

**PEOPLE'S DEMOCRATIC REPUBLIC OF ALGERIA
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**Strategies to Foster EFL Learners Communicative Competence :
Theoretical Bases and Implementation**

Extended essay submitted to the Department of English as a partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Master's Degree in Language Studies

Presented by :

Miss. Wassila DIABI

Supervised by :

Pr. Smail BENMOUSSAT

Board of Examiners :

Pr. Smail BENMOUSSAT Supervisor

University of Tlemcen


Dr. Omar AZZOUG President

University of Tlemcen

Dr. Abdellatif SEMMOUD Examiner

University of Tlemcen

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*to my parents
for their unconditional love and support*

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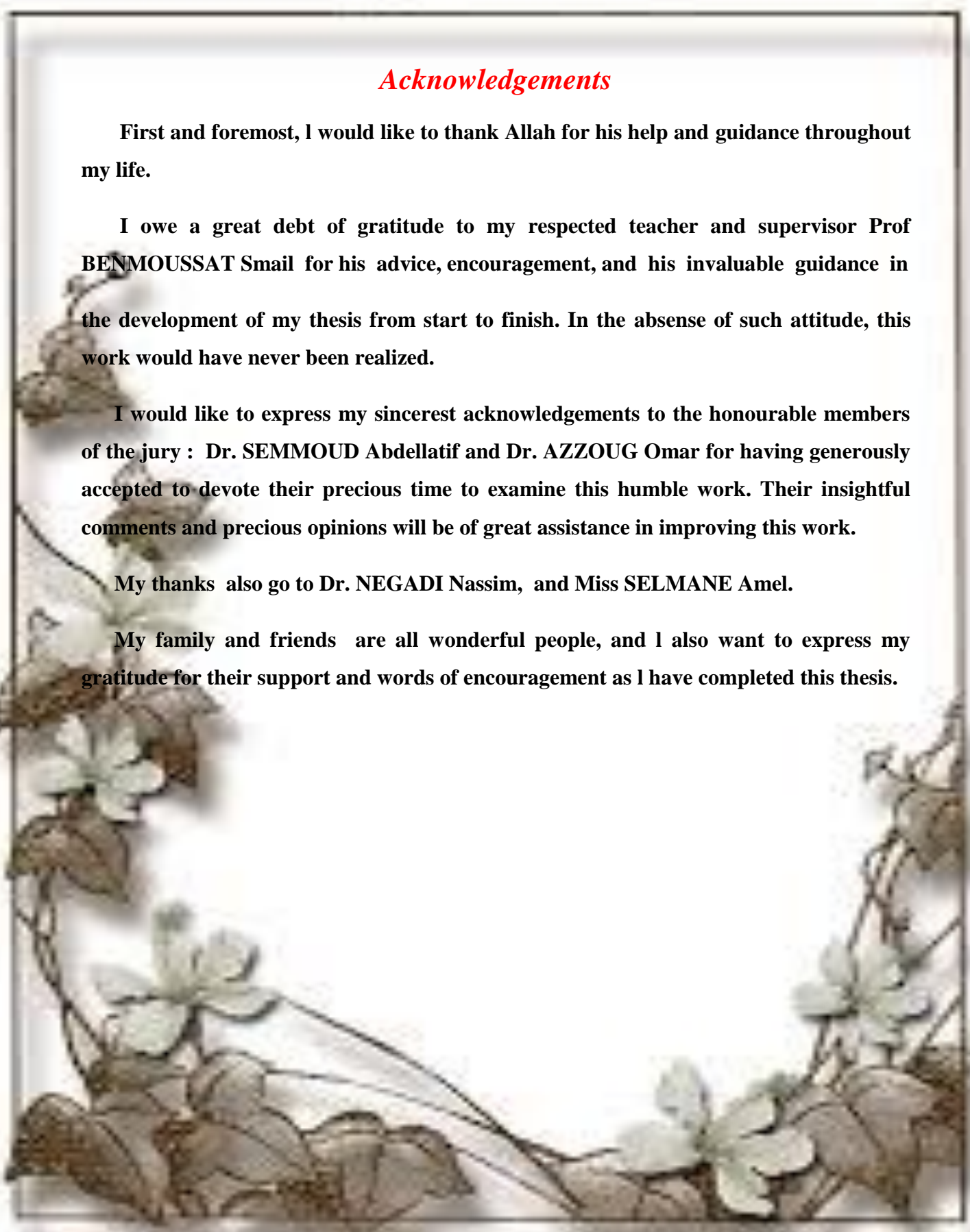
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Abstract

