfelder and Selinker 1976), *approximation* (cf. Tarone, Frauenfelder and Selinker 1976). There is goal, but s/he tries (Ickenroth 1975; Blum-Kulka and Levenstone 1983). There is

² PIF is an abbreviation for the PIF project which was carried out by Department of English, University of Copenhagen. (Faerch nad Kasper 1983a: 56)

an example of generalization where the learner uses the superordinate term *animals* instead of rabbits (Faerch and Kasper 1983a: 49):

NS: do you have any animals-

L: (laugh) yes-er-er that is er-I don't know how I shall say that in English-[...]

NS: I think they must be rabbits-

L: er what

NS: rabbits-

L: rabbits-

NS: Yer rabbits [...]

NS: does it-sleep on-in your room

L: er my-my animals-

NS: mm your animals

(PIF)

Paraphrase was determined by Faerch and Kasper (ibid.) as follows: "by using a paraphrase strategy, the learner solves 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." (cf. Tarone 1977). It can occur in two main forms as *descriptions* or *circumlocutions* and sometimes *paraphrase* can also be *exemplification*. The following example uses paraphrase where a learner tries to explain *moped*.

L: [...] some people have a car-and some people have a er bicycle-and soma people have a er-erm-a cykel there is a m motor

NS: oh a bicycle-with a motor

(PIF)

Word coinage is a most creative strategy because a learner creates a new word on the basis of his/her experience with language. (Faerch and Kasper 1983a: 50) Varadi's (1983) example of word coinage is a good illustration - the learner used *airball* for *balloon*.

Restructuring is considered to be comparable with *message abandonment* and it is defined similarly: if a learner realizes that s/he cannot complete the task, s/he changes the plan and explains it by other possible means of communication. Faerch and Kasper (Faerch and Kasper 1983a: 50) presented the following example:

L: my tummy-my tummy is-I have (inaudible) I must eat something

(BO)

Two more groups of strategies belong to compensatory strategies, namely *cooperative strategies* and *non-linguistic strategies*. *Cooperative* strategies are called in Tarone's words an "appeal for assistance" (cf. Tarone 1977). Appeals are described as "self-initiated other repairs" (Schegloff, Jefferson and Sacks 1977: 363ff). Faerch and Kasper (1983a: 51) divide them up into *direct* and *indirect*. An example is provided below (ibid.):

NS: what er colour is it-

L: er skim (laugh) er-er-what's-colour is this- (points to her sweater)

(PIF, skimlet Danish for grey with reference to animals)

To finish the group of compensatory strategies, we must mention the last type namely *non-linguistic strategies*. They are listed as *mime, gesture* or *sound imitation* (cf. Tarone 1977). They can serve as additional elements for verbal strategies (Faerch and Kasper 1983a: 52).

The whole group of achievement strategies is closed by *retrieval strategies*. Such strategies are defined by Faerch and Kasper (ibid.) thus: "learners may have difficulties in retrieving specific IL items and may adopt achievements strategies in order to get at the problematic item." Their experiment revealed these six retrieval strategies: waiting for the term to appear; appealing to formal similarity, retrieval vie semantic fields; researching via other languages; retrieval from learning situations, and sensory procedures.

Faerch and Kasper extended Tarone's taxonomy of categories of CS. Their taxonomy offers us more detailed insight into this issue. However, in my opinion, the basic facts about CS were preserved.

3.3.3 Dörnyei and Scott's taxonomy

As the last point of the theoretical part of my diploma thesis I will summarize Dörnyei and Scott's taxonomy which is the most current, and in comparison with both previous taxonomies provides us with the narrowest concept of communication strategies; it is the most detailed one. I have followed the procedure of first describing the broadest level (Tarone's taxonomy) and lastly to the narrowest level (Dörnyei and Scott's taxonomy). Two previous taxonomies have been described in detail and this third taxonomy will be presented marginally because the taxonomies arise from the same points and it is possible to obtain a general overview from the table 6 (p. 35). above where the overall situation is well elaborated.

Only a little information about this taxonomy needs to be added. The researches based their taxonomy on the manner of problem-management (Dörnyei and Thurrel 1997: 198), and it is defined by them (ibid.) as "how CSs contribute to resolving conflicts and achieving mutual understanding." Their taxonomy consists of three main group of CS - *direct*, *indirect* and *interactional* strategies. *Direct* strategies are characterized by means of communication which helps us to get the meaning across (e.g. circumlocution or approximation) (ibid.). Obviously, most defined strategies belong to this group of CS. On the other hand, *indirect* strategies are not strictly problem-solving strategies. Dörnyei and Thurrell state about indirect strategies that

they do not provide alternative meaning structures, but rather facilitate the conveyance of meaning indirectly by creating the conditions for

achieving mutual understanding: preventing breakdowns and keeping the communication channel open (e.g. using fillers or feigning understanding) or indicating less-than-perfect forms that require extra effort to understand (using strategy markers or hedges).

(Dörnyei and Thurrell 1997: 198)

It should be stressed again that these strategies are not meaning-related, but they are important for problem-management (ibid.). The third group is called *interactional strategies* "whereby the participants carry out trouble-shooting exchanges cooperatively (e.g., appeal for and grant help, or request for and provide clarification), and therefore mutual understanding is a function of the successful execution of both pair parts of the exchange." (Dörney and Thurell 1997: 199).

This theoretical part of my diploma thesis, provides a general overview of communication strategies and their taxonomies. Generally, there is no uniform opinion about them and linguists consistently list additional and alternative concepts the correctness of which they confidently assert. There is no uniform answer to the question of what CS are. From my point of view, CS enable us to communicate in all possible situations without being embarrassed und support the communicative competence which plays a significant role in foreign language learning. In the following of this thesis, there are two main points in taxonomies of CS; either you use reduction strategies or achievement strategies. This basic taxonomy is clear and apt and avoids long lists of the different types. This theoretical part has prepared the reader for the second part of my diploma thesis in which all these definitions are applied in practice.

Practical part

These pages of my diploma thesis will concentrate on the practical usage of communication strategies and describe my research in this area. The following research aims to introduce the data obtained and to find an answer to the question whether there is a difference between the use of CS by pupils on the one hand and adult learners on the other. A wide range of exercises which include communication strategies will also be presented. The first part, *How to support communication in the classroom* deals with the principles of communication in the classroom or what types of exercises can be employed. The second part consists of worksheets which include the exercises based on the course book called *Communication Strategies*. The research, which examines the difference between the use of CS by pupils and adult learners, will comprise in the third part of this diploma thesis.

4. How to support communication in the classroom

As I mentioned above, it is extremely important nowadays to support communication in a foreign language classroom. There are, of course, a huge variety of books which help the teacher to create many speaking activities. The aim of these activities is to speak fluently and possibly without mistakes. The teachers do not provide the pupils with any advice on how to speak fluently. Either they do not know about CS or they do not know how to integrate them into the lesson. This chapter should solve this issue and outlines some activities which refer to CS and moreover, there will be more unusual activities supporting communication in general. But first, I would like to mention briefly some principles for a communicative approach and then to introduce activities which I consider to be useful for communication purposes.

4.1 Principles for a communicative approach

In my opinion, there are a few rules for communication activity which should be respected by the teacher. The teacher should take into account:

- the age of the learners
- their interests
- the level of language proficiency
- other competences (grammatical, sociolinguistic and strategic)
- his/her relationship to the learners
- the environment (the classroom, multimedia classroom etc.)

Besides these rules, the teacher should be aware of the difference between the conversation in the classroom and outside the classroom. The learners should feel that there is no problem in making a mistake because they speak in order to improve their communicative ability in the foreign language. Each learner would get chance to say something regardless of his/her foreign language proficiency.

A second part of this subchapter briefly summarizes five main principles for a communicative approach which were defined by Canale and Swain (1980: 27):

- It is emphasised that communicative competence consists of elements such as grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence and strategic competence. All these elements are on the same level so one should not be preferred to another. The main goal of the teacher is to prepare a lesson consisting of all elements.
- 2) The second principle asserts that each learner has his/her communication needs which would be fulfilled with the respect to the elements mentioned above. As follows, each second-language learner should occur as much as possible in a genuine communicative situation.

- 3) This principle is connected with the previous one that the second-language learner would be given an opportunity to participate in meaningful communicative interaction with a speaker whose language facility is on a high level. Realistic communication situations are stressed.
- 4) Further, the early stages of second-language learning are crucial for forming young learners' awareness about the foreign language. Teachers should be well-prepared to provide them as exercises which are adequate to their age and language proficiency.
- 5) The second-language learners should get specific knowledge about the second language in the so-called first language programme (the word 'programme' means 'course' in this case) and moreover their sociocultural knowledge about second language should be developed in the so-called 'social studies' programme.

4.2 Activities supporting communication in the classroom

The headline of this subchapter indicates that this part is dedicated to activities which are based on the communication approach. All of these suggested activities are drawn from my own experience with English and teaching practise at basic school. I divided them into two main groups. The first group describes warm-up speaking activities and the second group deals with speaking activities for the rest of the lesson.

4.2.1 Warm-up speaking activities

• Teachers' questions - the teacher creates the relationship between him/her and the learners, he can reach it if he/she asks the learners a few questions at the beginning of the lesson. The questions such as "how are you" or "what did you do at weekend" activate the learner's thinking and give him/her an opportunity to speak in a second language.

- Brainstorming or mind mapping these activities match the specific topic because the learners say or write down their first ideas on the given topic. It is useful before the main activity because learners get a general overview of the topic.
- Different games such as describing simple pictures (Appendix 2, p. 112), telling a story, guessing of an identity of a famous person, describing a given word, tongue twisters or games with words such as "word football", "hangman", "king of English". They serve as easy activities which the learners like and encourage their motivation to speak in a second language.

Every time the teacher should decide on the warm-up activities which are connected with the main topic of the lesson and enable the learners to express their opinion about this.

4.2.2 Speaking activities for the rest of the lesson

- Role-play this activity enables the learners to behave as a different personality. It supports transformation of dream to reality. They perform sometimes so well that the teacher is amazed.
- Communication activities (dialogues, working in groups) learners are placed in different situations and they have to prove that their second language knowledge helps them to solve the problem or situation (e.g. telephone call, describing a map (Appendix 3, p.113 114), shopping, in the public places, introducing somebody, giving instructions, etc.)
- Describing a sequence of pictures learners describe the pictures in order to find the differences between them (Appendix 1, p. 111), to tell a story (Appendix 4, p. 115). The picture can also serve as an example which could inspire the learner to speak.

- Projects for developing a project longer time is needed, learners collect items of information and create a piece of work where they have to use more skills. But in the last phase of the project they have to introduce it and answer possible questions.
- Games based on TV shows for examples games such as "Guess my job", "Who wants to be a millionaire?", "Five against five" etc. The learners are familiar with these games because they are based on shows which they watch on TV.
- Games taking a longer time in this group of games are "runningdictation", "bail of sentences", "hot chair", "questionnaires" etc. The teacher can get inspiration from the internet or in books which are full of interesting games or use his/her creativity to make up his/her own game adapted for his/her group of learners.

4.3 Teaching of strategic competence

Linguists who deal with CS have published books, studies and articles about them. Everything is described theoretically, and we find out what communication strategies are, their taxonomies etc., but there is very few materials referring to practising CS in the second-language lesson. The following pages outline four groups of CS and their part in the second-language lesson. The structure of these activities provides the teacher information about materials, description of an activity and evaluation. The strategies which are listed below belong to Tarone's taxonomy, but there are a few strategies which are not categorized in any of the above taxonomies. These communication activities require the learner to be at least at intermediate level of experience with the foreign language and to possess sufficient vocabulary and grammar knowledge. I would like to stress particularly that there are really few materials for practising communication strategies so the teacher has to keep it in mind that s/he should create his/her own language materials; this involves extra work. Tarone and Yule (1989: 114 - 5), state that "there are few, if any, materials available at present which teach learners how to use communication strategies when problems are encountered in the process of transmitting information."

4.3.1 Fillers

Teachers mostly do not know that *fillers* belong to communication strategies, but they are a crucial component of the learners' strategic competence. Obviously, it follows from the fact that the linguists did not include them into their taxonomies, that they prefer different communication strategies. Fillers assist the communication to proceed fluently without any breaks or interruptions. Dörney and Thurrell call them *delaying* or *hesitation devices* in their study. It is not determined when second-language learners should learn them, but they can be taught already at the beginner level. Fillers differ in structure; as examples show, there are easy phrases for example "well, I mean, actually, you know," etc. On the other hand, the next group of fillers consists of longer statements; for instance as a "matter of fact, to be quite honest, now let me think, I'll tell you what, I see what you mean," etc. Practising these language devices can be pursued in many ways. There are some activities below for teachers to use (Dörney and Thurrell 1991: 19).

1) Nonsense dialogues

Materials: No materials

Activity: The learners create nonsense dialogues for practising fillers. Names of cities can be used as topic for these conversations.

A: You know, I thought maybe London.

B: Well, I see what you mean, and don't get me wrong – this's very Frankfurt – but actually, as a matter of fact, I was thinking more along the lines of Paris...if you see what I mean.

A: Really? But that's Istanbul!

(Dörney and Thurrell 1991: 20)

Evaluation: The learners should speak naturally without any instructions given before and use vocabulary appropriate to this topic. It improves their knowledge of fillers.

2) Adding fillers

Materials: A short dialogue from the course book

Activity: The teacher writes a short dialogue on the blackboard and the learners have to add fillers to this dialogue in order to make sense. There are so many possible modifications of this activity which can be carried out in pairs or in groups. The teacher can add restrictions such as the use of a filler only once etc. (Dörney and Thurrell 1991: 20)

Evaluation: This activity supports the awareness and the importance of fillers and enables the students to be creative.

3) One-word dialogues

Materials: No materials

Activity: This activity has two phases. The first task is to make up a dialogue based on one word utterances. For example:

A: Tomorrow?

B: Trip!

A: Where?

B: Chicago...

The next task is to extend this dialog with accessing fillers into it. The meaning must be preserved. This is an example of extended dialogue:

A: So, what are we going to do tomorrow then?

B: Well, as a matter of fact, I was thinking of going on a trip.

A: Oh, I see. Interesting. And where to?

B: Well actually Chicago appeals to me, you know...

(Dörney and Thurrell 1991: 20)

Evaluation: Again, practice of fillers is stressed in this activity and learners communicate spontaneously and naturally.

4.3.2 Going off the point

The next strategy gives the learners the ability to go off the point smoothly. It can emerge in situations where one cannot answer a question or do not want to continue in a conversation because you would rather change the topic. To know how to change the topic from an unwanted one to a desired one gives learners a lot of confidence and their conversation can continue better, without hesitations. The students who prepare themselves for an exam, can take advantage of this strategy because they can evade the topic they have not mastered.

1) Avoiding giving information

Material: No material

Activity: The teacher prepares a few easy sentences and starts asking the learners. Their task is not answer the question just give comments on it. For example:

Teacher: How old are you?

Learner: Well, that's an interesting question. Isn't it strange how people always feel that they need to know the age of a person? I don't really think that age is important at all. Etc. (Dörney and Thurrell 1991: 21)

Evaluation: This activity permits learners to try this strategy in a free conversation, under conditions which emphasize spontaneity, neutrality and the flexibility to be able to avoid the required answer.

2) Judo

Materials: No material

Activity: The goal of this activity is to get from one topic to another. The learners are asked to answer a simple question and then to move to the next given topic. An example describes a situation where the learner starts with answering the question: Does your mother own a pet? And they have to move to the topic 'judo'.

Yes, my grandmother keeps an enormous Alsatian dog, because it makes her feel safer when she's at home alone. When she was younger, of course, she didn't need a dog because she was extremely fit and active, and right up to the age of sixty she attended judo classes. She believes that judo is very useful for women who live alone, as well as being an exciting sport...

(Dörney and Thurrell 1991: 21)

Evaluation: The learners utilize this process not only in the second language, but also it gives them the chance to improve the strategies in their mother language. It supports their feeling that they can lead the conversation.

4.3.3 Paraphrase and approximation

I do not have to introduce these strategies because all linguists dealing with CS included these strategies into their taxonomies. This section will outline the activities used to practise these strategies in second-language lessons.

1) Explanations

Materials: small pieces of papers with words

Activity: This activity is known by all teachers because they use one of its modifications. One possible way to work with words is to give each learner a piece of paper with the word and s/he has to describe it precisely in order the rest of the learners guess the described word.

Evaluation: It is very much a favourite activity because learners have fun with it, can expend their vocabulary and have the possibility of speaking in their second language.

2) Definitions

Materials: small pieces of papers with words

Activity: The class is divided into pairs and each pair gets a small piece of paper on which is written the name of an object; their task is to use a relative clause to describe this thing. After saying this, the rest of the pairs have to consider if the sentence was precise enough. If not the pair has to give a more specific definition. It can be like this:

Pair A: A car is a vehicle in which you can travel.

The rest of the class: Give us a more specific definition, for example it can be a bus in this case.

Pair A: A car is a small vehicle in which you can travel.

(Dörney and Thurrell 1991: 21)

Evaluation: To work in pairs to sustain the learners' team spirit and enable the learners to express their thoughts in the debates about whether the definition was right or not.

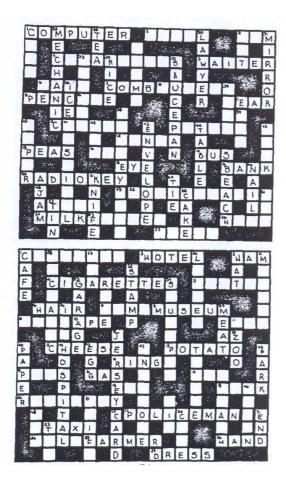
3) Paraphrasing

Materials: crossword puzzles (see the picture below, p. 57)

Activity: Again it is based on work in pairs. Each learner gets a crossword puzzle. These crossword puzzles differ in the information they contain. The first learner is given words which the second learner has to win from him with the help of asking questions (e.g. A: What is number 1 down? B: It is a place where you can go for a coffee or another drink). Their task is to fill in the whole crossword puzzle.

(Willems 1987: 358)

Evaluation: The learners improve their spelling of foreign words because they have to write down the letters into right squares. It is connected with communication where the learners have to interact flexibly in order to provide a right answer.



(copied from Woodeson 1982)

4.3.4 Appealing for help

The last strategy presented here for practising is called 'appealing for help'. I do not have to describe it here because you are familiar with it from previous taxonomies.

1) Interruptions

Materials: No material

Activity: The first learner reads out a short text from the course book and the second learner asks questions to clarify these statements; for example:

A: London is the capital...

B: Sorry, what does 'capital' mean? Or What do you mean by 'capital'?

(Dörney and Thurrell 1991: 22)

Evaluation: This activity prepares the learners for appealing to somebody for help and helps break the ice in a similar conversation which can occur.

2) I don't understand

Materials: No material

Activity: The first learner tells the second learner that s/he did not understand the utterance or sentence:

A: I'm sorry but I don't think I understood you... or I'm sorry but I couldn't follow you...

Of course, there are many modifications changing these statements. It all depends on the learner's creativity.

(Dörney and Thurrell 1991: 22)

Evaluation: It allows the learner to practise these sentences about not understanding, it is important because sometimes we do not want to confess that we do not understand.

Having presented some activities for practising communication strategies, I would like to add that these activities seem to me easy to prepare, they do not take much time and are very important for every day situations because they teach the second-language learners to react quickly. After such preparation, the learner manages to keep a cool head and the situation can ready him/her for the activities in the class so s/he is well prepared for any of situations which s/he can encounter during the conversation.

5. Worksheets

On the following pages I will propose a number of worksheets for practising communication strategies. Model themes which I consider come from a course book titled *Communication Strategies* and they are common themes which should be interesting for the learners. The author of this course book is David Paul and the whole set consists of a course book and a teacher's guide. The original worksheets are in the list of appendices (Appendices 5 - 7, p. 116 - 133) and this part of my diploma thesis offers them in the adapted form because they were proposed for advanced learners and are too difficult for basic school learners. They are therefore remade at the pre-intermediate level. The format of exercises will be preserved, but their contents will differ in some aspects. The vocabulary which is used in the remade worksheets, was taken from the workbooks Projects 1 - 4 (Tom Hutchinson, Oxford). The topics discussed are *friends*, *free time* and *family*. A number of varied exercises are devised for practising communication strategies.

These worksheets can be used by the teacher for the whole lesson because there are many types of activities or the teacher can divide them into smaller parts and support learners' communication approaches with these parts in the lesson. The usage of the worksheets is varied and the interconnection of the exercises gives the teacher the option of many combinations. I aimed to preserve the progression of the exercises. I started with warm-up activities, continued with all kinds of speaking activities connected with a text and finished each worksheet with a crossword. The remade exercises should be appropriate for second-language learners at second grade, namely 8th and 9th class, at basic school.

5.1 Worksheet - Friends

Warm-up questions

What do you do together?

What do you talk about?

Why do you like him/her?

Where did you meet him/her?

Vocabulary

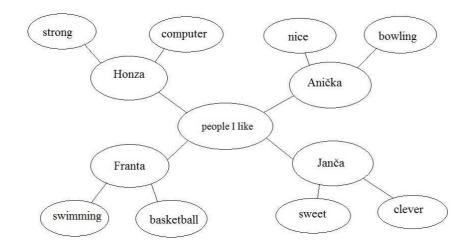
Do you know any adjectives which can describe your friend?

Do you know these adjectives?

little	thick	thin	nice
silly	brave	strong	best
clever	lovely	pretty	tall
blond	fair	bad	amazing
beautiful	good-looking	happy	intelligent
smart	sweet	strange	curly

Mind map

Write down a similar mind map, write down the names of your friends in the middle and words which characterize them.



Practise and discussion

Read this article about a super kid Lukas and answer the questions below.



(copied from Elementary New Headway 2000)

- 1) How old is he?
- 2) Why is he special?
- 3) What is he called?
- 4) Where does he live now?
- 5) How often does he practise the piano?
- 6) What does he do in his free time?

Discussion

What other music instrument do you know?

Would you like to be like him?

What do you excel at?

Discussion strategies

I'm the opposite.

We are very similar.

Maybe we aren't so different.

Choose one of these topics, discuss it and use the discussion strategies above in your dialogues.

- Think of somebody you know or a famous person you feel is arrogant. Talk about him or her.
- Think of somebody you know or a famous person you feel is clever. Talk about him or her.

 Think of somebody you know or a famous person you know who is lazy. Talk about him or her.