As in daily communication of learners of English as a foreign language inside the classrooms there exist no ideal speakers and hearers of the language, the goals of English language teaching have become more concerned with enabling those learners to produce at least an effective interlanguage, interact successfully, and overcome their communicative problems with their colleagues and with members of other societies by using some communication strategies. Accordingly, the present study dealt with the usefulness of teaching those techniques in English as a foreign language speaking contexts and providing opportunities to practise them for reaching a relevant communicative competence. Students of English as a foreign language in the faculty of Letters and Languages at Tlemcen University face a great number of communication difficulties when using the English language. Therefore, thinking of alternative ways to solve these problems would be the urgent task of teachers of this language to teach them through classroom activities during which learners use strategies that compensate for the breakdowns in communication and make the classroom lively. The dissertation provided examples of learners trying to express what they wanted to say once facing communicative inadequacies. Their solutions was to use one or more communication strategies. The results shed light on the idea that learners plan either to eliminate a problem by changing the topic or not participating in a conversation, or to cope with the difficulty.

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List of Acronyms

CA : Communicative Approach

CSs : Communication Strategies

EFL : English as a Foreign Language

ELT : English Language Teaching

FL : Foreign Language

FLL : Foreign Language Learning

GG : Generative Grammar

IL : Inter Language

L1 : First Language

L2 : Second Language

NL : Native Language

SLA : Second Language Acquisition

TL : Target Language

General Introduction

General Introduction

Successful use of English for communication presupposes the development of communicative competence in the users of that language, i.e. the knowledge of how to use one's linguistic system appropriately in a situation. During the process of communication, students of English as a foreign language may come across number of problems and they cannot sustain a conversation in English as they have no idea about how to cope themselves when they are faced with gaps in the classroom, as well as, in real life situations which result in the termination of communication.

Accordingly, teachers contribution to make their learners able to achieve communication strategies will help a lot to produce different and effective reactions as they will be able to cope with the trouble they confronte in classroom conversation. Therefore, the aim of the work is to show those learners how to reach their communicative competence through adopting some communication strategies either by using an achievement behaviour or an avoiding behaviour.

Based on the above objectives, this study attempts to answer the following research questions :

- 1)- What is communicative competence and what is involved in it as a broad concept ?
- 2)- What is the effective role of the teacher to maximize the use of communicative strategies in classroom conversations ?
- 3)- What are the different strategies that students of English as a foreign language ought to develop in classroom ?

These questions led to the following hypotheses :

- 1)- The ability of learners of English as a foreign language to reach their communicative goals depends to a large extent on their communicative competence in which strategic competence plays an indispensable role.
- 2)- Teachers need to teach their learners what to do when they fall into trouble in communication.
- 3)- Learners of English as a foreign language need to learn and practise ways of dealing with conversations where they likely to encounter problems in achieving their communication aims.

To confirm these hypotheses, the researcher reveals some classroom activities in which students rely on communication strategies due to their imperfect knowledge of the target language.

The present work is divided into two chapters. The first chapter presents some definitions of communicative competence and explanations of other concepts that have been always correlated to communicative competence.

The second chapter is concerned with communication strategies and the instructional role of teaching those strategies inside classes of English as a foreign language and providing learners with opportunities to train the use of them to keep the conversation going on in situations where there is a lack in the target language.

Chapter One

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From Linguistic Competence to Communicative Competence

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1.1. Introduction

Communicative competence is a set of skills by which a speaker of English as a foreign language (EFL) is judged while first impressions are being formed. Hence, the ability to communicate effectively in English is now well-established objective in English language teaching (ELT). It includes a variety of skills, that are, accurate linking of words and phrases, intelligible pronunciation, appropriate intonation, and think to solve a problem for a particular real-situation, and taking into consideration the setting, the participants, and their role relationship.

Accordingly, this chapter deals with the background of communiactive competence developed by Hymes and the sebsubsequent taxonomies which they have been shown. The concepts of pragmatic competence and cultural competence are presented in this part as an indispensable components of any communicative situation.