Follow-up questions

Make three sentences about your character.

Examples:

I am sometimes nervous.

I am a bit careless.

Now talk to another pupil and ask at least two follow-up questions about each point.

Examples:

- A: When are you nervous?
- B: When I have to wait for something.
- A: What do you do in this situation?
- B: I move from place to place. I can't stay on one place.

Role play

Divide these two roles between the pupils and practise the dialogue.

Pupil A: TV reporter. Interview pupil B about his/her friends.

Pupil B: Play the role of a famous person.

Examples questions:

Who are your best friends?

When did you first meet?

What do you usually do together?

What do you think of (name of another famous person)?

Further activities – collocations

Make up the sentences with the given collocations.

- 1. Make friends
- 2. Best friend
- 3. A close friendship
- 4. Deep relationship

Example: I have got a close friendship with my grandfather because he can answer all my questions.

Writing opinions

Write down a short article (20 sentences) about a given topic:

My best friend.

Building vocabulary

Find as many adjectives (15) as you can. (All directions)

Friends

В	Y	Р	Т	В	R	R	N	С	G
Z	E	А	R	E	E	E	С	А	N
D	L	А	V	E	R	S	E	R	Ι
L	N	E	U	V	Т	V	Т	E	Ζ
Р	L	0	0	Т	А	Т	F	L	А
С	R	U	L	R	Ι	А	Y	E	Μ
	R S								
E		F	В	В	Ι	F	Q	S	A
E E	S G	F N	B A	B R	I T	F S	Q	S S	A

5.2 Worksheet - Free time

Warm-up questions

How much free time have you got?

What do you usually do in your free time?

Do you spend your free time with your friends?

Where do you usually spend your free time?

Vocabulary

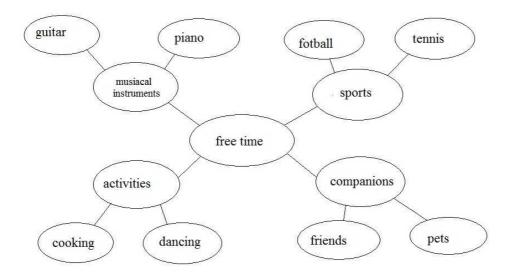
Do you know any words referring to free time?

Do you know these words?

collect	computer games	go skiing	go swimming
guitar	play a musical instrument	play sports	hockey
go windsurfing	go snowboarding	tennis	table tennis
take photographs	golf	go shopping	cooking
dancing	canoeing	roller-blading	weight
training			

Mind map

Write down a similar mind map, write down these superordinated words and add as many other words to each topic as you know.



Practise and discussion

Read this article about Sue Glass and her hobby and answer the questions below.

RACING DRIVER

Sue Glass had a car accident when she was eight so she didn't like driving. When she grew up this was a problem, because she got a job with a car company. Then six years ago she met Julian Swayland, a racing driver, and she told him she was afraid of cars. He wanted to help, so he took her to Brands Hatch, a Grand Prix racing circuit. He drove her round corners at 100 mph and she loved it. Then she heard about a special motor racing course. She did the course with five men and was amazed when she got top marks. She says:

I think I did well because I listened to everything the teacher said. I needed to because I was so afraid. The men often didn't listen. The best moment was my first championship race. I didn't win but I came fourth. I beat 20 men. I love the excitement of motor racing but it's a dangerous sport and I'm always very frightened. In fact I stopped doing it a year ago, because I got so nervous before each race, I felt really sick. I'm not going to race again, I'm going to teach other people to drive. I'm going to open a driving school next year.'



(copied from Elementary New Headway 2000)

- 1) When did she have a car accident?
- 2) Who is Julian Swayland?
- 3) How did she start as a racing driver?
- 4) What does she say about her first championship race?
- 5) What has changed her attitude to motor racing?
- 6) What is she going to do in the future?

Discussion

What is your favourite sport?

Would you like to try motor racing?

Is it safe or dangerous?

Discussion strategies

I understand/know how you feel, but

I understand/know what you mean, but

Choose one of these topics, discuss it and use the discussion strategies above in your dialogues.

- Think of a situation where you pity somebody because s/he has to study a lot and does not have free time for activities.
- 2) Think of a situation where your friend had a bad car accident.
- Think of a situation where your friend has broken his leg and you want to calm him/her down.

Follow-up questions

List three things you often do in your free time.

Examples:

I telephone my friends.

I go shopping.

I play football.

Now talk to another pupil and ask at least two follow-up questions about each point. Examples:

A: How often do you telephone your friends?

B: Every evening.

A: What kind of things do you talk about?

B: We talk about what our friends are doing or our plans for the weekend.

Role play

Divide these two roles between the pupils to practise the dialogue.

Pupil A: TV reporter. Interview pupil B about his/her free time activities.

Pupil B: Play the role of a famous person.

Example questions:

What do you do in your free time?

Do you do any sport?

Are there any sports you would like to try?

Further activities – collocations

Make up the sentences with the given collocations.

- 1. Kill time
- 2. A crowded restaurant
- 3. A local restaurant

4. A tradition restaurant

Example: There is not a local restaurant in this town, you find other town.

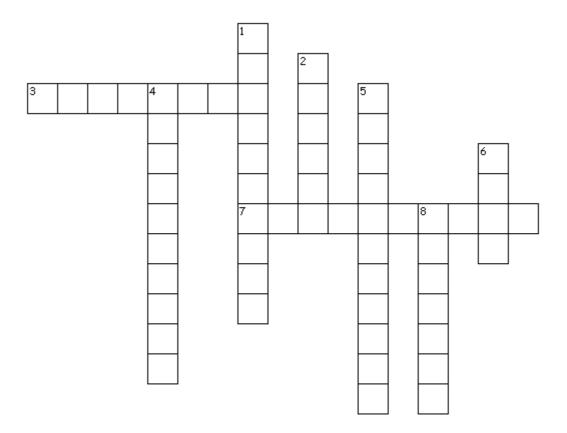
Writing opinions

Write down a short article (20 sentences) about a given topic:

Is sport important for you?

Building vocabulary

Complete the crossword. The answers are types of sports.



Across

3. A type of sport where you need a ball, two gates and a playground.

7. A type of sport where you need two baskets, a ball and a playground. Down

- 1. A type of sport where you need a ball and a net.
- 2. A type of sport where you need rackets, a net and a court.
- 4. A type of extreme sport where you need a rope, a bridge and courage.
- 5. A type of sport where you need a table, a net and two rackets.
- 6. A type of sport where you need a club, a ball and a golf course.
- 8. A sport where you need a bowling ball, an alley and pins.

5.3 Worksheet – Family

Warm-up questions

How many brothers and sisters have you got?

Which members of your family do you feel closest to? Why?

How well do/did you know your grandparents?

Where do your relatives live?

Vocabulary

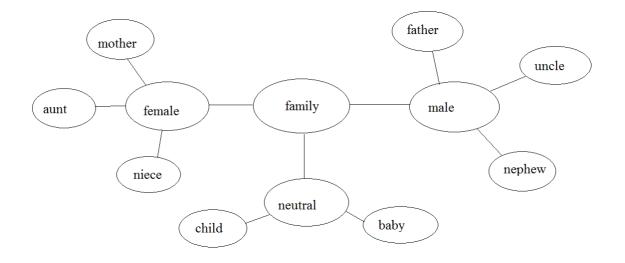
Do you know any words referring to family?

Do you know these words?

child	mum	dad	brother
sister	grandma	grandpa	parents
baby	aunt	daughter	father
husband	nephew	niece	son
twins	uncle	wife	adult

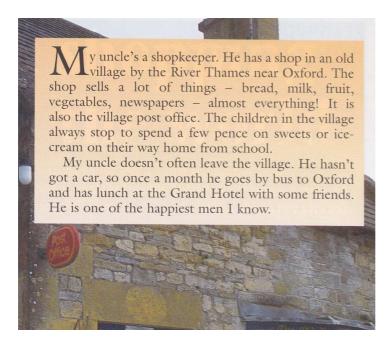
Mind map

Write down a similar mind map, write down as many words as you know to each group.



Practise and discussion

Read this article about the uncle who is a shopkeeper and answer the questions below.



(copied from Pre-Intermediate New Headway 2000)

- 1) Where has the uncle got a shop?
- 2) What does he sell?
- 3) Has the uncle got a car?
- 4) How does he get to Oxford?
- 5) What does he do in Oxford?
- 6) What does the author of the article thinks about his uncle?

Discussion

How many uncles have you got?

What is their job?

Where do they live?

Are you in touch with them?

Discussion strategies

It is true that ... but ...

It may be true that ... but ...

Choose one of these topics, discuss it and use the discussion strategies above in your dialogues.

- 1) Talk about your family.
- 2) Talk about the typical family life.
- 3) Talk about the advantages and disadvantages of living with or without parents.

Follow-up questions

List three interesting things you know about your relatives.

Examples:

My grandmother was an actress.

My aunt and uncle live in the USA.

My grandparents' house used to be a hospital.

Now talk to another pupil and ask at least two follow-up questions about each point.

Examples:

A: Was she a famous actress?

- B: Yes, she was very famous.
- A: Did she play in a movie or at theatre?

B: She played in movies. Her roles were girls from lower society.

Role play

Divide these two roles between themselves and practise the dialogue.

Pupil A: TV reporter. Interview pupil B about his/her free time activities.

Pupil B: Pretend to be a different member of your family.

Example questions:

What do you do every day?

What do think of (pupil B)?

Further activities – collocations

Make up sentences with the given collocations.

- 1) Support a family
- 2) A single parent family
- 3) A spoiled child
- 4) Leave home

Example: Our neighbour is a spoiled child. He gets everything that he wants.

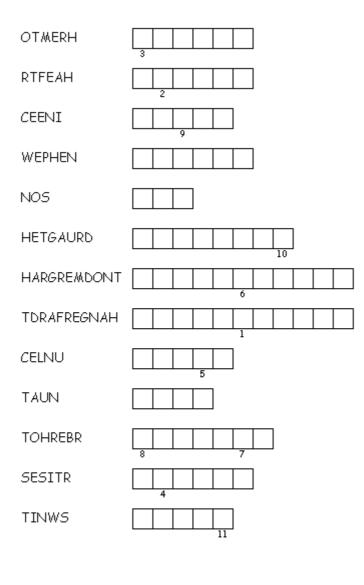
Writing opinions

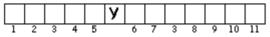
Write down a short article (20 sentences) about the given topic:

My parents.

Building vocabulary

Complete the crossword below, the scrambled letters give you family members and each numbered square fits into hidden compound.





6. Research

6.1 Introduction

Almost every linguist dealing with this issue has carried out important research projects which were part of their explorations and the results of which determined the various taxonomies. I was inspired by these linguists to carry out my own research comparing the usage of communication strategies between adult learners and pupils. Of course, their investigations were carried out on a high level and made many contributions to this domain; mine were carried out under conditions which were possible and sufficient for this thesis.