1.2. Linguistic Competence

In the 1950s, the American cognitivist Noam Chomsky revolutionised the field of linguistics and challenged the principles of structural linguistics and behavioural psychology by proposing a theory of cognitive psychology known as Generative Grammar (GG) which is concerned with the development of grammars that give a complete description of what knowledge a native speaker of that language must have. Within the elaboration of such kind of grammar, Chomsky in the 1960s introduced the notion of linguistic competence which refers to the unconscious linguistic knowledge possessed by a native speaker, an innate biological function of the mind that permits people to generate the infinite number of grammatical sentences that constitutes their language, as opposed to the concept of linguistic performance which refers to the way a language system is used in concrete situation. The notion of linguistic competence was actually introduced in Chomsky's well known quotation :

Linguistic theory is primarily concerned with an ideal speaker-listener, in a completely homogeneous speech community, who knows its language perfectly as is unaffected by such grammatically irrelevant conditions as memory limitations, distractions, shifts of attention and interest, and errors (random or characteristic) in applying his knowledge of the language in actual performance.

Chomsky (1965 :3)

Although the concept of linguistic competence was an essential contribution to understanding language and linguistics, it was criticized by many researchers who concerned with situational and sociolinguistic perspectives. For instance, the American ethnographer Dell Hymes(1972) shows :

That Chomsky's linguistic competence lacks consideration of the most important linguistic ability of being able to produce and comprehend utterances which

are appropriate to the context in which they are made [...] The competence that all the adult native speakers of a language possess must include their ability to handle linguistic variation and the various uses of language in the context. It should encompass a much wider range of abilities than homogeneous linguistic competence of the Chomskyan tradition.

Hymes (1972, qtd. in Yano 2003 :76)

In other words, Hymes deems Chomsky the idealized concept of linguistic competence as inadequate as it does not deal with the interpersonal aspect of language in relation to social context. The American anthropologist reveals that native speakers of a language their knowledge must not be restricted only to grammar, phonology, and lexicon; however :

All native speakers of a language also have to know how to use that language appropriately in the society in which they live. They have to know when to speak when not to, which greeting formula to use when, which style to use in which situation, and so on. Non-native speakers also have to acquire communicative as well as linguistic competence when learning a foreign language, if they are to be able to use that language effectively and appropriately and participate in cross-cultural communication.

Hymes (1972, qtd. in Trudgill 1992 :17-18)

Hedge (2000) defines linguistic competence as one including various kinds of knowledge, as well as, a competent language user linguistically is one who has such capacities as follows :

Linguistic competence involves a knowledge of spelling, pronunciation, vocabulary, word formation, grammatical structure, sentence structure, and linguistic semantics. We can judge, then, that a learner who is able to list orally and in writing the objects in a bowl, such as an apple, an orange, two bananas, and bunch of grapes, is developing the ability to select specific vocabulary and knows its pronunciation and graphic forms. A learner who can add prefixes correctly to 'perfect', 'legal', 'happy', 'pleasing', and 'audible' to make the negative 'equivalents, is developing competence in using word-formation rules correctly. learner who can describe recent events by using 'have/has' and the past participle of the main verb is developing grammatical competence in forming the present perfect tense In these various ways the learner is acquiring linguistic competence in the second language.

Hedge (2000 :47)

Furthermore, Stern (1983a) includes the knowledge of form and meaning in his characterisation of what it denotes to know a language, *“the language user knows the rules governing his native language and he can ‘apply’ them without paying attention to them”* (1983a:342). He adds *“the native speaker has an intuitive grasp of the linguistic, cognitive, affective and sociocultural meanings expressed by language forms”* (343).

On the other hand, for successful learning process, the task of the teacher is to note that linguistic competence is an integral part of communicative competence and to provide an amount of hours that aim at achieving an effective level in the knowledge about the system language. For instance, Faerch, Haastrup, and Phillipson assert ***“it is impossible to conceive of a person being communicatively competent without being linguistically competent”*** (1984 :168). Hedge (2000) shows her disapproval about the communicative language teaching that has less well perceived the importance of teaching communicative competence along with linguistic competence as an ultimate goal. She states :

It has perhaps been a misconception about communicative language teaching that does not aim for a high standard of formal correctness. On the contrary, it is not incompatible to have correctness in the use of rules as an ultimate goal and, at the same time, to tolerate risk-taking and error in the classroom as part of the process of achieving communicative competence.