I will describe the process of collecting data for this research. The most important point was to find appropriate institutions which would permit me to carry out this research in their classrooms. I had to find a basic school and a language school. It was a good time for finding a basic school because I had done my teaching practice at Dukelska basic school (ZŠ Dukelská 11, 370 01 České Budějovice). I found the English section and asked for help with this research. One of the English teachers permitted me to record the English lessons. My first idea was to record the pupils on a camcorder. But a few problems occurred and I was not allowed to record the pupils on the camcorder because there are some specific rules about the protection of personal data. They were afraid that I would use it only for purposes other than for the diploma thesis. The only other possible option for recording them was to use a Dictaphone. But again, there were some restrictions not easy to follow. All the pupils had to be given a note which told their parents that they are going to be recorded. This boy had to leave the classroom every time before recording. No more problems occurred after this demanding start.

In contrast, the cooperation with the language school was excellent. I also carried out my research at Britannia language school (nám. Přemysla Otakara II., 370 01 České Budějovice). These lessons at the Britannia language school were recorded in the same way as at Dukelska basic school. The only difference was that I did not have to prepare notes asking permission for recording. This course was full of adults.

6.2 Subjects

The subjects of the research were 17 pupils from 8th class of Dukelska basic school and 7 women from the Britannia language school. English was a second language for both groups and they were at approximately the same level of English proficiency; namely the intermediate level. Both groups were taught by woman teachers. These teachers prepared speaking activities for them in which I could later identify the types of communication strategies.

6.3 Aim of this research

This research was carried out to test the difference between usage of communication strategies by adult learners and pupils. I recorded three English lessons (total 135 minutes) for each group and these recordings were transcribed into multimedia form. The transcripts are on the CD attached to this diploma thesis. The teacher at the basic school allowed me to teach one English lesson and this is also transcribed. Further, the parts with communication strategies are listed here to identify which communication strategies the groups used. The communication strategies are recorded on a graph (Graph 1, p. 97) comparing the usage of this strategy by adult learners and pupils. As you know from previous parts of this diploma thesis, there are a number of taxonomies available. I chose Tarone's taxonomy for this research because it seems to be the most apt for the purpose, but other linguists (e.g. Bialystok) employed this taxonomy in their research.

6.4 Predictions

Some predictions are possible because of my previous experience with second language teaching and because of two years of major study of communication strategies. The pupils at basic school were less active than the group of women. I understand that they were at an age when they are interested in other things, and English is not their language. They were bored, noisy but less talkative. After the observation of this class, it was evident that they used, particularly, *message abandonment, language switch* and *appeal for assistance*. In contrast, the group of women was friendly, interested in English, talked spontaneously and employed more strategies including *approximation, language switch* and *mime*.

For better orientation, I introduce here again the table 7 (p. 80) with Tarone's taxonomy. See the pages (p. 33 - 37) where each strategy is described in more details.

TABLE 7

1	Avoidance
	a Topic avoidance
	b Message abandonment
2	Paraphrase
	a Approximation
	b Word coinage
	c Circumlocution
3	Conscious transfer
	a Literal translation
	b Language switch
4	Appeal for assistance
5	Mime

From E. Tarone, Conscious communication strategies in interlanguage: a progress report, p. 197. In E. Bialystok, Communication strategies, Oxford: Blackwell, 1991

6.5 List of utterances

The short passages from the transcript will be listed under each strategy with a chart evaluating its results. Each communication strategy is written in italics. I have made a

similar schema to that of Tarone on the base of the results from my research. The reason is that there are some strategies in my research which were not employed and because of it they are now mentioned in the remade table 8 (see below, p. 81). It is obvious that the usage of communication strategies differs and the range of communication strategies used by the pupils is narrower. We should be aware of the fact that the teachers can make mistakes during their utterances.

TABLE 8

- 1 Avoidance
 - a) Message abandonment
- 2 Paraphrase
 - a) Approximation
 - b) Word coinage
 - c) Circumlocution
- 3 Conscious transfer
 - a) Language switch
- 4 Appeal for assistance
- 5 Mime

The list of abbreviations used further in the research:

- P 1-17 pupil
- T-teacher
- $GA group \ A$
- GB group B
- S 1-7 student

6.5.1 Avoidance

Examples of a communication strategy – *Message abandonment* used by the pupils:

1) P10: Where did you stay?

T: Jak dlouho jste tam pobývali?

P10: How long...? (The pupil does not know how he should continue.)

T: How long did you stay there? Dobře, takže otázky máme, tady nahoře je napsaná země nebo místo, nebudete zmiňovat a pod tím jsou možnosti, abyste věděli, co je třeba odpovědět, pokud tam odpověd' nenajdete, tak si musíte nějak pomoct, ale nesmíte říct tu zemi. Uvidíme, jestli to bude fungovat. Je to všem jasné? Takže hodně otázek. Né ale na konkrétní země. Jako třeba byl jsi v Německu? Co jsi tam viděl? Koho jsi tam potkal? Abyste se dostali k té zemi. So we can start. Who wants to be first? Adam. So now you can start asking Adam.

2) T: More questions.

P5: What did you buy?

- P2: (*He does not know*.)... I buy ice-cream.
- T: Adam, what was the weather like?
- P2: Hhhhhhhhh, no já nevím.
- T: What did you do there?
- 3) T: I bought some toys for my friends. Lucka.

P8: Why did you travel there?

P7: Because... (She does not know how she should continue. The teacher has to give her a piece of advice.)

P7: Because I want some new...

T: Ok, ask more questions.

P9: What did you eat and drink there?

P7: I was drink tea and ate... (She does not know how she should continue.)P4: Is it Italy?P7: Yes.

- 4) P7: What did you see there?
 P13: I saw... (*She does not know how she should continue.*)
 P11: What did you drink there?
 P13: I drink wine.
- 5) T: Tak jak řekneš Kačko ráda? Bylo to v té otázce.
 P11: I like... (*She does not know how she should continue.*)
 T: I would like.
 P11: I would like go to the cinema.
- 6) P11: What do you like doing in the summer, Týna?P7: I would like something... (*She does not know how she should continue.*)T: You like surfing.
 - P7: Hm, surfing and swim in swimming pool.
- 7) T: Hm, so you usually go skiing in winter.

P2: And to... já nevím. (He does not know how he should continue.)

T: And nothing else, all right, your question.

P2: Jé, jo, how did you like...

T: We have heard your question already, Kačka has got two. Read the second one. Read it.

8) T: Good explanation Adam. Domča.

T: Choose another one. Tak zkus ještě jedno poslední.

P10: People can aaaaaaa, nevím to jedno slovo. (She does not know how she should continue.)

T: English.

9) GB (P10): Ještě jednou?

T: Hm.

GB (P10): When did you get up last... (*She does not know how she should continue and changed it on Saturday.*) Saturday?

T: Dan.

GA (P14): I... (She does not know, she is thinking.) was get up at 7 o'clock.

T: Hm, so early. Alright. Group A, group A your question.

GA (P9): Where did you go on last Monday, Doris?

10) GB (P6): What were you doing last week?

T: Lukáš.

GA (P17): I was ehhhhh (*He does not know how he should continue. Oh, Jesus what I did.*) play. I was play game.

T: Lukáši, once again.

GA (P17): I was play game.

11) T: How?

T: So listen, Marketa is speaking.

GA (P13): I... (She does not know what to say.) I run slowly.

T: Next question. Markéta.

T: Group A is asking so listen.GA (P13): What did you see in cinema, Kačka?GB (P11): I see... (She does not know what to say.).T: Kačka.

12) T: What did you do?

GA (P15): I do... (She does not know how she should continue.)

T: English.

GA (P15): I do went out...went go out.

Examples of a communication strategy – Message abandonment used by the adults:

1) T: There is a garden, yes?

S3: And... (She is totally lost and does not know how to continue.)

T: Yes? What do you have in this thing? What do you have in this thing?

S3: Hm, there are some rooms.

T: Yes, there are some rooms, yes.

2) S3: I have got many free times because I have a maternity leave.

T: I am on...

S3: I am on maternity leave. When the weather is nice I go by bike with my son and I go for a walk on town because my son is small and he didn't doesn't walk for a long time. And the weekend. We go with my partner to mountains and we went we go for a walk every... (She does not finish her sentence and rather goes to other sentence.) and ...

T: Do you prefer active free time or passive free time?

S3: I prefer active time.

T: Yes? Ok, question, Ivuš.

6.5.2 Paraphrase

Examples of a communication strategy – approximation used by the adults:

1) S1: Would you like something to drink?

S6: Thank you, I would like tea, please.

S1: Fruit tea or black tea or plant tea? (*This woman uses plant tea because she does not know the expression herbal tea, she uses plant tea for better expressing of this type of tea.*)

T: Herbal tea. Herbal tea.

S6: Flower tea.

2) T: Thank you. What is it?

S6: Do you carry it in the hand, on the hand, on the hand, over hand, okolo lesa pán. (*This lady does not know the word wrist so she uses more general word hand.*)

T: What is it? What is this?

S6: Around wrist.

S6: Around your hand.

Examples of a communication strategy – word coinage used by the adults:

1) T: Thank you, Iva go.

S1: It is means of traffic. (She uses the word which is equivalent to the Czech word doprava.)

T: Transport.

S1: Transport.

Examples of a communication strategy – *circumlocution* used by the pupils:

1) P5: How did you travel there?

P7: I go-gone-went by plane. (She uses three forms of the verb go.)

P12: What did you stay there?

Examples of a communication strategy – *circumlocution* used by the adults:

1) S5: Kus-kus taste add o-d-d, a-d-d. (*She uses other possible words to the word odd.*)

T: Odd.

S5: To sap.

T: I have no idea what are you talking about now.

S5: Kus-kus chutná, kus-kus tastes.

T: Odd. Not good.

2) S7: He is 20 and I have to prepare a lot of meal, dish... (*She uses similar words to the word food.*)

T: A lot of what?

Other: food.

S7: A lot of food.

6.5.3 Conscious transfer

Examples of a communication strategy – *language switch* used by the pupils:

- 1) P8: What did you visit?
 - T: Kačka.

P11: I visit ZOO and national museum. (Bad pronunciation again, English words are influenced by Czech pronunciation [zpp] instead of [zu:] and [museum] instead of [mju:ziəm].)

T: She visited the ZOO and national museum.

P13: What did you like?

2) P14: I ate fish and meat.

P2: Who did you meet there?

P14: Nic, nothing. (*The usage of the Czech language for better explanation and understanding.*)

P11: What did you drink there?

P14: Nothing.

3) P14: What did you buy there?

P9: I bought model auto. (*He does not know how he should say it so he adapts it to the Czech language, but it is model car.*)

P7: Where did you stay there?

P9: I stayed at capital city.

4) P14: I buy fruit.

P5: Where did you stay there?

P14: I stayed at moře. (The rest of the class shouts and advises him to use seaside). (The usage of the Czech language for better explanation and understanding.)

5) P11: I would like go to the cinema

P8: Celý prázdniny? Two sentences.

P11: and go to the restaurant. (*Bad pronunciation again which is based on the Czech language [restaorant] instead of [restront].*)

T: Nothing else? Anything else? OK, so you can ask.

6) P17: Which countries have you visited?

T: Can you repeat it?

P2: Mě, mě, mě.

T: Kristýna.

P7: I have visited Italy, Austria, Schweiz, Spain, Croatia, America, Denmark a to je všechno. (*She uses German word Schweiz for English word Switzerland.*)

P8: Ty jsi byla všude.

T: Which of these countries did you like best?

P7: US.

7) P10: Buy je platit?

T: Pay.

P10: People pay tím. (*The usage of the Czech language for better explanation and understanding.*)

P1: Money.

T: Tereza. You pay with it, Domča.

8) P3: You must always... You must always...

P2: Co je to always?

P3: Vždycky. You must English, Deutsch... (She uses Deutsch instead of German.)

T: German.

P6: Language.

P3: No to je jedno slovo.

9) P6: A pig.

GB (P12): Spaghetti (She pronounces [/pʌgety] instead of [spəget1].)

GB (P12): I have eaten spaghetti (*She pronounces [fpAgety*] instead of [spaget1]as well.)

T: Alright. Your question.

10) T: Báro.

GB (P8): Because I was at soustředění. (*The usage of the Czech language for better explanation and understanding.*)

T: So you has training. So you had training. Adam, your question, please.

P2: Who was in this film, Verča?

11) T: Lucka

GB (P3): Did you buy tanga (*They use the word tanga, but it is strings in English.*) last Friday?

GB (P3): Did you buy tanga last Friday?

GA (P9): Fakt ne, já jsem nic nekupoval.

12) T: Pavel is asking.

GB (P3): I don't smoke anything, nic. (*The usage of the Czech language for better explanation and understanding.*)

P2: What was your favourite question?

GB (P6): Mě se nejvíce líbila ta s těma tangama.

Examples of a communication strategy – *language switch* used by the adults:

1) S4: I am late...

T: Yes, why are you late, tell me.

S4: Because we had at my work zastupitelstvo. (*The usage of the Czech language for better explanation and understanding.*)

T: Meeting on the board.

S4: Meeting on the board.

2) T: Zvířátka nejsou she.

S6: It swims in sea, he is potopená. (*The usage of the Czech language for better explanation and understanding.*)

T: It is under water.

3) T: Did you get a present?

S1: Yes, I bought palma. (She thinks that the word palma is similar in both languages, but it is different - palm.)

T: You bought? Vy jste koupila?

4) T: And what about family? Do you know what present you will get or it will be a surprise for you?

S1: We have got with my husband birthday in the same time and we bought travel with, zájezd. (*She uses the word travel in the bad context, but it means in Czech meaning cesta.*)

T: Ok, we bought holiday.

5) T: No, she was here on Monday. She could bring you your homework. Yes, next time ask Katka.

S2: It is a piece of paper, you use it when you want to send a letter. You can't send a letter without it. It is a mark. (*She uses knowledge from the German language because the word for stamp is die Marke.*)

T: No. It is a...?

S1: Známka.

T: It is true. How do you say it in English? Who knows? Who knows?

S4: Sigh?

T: Ne. It is a sta...

S5: Stamp.

6) T: We all love it. We all love it.

S6: When we are rich, we have got a lot of this and it is very good sing about it. Písnička. (*She does not know the word, so she uses the verb and then the Czech word.*)

T: Song.

7) S4: Co potřebujeme?

T: What do you need it for? K čemu to potřebujeme?

S6: We need it for paying and the safe and we in bank ukládáme it. (She does not know the word, so she uses the Czech word.)

T: We save it, příště vám za tohle naplácám, we save it.

8) S1: I must sign in the means to didn't have to pay pokutu. (*She does not the word, so she uses the Czech word.*)

T: Once more. Vy mi to dneska děláte schválně. You don't like me. You hate me. You provoke your teacher. Ok, one's more, Ivo. You sign, ty to podepíšeš.

9) S1: Do you go for a walk with son on foot or your son uses kočárek? (She does not know the English word, so she uses the Czech word.)

T: Does your son use a pram? A pram? A pram.

- 10) S3: Because he knows. He can chodit. (*She does not know the English word, so she uses the Czech word.*)
- 11) T: I have got a lot of free time. Ty jsi mi řekla many free times, nejde. I have got a lot of free time. Tak. Today topic for Iva travelling. Go.

S1: I like travelling in winter we usually go to mountains. We like skiing down hill skiing, we often go to Italy. We stay at the hotel with swimming pool and Turkish spa and sauna. *She uses bad pronunciation of the word sauna. She uses [saona] instead of [saona].*

- 12) S1: Because there is nice nature. The people are very friendly. There is big pořádek a čisto. (She does not know the English word, so she uses the Czech word.)
- 13) S1: Everything is clean and there are cost and nice museums with námořní topic. (*She does not know the English word, so she uses the Czech word.*)

14) T: Yes.

S2: It was...

Other: Papagei.(They use a German word.)

S2: No, no.

T: Singing parrot.

15) S2: It was the present from *antiquariat, nebo jak to řeknu?* (She does not know the English word, so she uses the Czech word.)

T: I don't know second second book shop.

16) S2: With kalamář, and other with pen, with pečetědlo, with vysoušedlo. (She

does not know the English word, so she uses the Czech word.)

- 17) S2: Gynaecologist and I was in a little zákrok (*She does not know the English word, so she uses the Czech word.*)
- 18) T: Are you angry of him because of it? Are you angry of him because of it?

S7: No because it is zbytečný. (The rest of the class gives her an advice useless.)

6.5.4 Appeal for assistance

Examples of a communication strategy – *appeal for assistance* used by the pupils:

1) P1: What did you buy there?

P7: I buy kožešina. Jak se řekne kožešina? (*He appeals the teacher for help with the word kožešina.*)

T: Fur.

2) P2: Who did you meet there?

P13: I...met (The rest of the class advises her.) friendly people.

T: She met friendly people.

P7: What did you see there?

3) GA (P7): Where did you go on last Monday?

GB (P11): Co kde jsem byla?! Kam sem šla?!

T: English.

GB (P11): I go to the cinema.

T: I go?

GB (P11): ...to the cinema. I no went (*The rest of the class advises her*) went to the cinema.

T: Hm, hat's all? Your question?

Examples of a communication strategy – *appeal for assistance* used by the adults:

1) T: Ok. Tell me what about your weekend. What did you do at weekend?

S3: I was by bike with. By bike? (She is not sure, so she asks the teacher.)

T: Hm.

- S3: With my child and my best friend.
- 2) S4: Yesterday evening we ... Jak se řekne se pohádat? (*The rest of the class helps her and tells her argue.*)

S4: We argue with my husband.

T: Why did you argue?

3) T: Where did you go?

S5: I, no to jsem si naběhla. I did. Jak se řekne brokolice? (*She does not know the English word and asks the rest of the class for help.*)

T: Broccoli. Once more. Kam. Where did you go?

- 4) S2: No it was 18 years ago. Yes but there I started to study new school in the high school in at in the České Budějovice and there than I was very busy and when I finished my school I started English lessons. It is. I am first pupil in your school. I go chodím here I think 5 years. Ye it is my resolution and I think my children both my sons are learning, můžu to říct takhle? (*She is not sure and interrupts her speaking by asking about correctness.*)
- 5) S2: It is very hard for him and I think that when I know when is the right time. Right time, můžu to říct takhle? (*She is not sure and interrupts her speaking by*

asking about correctness.) to start language learning.

6) T: Jak řeknu jednou? (She is not sure and asks for help.)

S6: Once.

T: Once in ten minutes.

S6: Once in ten minutes the turtle...

T: Jde nahoru? Goes up.

S6: ...goes up.

7) T: Use please the whole sentence, please!

S3: When you have it your bathroom. Já vůbec nevím, jak to mám říct. (She is lost and does not know how to continue.)

T: What you want to say? Je to sprcha nebo, když chci být čistá, tak používám sprchu.

S4: It is shower.

6.5.5. Mime

Examples of a communication strategy – *mime* used by the pupils:

1) T: Kristýna once again.

P7: You have money in it but it is not cash but it is. It is not cash is little. (*Kristýna showes them a square with the hands.*)

P4: Credit card.

Examples of a communication strategy – *mime* used by the adults:

1) S6: When you go for a walk with your husband. Have you got walking...? (She knows the English word a little bit and helps herself with movements of the hands to-and-fro.)

T: Walking sticks.

S6: Walking sticks?

2) S2: Ne z filmů.

Other: Psací souprava.

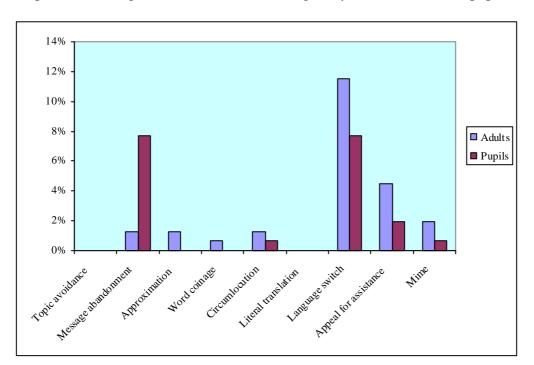
S2: Takovou tu starodávnou. (She shows with her hands something like a box, she wants to advise them that the shape is a rectangle.)

Other: Psací souprava.

3) S2: There is a small swimming pool for children. (She shows something small with her hands, she wants to help us to understand the size that it was really small.)

T: Did you swim in it?

S2: No.



Graph 1: % of usage of communication strategies by adult learners and pupils

6.6 Interpretation of the results

The results of this research are not so surprising because some of my predetermined predictions were fulfilled. After reading these examples, it is obvious that there are many mistakes, which are not easily recognized from communication strategies. To sum up this research, the adult learners used the strategy - *language switch* most. In my opinion, they want to speak in English and are not ashamed to say the Czech instead of English words. Frequently, short passages of the adult learners are longer and contain more words than the short passages of the pupils. Of course, we have to take into account age, motivation and the fact that the adult learners had to pay for the English courses. The pupils often do not finish their sentences so their most used communication strategy is – *message abandonment*. But *message abandonment* is used as much as *language switch*. They also like to use the Czech words or Czech pronunciation during their English speech.

On the other hand, there were strategies – *topic avoidance* and *literal translation* not used by either of group. In my point of view, they each demand quite high mastery of a foreign language and a wide vocabulary. The English proficiency of both groups was on a lower level than these strategies require. In general, the adult learners employed more varied strategies. This is connected with the above mentioned factors and the reality that the learners should be at an intermediate level, which was not the case.

This research also offers other examples of communication strategies in addition to the examples from the above mentioned taxonomies. The great difference is that the Czech learners used these strategies so they are more understandable for us than communication strategies used for example in Spanish. These can be recognized without the learners knowing that they are using communication strategies.

7. Conclusion

Linguists and researchers dealt intensively with communication strategies for almost 30 years, but after this "golden age" of CS, the bad times came and attention became concentrated on other aspects of communication. Of course, these strategies are used in other branches, especially in economics, but they differ from the communication strategies on which I have focused. I have had the chance to push forward this topic and to remember its importance in foreign language teaching.

The literature dealing with this issue is so specific that only a few libraries in Europe have these books, studies or articles available. To get these materials was not easy but the greater effort required to fulfill the main goal of this diploma thesis makes the thesis more interesting and, in my view more valuable.

This diploma thesis was designed to provide the reader with important information about communication strategies. The theoretical part summarizes the basic and interesting topics which are connected with communication and later aims to describe communication strategies but it is not easy, because there are so many different definitions and taxonomies. All these concepts differ and are not uniform which leads the reader to be confused. I have made an effort to clarify this problem and to add my comments for better understanding of these strategies. Moreover, illustrative examples were chosen which supplemented the general overview.