Hedge (2000 :47)

Moreover, the study of linguistic competence is as indispensable to the study of communicative competence as is the study of sociolinguistic competence, as pointed out by Canale and Swain (1980) :

One may have an adequate level of sociolinguistic competence in Canadian French just from having developed such a competence in Canadian French; but, without some minimal level of grammatical competence in French, it is unlikely that one could communicate effectively with a monolingual speaker of Canadian French.

(Quoted in Ohno, 2002 :28)

1.3. Communicative Competence

The idea of communicative competence is originally derived from Chomsky's distinction between competence and performance. In *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax* (1965), the structuralist Noam Chomsky pointed out an outstanding distinction between the implicit knowledge located in speaker's mind, or what he calls linguistic competence and what he utters, or what he calls, linguistic performance, *i.e.* ***“we thus make a fundamental distinction between competence (the speaker-hearer's knowledge of his language), and performance (the actual use of language in concrete situations...”*** (Chomsky, 1965 :4). Accordingly, such a debatable distinction between the two aspects of language encompasses an emphasis on linguistic competence through idealized abstractions and the ignorance of individual idiosyncracies or variations as inappropriate details of language behaviour. However, in the 1970s, a counter-movement against the so-called 'linguistic competence' led by the American anthropologist Dell Hymes who reveals that ***“Chomsky's notion of competence is too restrictive and does not take into account underlying rules of performance”*** (Alharby, 2005 :28). He considers the latter, that is the rules of performance to be part of competence, and therefore, proposes a wider view of competence. He asserts that ***“there are rules of use without which the rules of grammar would be useless. Just as rules of syntax can control***

aspects of phonology, and just as rules of semantics perhaps control aspects of syntax, so rules of speech acts enter as a controlling factor for linguistic form as a whole” (Hymes, 1972 :278). In other words, Hymes insists that *“we should study the knowledge that people have when they communicate_ what he calls communicative competence. Just like linguistic competence which tells you wether a sentence is grammatical or not, communicative competence tells you wether an utterance is appropriate or not within a situation”* (Lin, 2004 : 2). Therefore, Hymes refers to communicative competence as *“that aspect of our competence that enables us to convey and interpret messages and to negotiate meanings interpersonal within specific contexts”* (Brown, 2000 :246).

For successful communication, Hymes proposes four kinds of knowledge : Possibility, feasibility, appropriateness and attestedness. Possibility refers to the correctness of something within the formal system. A communicatively competent speaker knows wether an instance conforms to the rules of grammar or not, for instance, ‘me going to work now ’ goes astray those rules, while ‘ I am going to work now ’ does not. Feasibility, a psychological term has to do with limitations to what the mind can possess. The matter of feasibility concerns with memory limitations, perceptual device, effects of properties such as nesting, embedding, and branching. Appropriateness means the relation between communicative actions and their social environments. Spitzberg and Cupach (1989 :7) believe that *“ appropriateness reflects tact or politeness and is defined as the avoidance of violating social or interpersonal norms, rules, or expectations ”*. Lastly, attestedness, that is to say if something is well done. More precisely, whether all the above- mentioned three types are well accounted by the speaker. Therefore, to communicate successfully, one has to follow or pass through all the four components. In other words, Hymes describes the competent language user as the one :

Knowing when it is appropriate to open a conversation, and how, what topics are appropriate to particular speech events, which forms of address to are be used to whom and in which situation, and how such speech acts as greetings, compliments, apologies, invitations, and complements are to be given, interpreted, and responded to.

Hymes (1971, qtd. in Wolfson & Judd 1983 :61)

Moreover, Cunnigsworth recognizes that knowing language is a multifaceted learning process which must include Hymes components of communicative competence in order to maximize a successful language learning. He asserts :

Knowing a language does not stop at the ability to produce and understand grammatically correct sentences...Knowing a language means being able to use it effectively in social situations, selecting the appropriate style, matching language of context, perceiving the speaker’s intention, and performing successful speech

acts.