The practical part consists of two sections which I consider to be the greatest contribution of this study to the domain. It can be said that it is the instruction which leads to the inclusion of communication activities into a foreign language lesson. The significance of this communicative competence is stressed again and again nowadays. It is one of the reasons why I attach importance to communication strategies. The research summarizes my collected information and gives the reader a view on communication strategies and their usage by Czech non-native speakers.

The main purpose of the practical part was to outline activities including communication and communication strategies and to introduce information obtained from the research. There is, of course, a huge choice of books which aim to improve the communicative competence of second-language learners. But I wanted to be original and so linked my experience obtained from English teaching practice with information obtained from books about communication strategies so I created new worksheets based on the course book *Communication Strategies*. These worksheets can serve as a resource of information about communication strategies and support their connection into foreign language lessons.

This research was not carried out in the same way as the research by the acknowledged linguistics experts, but it does not change the fact that it brings interesting and new pieces of knowledge about the usage of communication strategies by Czech learners. It was established that adult learners of English employ mostly the strategies *language switch* and *appeal for assistance*. Both strategies are closely connected because if a learner does not know an appropriate word, s/he says it in the Czech language and it can be also interpreted as a request for help. The pupils at basic school use mostly the strategies *language switch* and *message abandonment*. All these strategies are recognizable in the listed examples. These examples are full of the naturalness and spontaneity that learners bring to their mistakes, and do not destroy their general integrity.

Suggesting more concepts for processing this topic is possible because there are more studies or books dealing with this topic. I would propose to draw attention to communication strategies because studying foreign languages is becoming inevitable and different means of improving communication will be sought. Moreover, their necessity is still undervalued in the teaching of foreign languages.

Resumé

Komunikační strategie mě upoutaly již od prostudování několika knížek na toto téma, jelikož to bylo pro mě něco nového, a tak jsem se chtěla dozvědět více. Díky této diplomové práci bych chtěla zprostředkovat informace dalším studentům, učitelům či obyčejným lidem. Bylo mi jasné, že nebude lehké ho zpracovat na 80 stran, ale zhostila jsem se tohoto úkolu s myšlenkou představit téma, které je známe ve světě, ale téměř žádné české publikace se mu nevěnují.

S literaturou o komunikačních strategiích byly problémy už od samého začátku, jelikož literatury k tomuto tématu není tolik, a když je, tak nebyla k dostání v České Republice. Využila jsem proto svého Erasmus pobytu v Německu a část literatury na toto téma sehnala tam. Ale to bohužel nestačilo a obrátila jsem se o pomoc na několik institucí, jednak na katedru anglistiky Jihočeské univerzity, na Akademickou knihovnu Jihočeské univerzity a na ostravskou univerzitu, o které jsem věděla, že se tímto tématem zabývá. Každá tato instituce se mi snažila všemožnými způsoby pomoci, ale ze všeho nejvíce si cením pomoci ze strany Akademické knihovny Jihočeské univerzity, která mi poskytla všechny články a další publikace.

Současně se sběrem publikací o komunitních strategiích jsem prováděla výzkum na základní škole Dukelská a na jazykové škole Britannia. Jak jsem již zmínila v informacích o mém výzkumu, nejdříve jsem musela vyhledat vhodné účastníky pro můj výzkum, což také nebylo jednoduché sehnat skupinu dospělých a dětí, kteří jsou na stejné úrovni v angličtině. Musela jsem navštívit několik hodin na jazykové škole, abych našla tu, která by se úrovní angličtiny hodila k třídě ze základní školy. Na předešlých stránkách jsem zmínila problémy, které se vyskytly s natáčením hodin, zbrzdilo to můj výzkum a bralo energii na pokračování. Naštěstí po počátečních nezdarech pokračovalo všechno, jak mělo, a tak už jen zbývalo hodiny přepsat do multimediální formy a výzkum vyhodnotit.

Další fáze na této diplomové práci bylo prostudování literatury a udělat si jakýsi celkový obraz o komunikačních strategiích a případně načrtnout obsah, o čem by měla

tato diplomová práce pojednávat. Po utřídění informací o komunikačních strategiích a následných konzultacích s vedoucí mé diplomové práce psaní mohlo začít.

Jelikož jsem věděla, že výzkum už mám udělaný a že bude součástí mé praktické části, tak jsem začala s psaním teoretické části. Začala jsem komunikací obecně, protože si myslím, že je dneska jedna z nejdůležitějších kompetencí základního školství a často je v hodinách cizích jazyků opomíjena. Samozřejmě, patří k tématu komunikační strategie. Snažila jsem se zvolit taková témata, která byla v komunikaci zajímavá a užitečná.

Druhá část této diplomové práce se zaměřila už jen na komunikační strategie. V této části je popsáno, co to jsou komunikační strategie, termíny s nimi spojené, faktory, které je ovlivňují a poslední strany jsem věnovala několika rozdělením komunikačních strategií, které se liší, ale v základu jsou velice podobné. Čtenář by měl získat všeobecné informace, které může uplatnit buď při svém povolání (např. učitelé) nebo se jen dozvědět něco nového.

Praktickou část jsem postavila na zkušenostech z mé učitelské praxe a vytvořila pracovní listy pro procvičování komunikačních strategií v hodinách anglického jazyka. Jako vzor mi sloužila kniha komunikační strategie a myslím si, že se k těmto listům ještě vrátím, až budu sama učit angličtinu, protože se mi zdají propracované a zajímavé. Kromě toho se dají různě kombinovat s jinými aktivitami, takže si myslím, že si své místo v hodinách anglického jazyka najdou, ať v mých hodinách či v hodinách jiných učitelů.

Do praktické části jsem ještě zahrnula i výzkum, o kterém jsem se již zmiňovala dříve. Informace z výzkumu jsem zpracovala a výsledky následně zobrazila v přehledném grafu, který porovnává používání jednotlivých komunikačních strategií u dospělých a dětí. Tento graf byl vytvořen na základě krátkých úryvků, které obsahují určité komunikační strategie. Díky tomuto výzkumu jsem měla šanci poznat nové lidi, různé způsoby vyučování angličtiny a možnost pozorovat jak se třída chová jako celek. Výsledky tohoto výzkumu doplňují informace o komunikačních strategiích a umožňují čtenáři si udělat určitý náhled na tuto problematiku.

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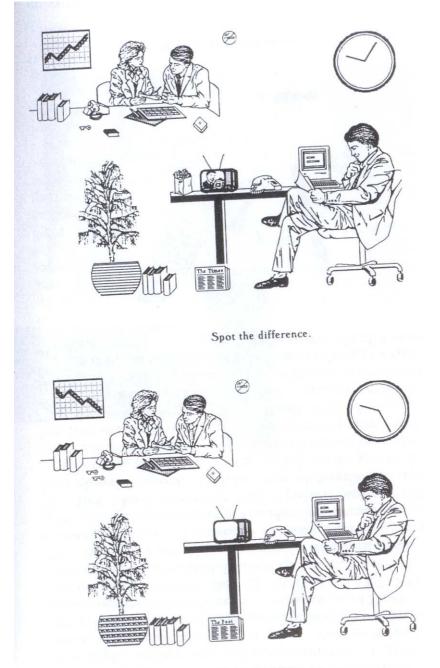
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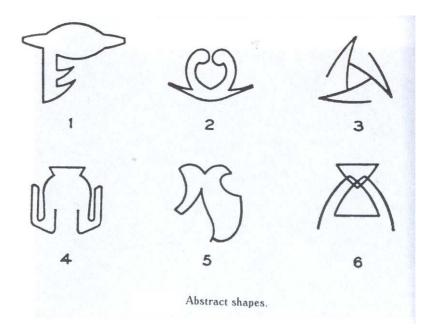
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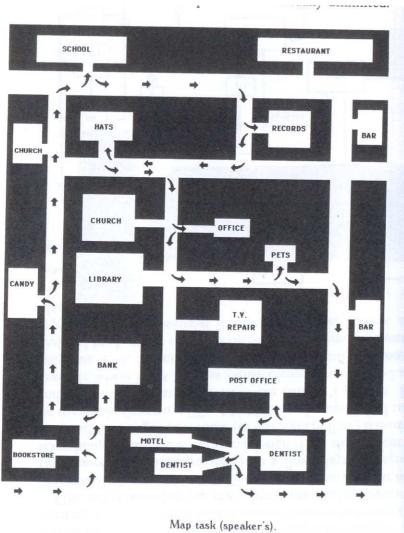


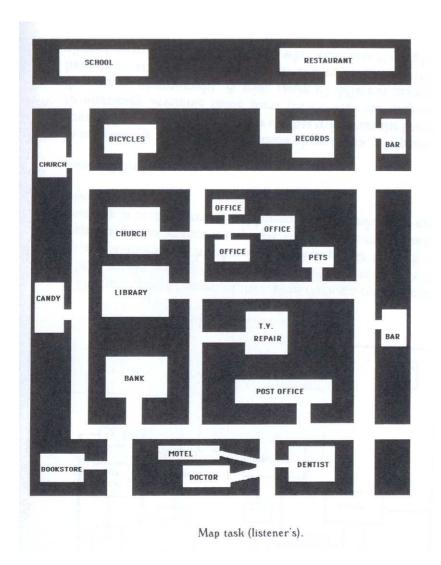
Spot the difference.

(copied from Yule 1997)

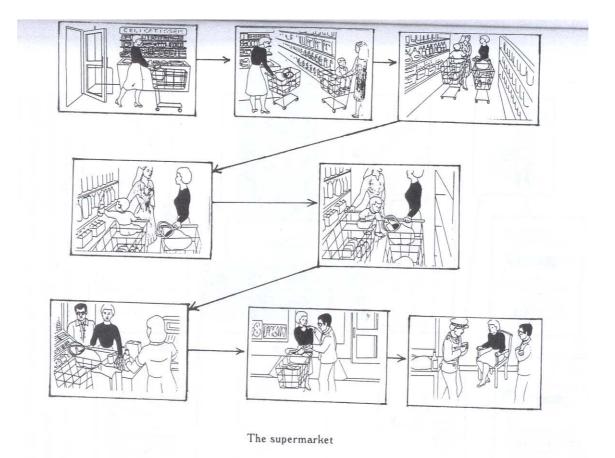


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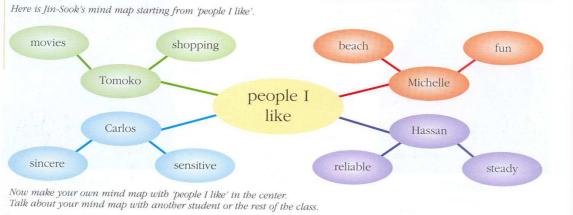


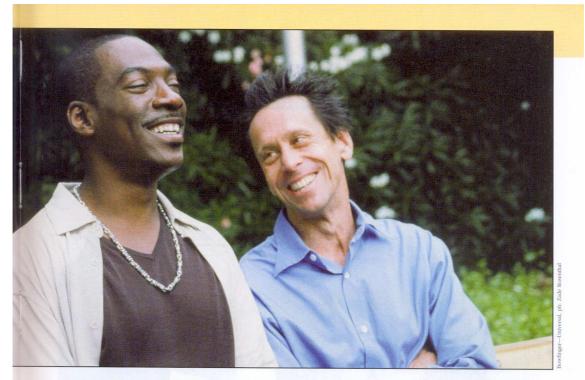
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(copied from Yule 1997)

1.	110	ena	3			
WARN	1-UP QUE	STIONS				
	good friend.			2 4 84		
WI	nat do you do toge	ether?				
WI	nat do you talk abo	out?			Parada	
Wi	y do you like him general what kind	n/her? l of people do you lik	-0			
		i or people do you lik	er			
VOCA	BULARY					
Here are so	me words that will	be useful in this unit.				
How many	do you know?					
	serious	sincere	humor			
	selfish	sincere witty	humor confident			
	selfish sensitive	witty easygoing	confident arrogant			C ANAL C
	selfish	witty	confident			
Discuss wh	selfish sensitive generous	witty easygoing sociable	confident arrogant reliable			
	selfish sensitive generous ch of the above wor	witty easygoing sociable rds could fit in the follo	confident arrogant reliable wing gaps.			
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Tomoko: in-Sook: Fomoko:	selfish sensitive generous <i>cb of the above wor</i> Carlos has no s a few jokes sor He's just not ve like him, thoug he gets hurt ea I must admit, h Even when I'm	witty easygoing sociable eds could fit in the follo sense of He's metimes. ery, and not ver th. I just wish he was sily. e's a great guy! He's a extremely and	confident arrogant reliable wing gaps. always so I w y either. I th a bit more very friend, so , he doesn't so	ink he just prefers in social situations o I can always dej eem to mind at all	s being by himself. I really s, and he's too so	T I
Tomoko: Iin-Sook: Tomoko:	selfish sensitive generous <i>cb of the above wor</i> Carlos has no s a few jokes sor He's just not ve like him, thoug he gets hurt ea I must admit, h Even when I'm	witty easygoing sociable ease of He's metimes. ery, and not ver th. I just wish he was sily.	confident arrogant reliable wing gaps. always so I w y either. I th a bit more very friend, so , he doesn't so	ink he just prefers in social situations o I can always dej eem to mind at all	s being by himself. I really s, and he's too so	7





POINTS OF VIEW - I LIKE PEOPLE THAT TALK A LOT



I like people that are sociable and talk a lot. It's important for them to have a sense of humor, too. I love having lively, witty conversations with friends. I easily get bored when I'm with people who are quiet or shy.

I'm the opposite. I feel much more comfortable when I'm with people who are quiet. I think people that are sociable and witty are often arrogant. I prefer to have friends who stand back and notice what's going on around them. I couldn't have a close friendship or go out with anybody who wasn't sensitive and kind.

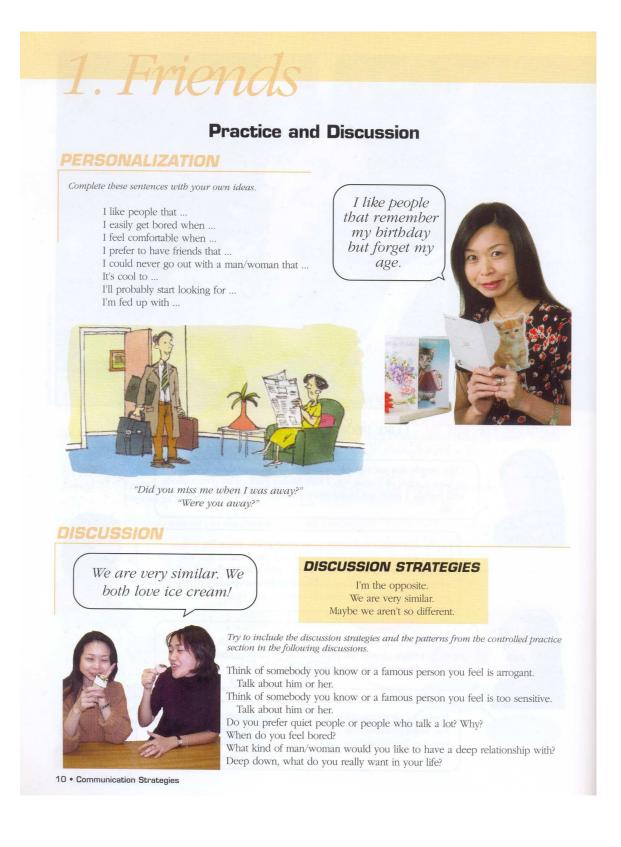
It's cool to be a bit arrogant, and I want to hang out with friends that are cool. I might change my mind if I have a serious relationship or want to get married. But right now, I want to have fun.

Maybe we aren't so different. When you get fed up with just having fun, you'll probably start looking for a lot of sensitive friends and a very kind husband. Deep down, you probably want the same things as me.





Unit 1: Friends • 9



Activities

FOLLOW-UP QUESTIONS

Make three sentences about your character.

Examples: I'm often selfish. I have a great sense of humor! I'm a bit arrogant.

Now talk to another student and ask at least two follow-up questions about each point.

Examples:

- A: When are you selfish?
- B: When I'm tired in the evening.
- A: What do you do that's so selfish?
- B: I just play computer games and hardly
 - talk to anybody.

SITUATION - TELEPHONING A FRIEND

Brainstorming: Think of expressions we often use on the telephone. Think of ways to ask somebody for a date. Think of ways to refuse an invitation.

Student A:

Telepbone B and ask him/her out to seven different places over the next week.

Examples:

Are you doing anything on Monday night? I'm thinking of eating out on Tuesday night. Would you like to come, too?

Student B: Refuse the first six invitations, giving a different reason each time. Accept the last invitation.

Examples:

I'm sorry, I'm busy on Monday. I'll be getting ready for a test.

I wish I could, but I have to go to the gym. I'd love to come. Thank you for asking.

ROLE PLAY

Student A: Student B: TV reporter. Interview Student B about bis/ber friends. Play the role of a famous person.

Example questions: Who are your best friends? When did you first meet? What do you usually do together? What do you think of (name of another famous person)?



"Why don't we go window shopping?" "I don't want to buy any windows."

Unit 1: Friends • 11



Further Activities

COLLOCATION SETS

Put the following into sentences or dialogues:

Friend

- 1. make friends Example:
- 2. best friend
- 3. a friend of the family

Friendship

1. develop a friendship *Example:*

If we have more opportunities to develop our friendship, we might end up getting married.

I've made a lot of new friends since I started learning English.

a close friendship
 a token of friendship

Relationship

- 1. a love-hate relationship
 - A: We have a love-hate relationship.
 - B: You mean you love her, but she hates you?
 - A: No, I mean it's very passionate. Sometimes we get along great, and at other times
 - we fight all the time.
- 2. a deep relationship
- 3. a serious relationship

SPEECHES

Prepare a short speech on one of these three topics:

A misunderstanding with a friend. We should love our enemies. My ideal boyfriend, girlfriend, husband or wife.

EXTRA EXPRESSIONS

Put the following into short dialogues:

bump into long time no see

on the tip of my tongue between you and me

Example:

- A: I bumped into Maria last week. She said she's found a new job.
- B: That's good news. I know she hated her previous job.



"Waiter! What's the matter with this fish?" "Long time no sea, sir."

Consolidation & Recycling

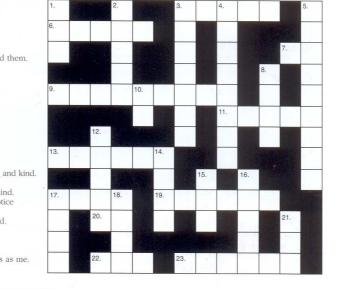
BUILDING VOCABULARY

Across

- 6
- 9
- s I want to _____looking for a new job. I'm _____selfish when I'm at home. Are you doing anything ____ Monday night? She's very ____. Anything is OK. I must ____, he's a great guy. I like people who ____ what's going on around them. He doesn't seem to _____ at all 13 17
- He doesn't seem to at all.
- 19 20
- 22
- He's very sensitive. He gets hurt _____ What kind of people ___ you like? I don't want to buy ____ windows. I can always ____ on him in a crisis. 23

Down

- 3
- He's _____ serious. He needs to relax. I'll be getting _____ for a test. He's so ____. He only thinks about himself. She's so ____! She thinks she's so beautifu!! I couldn't go out with anybody who wasn't _
- 5
- Long ____ no see. I couldn't ____ out with anybody that wasn't kind. I prefer to have friends who ____ back and notice 12
- what's going on. when I'm selfish, he doesn't seem to mind. 14
- somebody for a date.
- 15 16
- _____ somebody for a date. I couldn't have a _____ friendship with him. It's a good way to ______ friends. Deep _____, you probably want the same things as me. I'm ____ up with just having fun. 18
- 21



FOCUSING ON COLLOCATIONS

Write eight separate sentences, each of which includes both words in the pairs below:

like / people sense / humor feel / comfortable make / friends

notice / what deep / relationship sensitive / quiet prefer / have

Write paragraphs about the following. Try to include words and patterns from this unit.

People I like. Being a good friend. Good ways to make new friends.

REFLECTION

Which section of the unit did you find most interesting? In which section of the unit did you learn the most? Make a list of any new words and patterns from this unit that you want to try and remember. You may find it helpful to write each word or pattern on a card.

Unit 1: Friends • 13

		TIONS			- 83	
;	How much free time c What do you usually c What do you dislike d If you had a lot of mo	lo in your free time? oing in your free time		ne?		
	BULARY		-			B. 2
	some words and expre ny do you know?	ssions that will be usefi	ul in this unit.			
	eat out in good shape	out of shape take a trip calm down	lazy exhausted waste			
	opportunity fond of	rush around	take care of			and the second
Lee:	I'm pets,	like to my pets ar too, but I prefer using nd use every I	g my free time acti	vely to staying at		
What we	ords/pbrases that are no	ot in the list can you th	ink of that might be	e useful when we ta	alk about free i	ime?
MIN	D MAP					
Here is	Christina's mind map s	tarting from 'free time'				1
W	ater	sunlight		tidy my room		video
					relax	
	plants		free time		ICIAX	



POINTS OF VIEW - I LOVE BEING LAZY!



I love being lazy! It's wonderful to lie on the beach all day or relax in front of the TV watching one of my favorite videos. I also like taking walks, and occasionally play tennis or golf, but I can't understand people that go to the gym all the time.

I understand how you feel, but you don't know what it's like to be in good shape! It's such a fantastic feeling! I go to the gym every evening after work. First I do some weight training, then I do some aerobics or go for a swim in the pool. I look forward to it all day.



But it's such hard work! How can you enjoy so much pain? And there are so many other things to do in the evening. You can't have time to eat out or go to the movies. I can't imagine liking weight training more than a delicious Italian pizza! I go out for dinner or go to a movie with my friends almost every night. You must be too exhausted to do that kind of thing.

It may not seem like it, but I find I have a lot of energy to do other things as well. I often eat out, too. I don't go to movies very often, but I do like going dancing or bowling. If I was out of shape, I wouldn't have the energy to do so much.





Unit 2: Free Time • 15



Practice and Discussion

PERSONALIZATION

Complete these sentences with your own ideas.

I think it's wonderful to ... I can't understand people that is such a fantastic feeling! I look forward to ... all day. ... is such hard work! I don't have time to ... I can't imagine ... If I were/weren't in good shape ... I can't understand people that are unkind to animals.



"I can play the violin by ear." "Don't your earrings get in the way?"

DISCUSSION



16 • Communication Strategies

DISCUSSION STRATEGIES

I understand/know how you feel, but ... I understand/see/know what you mean, but ... It may not seem like it, but ...

Try to include the discussion strategies and the patterns from the controlled practice section in the following discussions.