Cunningsworth (1983 : 8)

Since the formulation of Hymes' communicative competence, linguistic theories were developed in a new direction, i.e. second language acquisition (SLA) field has adopted communicative approach (CA) in language teaching in which there has been an emphasis on language use instead of language structure, and the concept of communicative competence widely accepted as a basis for testing both oral and written language proficiency. In fact, having perfect linguistic forms within a verbal communication does not account for communicative competence as Ingram (1985: 226) argued that ***“the notion of communicative competence evolved in order to account for the fact we have already observed that linguistic competence does not adequately account for how language is used for the forms that occur in in actual use ”***. Furthermore, Savignon criticized Chomsky's idea of idealized and purely linguistic competence as a theoretical ground of the methodology for learning, teaching and testing languages. She defines communicative competence with an emphasis on the importance of paralinguistic (non-verbal) input in the communicative use of linguistic knowledge :

Communicative competence may be defined as the ability to function in a truly communicative setting – that is, in a dynamic exchange in which linguistic competence must adapt itself to the total informational input, both linguistic and paralinguistic, of one or more of the interlocutor.

(Savignon, 1972 :8)

1.4. Communicative Competence Revisited Versions

After Hymes (1972) defines communicative competence as not only an inherent grammatical competence but also as the ability to use grammatical competence in a variety of communication situations, it is assumed that learners can do more with their foreign language (FL) than merely producing grammatical sentences. Therefore, communicative competence has become an outstanding tenet of FL education theory, and a crucial factor to make the teaching and learning process real. Many language educators and applied linguists agree on the premise that learners should not only seek to master the formal properties of their target language (TL), i.e. phonology, morphology, and syntax; however, they should acquire the ability to use the TL to communicate. In other words, beyond linguistic correctness, it is comprehensibility and appropriateness of language use that learners should strive for. As Widdowson (1978, qtd. in Ohno 2002 :27) suggests that knowing language is more than how to understand, speak, read, and write sentences ; however, how sentences are used to communicate ***“we do not only learn how to compose and comprehend correct sentences as***

isolated linguistic units of random occurrence ; but also how to use sentences appropriately to achieve communicative purposes''.

During the 1970s and the 1980s, goals of ELT become more concerned with enabling learners to communicate effectively with members of other societies, and therefore, many researchers with primary interest in the development of classroom communicative ability have given their valuable contributions to such concept of ecommunicative competence.

In fact, Canale and Swain (1980) were among the first applied linguists to develop and elaborate a theoretical model of communicative competence that course designers and language teachers could apply to teaching and assessment. Their model includes three domains of knowledge and skills which are grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence and strategic competence. Three years later, Canale (1983) added discourse competence (the ability to combine grammatical forms and meanings to achieve a unified spoken and written text). This can be illustrated in the following paradigm :

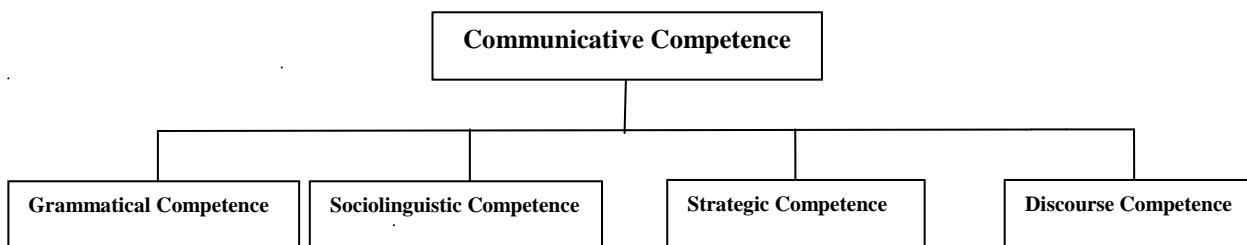


Figure 1.1 Canale and Swain’s (1980) and Canale’s (1983) Model of Communicative Competence .

In this figure, grammatical competence involves knowledge of vocabulary, spelling, pronunciation, word formation, sentence structure and linguistic semantics. Sociolinguistic competence is the ability to understand the social contexts, the participants and the shared information for the appropriate production of utterances to achieve certain functions. Speaking about strategic competence, one needs to master the verbal and non-verbal strategies to compensate for breakdowns in communication, and to improve the effectiveness of communication by paraphrasing, code-switching, avoiding, and gestures. According to

Canale, discourse competence refers to the ability to combine grammatical forms and meanings to achieve cohesion and coherence of a unified spoken or written text.