Where do you like to eat out?

Do you have a good balance between work/studying and free time? Talk about it. Do you try to keep in good shape? If so, how? If not, why not? Who do you know that rushes around a lot?

Talk about how he/she could relax more.

What would you like to do but don't have time to do?

Do you mind wasting time?

Do you think it is necessary to do things that are hard or painful?

Activities

FOLLOW-UP QUESTIONS

List three things you often do in your free time.

Examples:	I telephone my friends.
	I go to see movies.
	I go shopping.

Now talk to another student and ask at least two follow-up questions about each point.

Examples:

- A: How often do you telephone your friends?
- B: Every evening.
- A: What kinds of things do you talk about?
- B: We talk about what our friends are doing,
- our plans for the weekend. We just like chatting.

SITUATION - AT A RESTAURANT

Brainstorming:	Think of your ideal menu.
	Think of ways to ask for things on the menu.
	Think of ways a waiter may say no to your requests.

Student A:

: You are a customer in a restaurant. Order dinner. Complain when the food you order is not available, and after you receive your food.

Examples:

What do you mean 'it's not available? It's on the menu. I asked for chicken, but this is duck. Well, what do you recommend?

Student B:

B: You are a waiter. Most of the food A orders is not available today.

Examples:

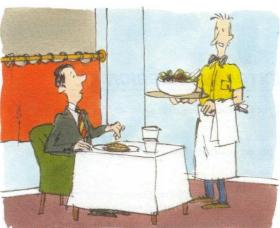
I'm extremely sorry, sir/madam, I'll get you a clean one. I'm very sorry. We've just run out of champagne. I'm afraid that's a typing mistake. It should say 'duck'.

ROLE PLAY

Student A: Student B:

at A: TV reporter. Interview Student B about the exercise be/she takes.
Be yourself or play the role of a famous person.

Example questions: What kind of exercise do you take? Is it enough? Are there any new sports you'd like to take up?



"Why is my hamburger flat?" "Well, sir, you said I want a hamburger, and step on it!'"

Unit 2: Free Time • 17



Example:

Example:

Example:

Further Activities

COLLOCATION SETS

Put the following into sentences or dialogues:

Time

- 1. save time
- run out of time
 kill time
- 5. KIII UIIIE

Trip

- 1. arrange a trip
- cancel a trip
 a business trip

Restaurant

- 1. a crowded restaurant
 - vacu restaurant
- 2. a local restaurant
- 3. a traditional restaurant

We'll save time if we take a short cut.

We've arranged a trip to Hawaii. Everybody's going!

You have to reserve a table in advance. The restaurant gets crowded very early.

SPEECHES

Prepare a short speech on one of these three topics:

It's important to have a lot of free time. Watching TV is bad for us. Sports should be amateur, not professional.

EXTRA EXPRESSIONS

Put the following into short dialogues:

take it easyrunning / in a rowpractice makes perfectso far so good

Example:

- A: How's your training course going?
- B: Well, so far so good, but it's getting more difficult all the time.



"Does your husband take a lot of exercise?" "Yes, last week he went out five nights running."

Consolidation & Recycling

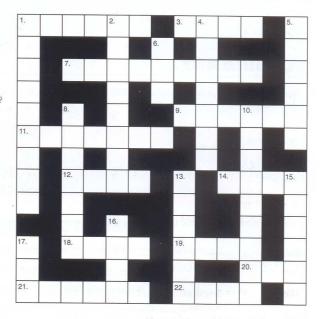
BUILDING VOCABULARY

Across

- I have a lot of _ _ to do other things as well. 37 It may not <u>like</u> it. She's very ____. She knows she will do well. 9 I love having _____ conversations with do well. I love having _____ conversations with friends. He's so ____. He never tells jokes. I ____ I could, but I have to go to the gym. I went on a business ____ to Bangkok. 11
- 12
- 14
- Who would you like to have a _____ relationship with? 18
- 19 Would you like to ____, too? It's great to ____ on the beach.
- 20
- I often _____ at nice restaurants. I love being __! 21 22

Down

- After working hard, I feel
- He's so ____. He's always giving things to people.
- What are you doing this _____
- When I was a child, I _____ studied hard. 6
- It's on the ____ of my tongue. You'll have to reserve a place. It gets ____ early. 8
- 10
- 13
- 15
- 16 , please? 17
- I like to ____ my free time actively.



FOCUSING ON COLLOCATIONS

Write eight separate sentences, each of which includes both words in the pairs below:

wonderful / to fed / up have / time cool / to

good / shape go / out selfish / arrogant local / restaurant

WRITING OPINIONS

Write paragraphs about the following. Try to include words and patterns from this unit.

The importance of doing exercise. How to relax.

Balancing work/studying and free time.

REFLECTION

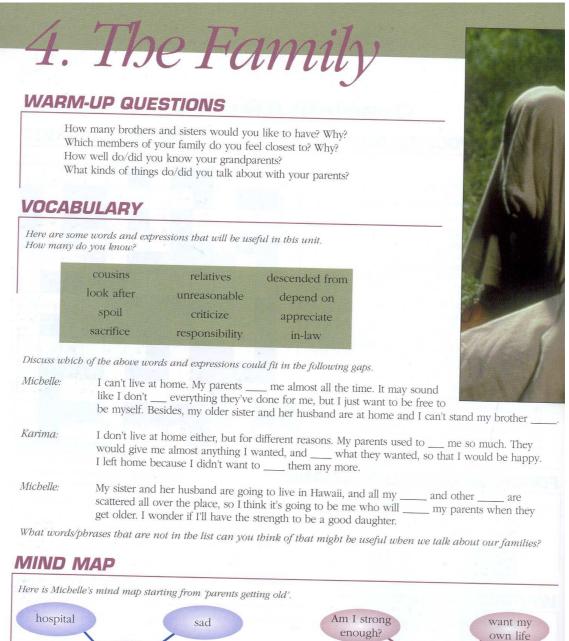
Which section of the unit did you find most interesting?

In which section of the unit did you learn the most?

Make a list of any new words and patterns from this unit that you want to try and remember.

You may find it helpful to write each word or pattern on a card.

Unit 2: Free Time • 19





Now make your own mind map with 'parents getting old', 'my family', 'my parents' or 'my future family' in the center. Talk about your mind map with another student or the rest of the class.



POINTS OF VIEW - WE SHOULD LIVE WITH ELDERLY RELATIVES



I live with my two sisters, my parents and two of my grandparents. We're one big happy family! I'd hate it if my grandparents had to live by themselves or in a special home for old people. I think it's our duty to look after our parents when they get older. After all, they made many sacrifices for us when we were children.

You're living in the past! It's true that we owe our parents a lot, but nowadays it's normal for children and their parents to live in different cities or even in different countries. Old people who expect to live with their children's families are being selfish and unreasonable.

It may be true that many families can't help becoming scattered, but we can often find a way to live with our parents after they become old if we try hard enough. It's often the children who are selfish and don't appreciate how much their parents have done for them.

In modern society, the government should be responsible for taking care of old people. Maybe we should all pay more tax, so that homes for old people can be as nice as possible.





Unit 4: The Family • 27





Practice and Discussion

I live with

my dog and

cat.

PERSONALIZATION

Complete these sentences with your own ideas.

I live with ... I'd hate it if ... It's our duty to ... It's normal to ... I can't help ... We can ... if we try hard enough. Many people don't appreciate ... I'm responsible for ...



"Am I descended from a gorilla?" "I'm not sure. I don't know your father's family very well."

DISCUSSION



clothes.

It's true that I spend too much

DISCUSSION STRATEGIES

It's true that ... but .. It may be true that ... but ... That's a good point, but ..

Try to include the discussion strategies and the patterns from the controlled practice section in the following discussions.

How do you feel about being with people older than you? Talk about the general situation in your family.

- Do you think the typical family life in your country has changed a lot in recent years? How? Why?
- How do/would you feel about living with your partner's parents after marriage? Why?
- How can society pay for the increasing number of old people?
- Are the old or the young usually more selfish? Why?
- How do you want to live when you get older?

Activities

FOLLOW-UP QUESTIONS

List three things you know about your family's history.

Examples: My grandparents lived in China. Most of my ancestors were farmers. My family used to be rich.

Now talk to another student and ask each at least two follow-up questions about each point.

Examples:

- A: Which part of China did they live in?
- B: I think it was in the north.
- A: Why were they living there?
- B: They were Chinese, and they left China to live in Thailand.

SITUATION - LOOKING FOR A HOUSE

Brainstorming:

rming: Think of nice places to live in your city. Think of nice places to live around the world. Think of qualities a nice bouse should have.

Student A:

You are at a real estate agency looking for a house for your family.

Examples:

I'm looking for a small house that isn't too far from the station. What's the neighborhood like?

Is there enough space in the living room for my tank of piranha?

Student B: You are working in the agency.

Examples:

There's a convenience store just around the corner. It was redecorated and completely rewired last year. There's a nice view from the bedroom.

ROLE PLAY

Student A: Student B: TV reporter. Interview Student B. Pretend to be a different member of your family.

Example questions: What do you do every day? What do you think of (Student B)?



"It's only a stone's throw from the bus stop." "That's good. When we have nothing to do we can throw stones at the buses."

Unit 4: The Family • 29



Further Activities

COLLOCATION SETS

Put the following into sentences or dialogues:

Family

support a family *Example:* a talented family

3. a single-parent family

Child

a spoiled child
 a naughty child

3. have a child

Home

1. leave home

Example:

Example:

a comfortable home
 work from home

My father and mother both work to support the family.

I was definitely a spoiled child. I could have almost anything I wanted.

I want to leave home and live by myself. / I usually leave home at 7:30.

SPEECHES

Prepare a short speech on one of these three topics:

Families are only important when we are children. Most parents spoil young children too much. Parents should give teenagers a lot of freedom.

EXTRA EXPRESSIONS

Put the following into short dialogues:

black sheep of the family run in the family

Example:

- A: Who do you take after?
- B: I'm not really sure. I think I take
 - after my father more than my mother.

take after

make yourself at home



"Dancers run in the family." "It's a pity they don't dance."

Consolidation & Recycling

BUILDING VOCABULARY

Across

68

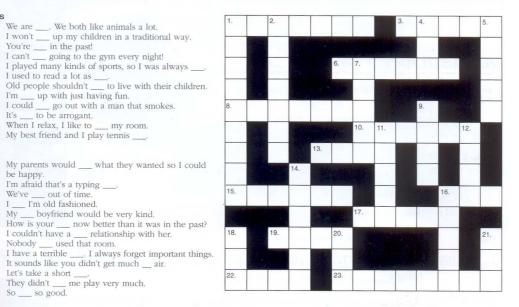
10 13

Down

2

14 16 18

20



FOCUSING ON COLLOCATIONS

Write eight separate sentences, each of which includes both words in the pairs below:

leave / home spoilt / child it / important depend / on wonder / if hate / if calm / down not / appreciate

WRITING OPINIONS

Write paragraphs about the following. Try to include words and patterns from this unit.

My parents. Bringing up children. Taking care of parents when they are old.

REFLECTION

Which section of the unit did you find most interesting? In which section of the unit did you learn the most? Make a list of any new words and patterns from this unit that you want to try and remember. You may find it helpful to write each word or pattern on a card.

Unit 4: The Family • 31

(copied from Paul 2003)