Another model has been proposed by Bachman (1990) under the heading of ‘Communicative Language Ability’ which increases the complexity of the concept of communicative competence. In fact, the term ‘Communicative Language Ability’ refers to both “*knowlegde, or competence in appropriate contextualised communicative language use*” (Bachman, 1990 :84). Bachman proposed a taxonomy encompassing three components including language competence, strategic competence and psycho-physiological mechanisms. This is represented in the following figure :

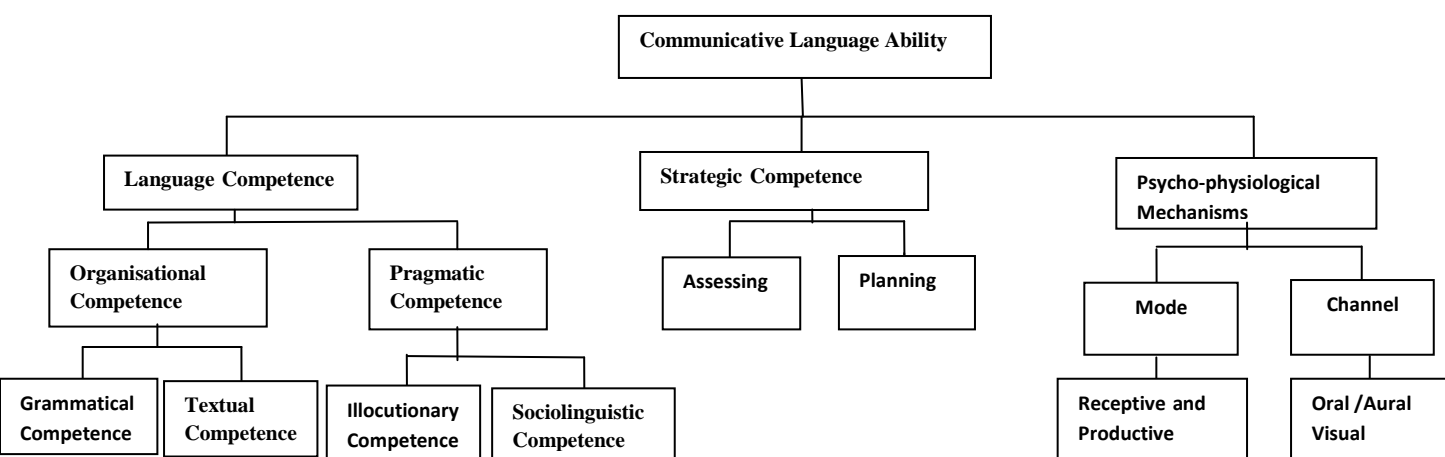


Figure 1.2 Bachman ’s (1990) Model of Communicative Competence.

According to Bachman, language competence can be classified into organisational competence and pragmatic competence. The former comprises grammatical competence (same as Canale and Swain’s model), and textual competence which refers to the knowledge required to join utterances together to form a text. The latter subdivided by Bachman into two kinds of ability. By illocutionary competence, he denotes knowledge of the pragmatic conventions for achieving certain communicative goals. By sociolinguistic competence, on the other hand, he means the knowledge of cultural rules of use of the language and rules of discourse for performing language functions in their appropriate contexts. The second and the third divides that are strategic competence and psycho- physiological mechanisms described by him as follows :

Strategic competence is the mental capacity for implemementing the components of language competence to determine the most effective means of achieving a communicative goal and psycho-physiological mechanisms refer to the actual execution of a language as a physical phenomenon .

Bachman (1990, 81-91)

Another multidimensional and interdependent model was suggested by Verhoeven and Vermeer (1992) for describing the concept of communicative competence and known by many ELT researchers as one “.....conforms to a great extent to the theoretical frameworks proposed by such researchers as Bachman and Palmer, Canale and Swain” (Verhoeven and Vermeer, 1992 :171). Their main contribution, however, was in their introduction of the second and fourth divide of their communicative competence framework, i.e. discourse fluency and illocutionary force. Discourse fluency refers to the knowledge about the rules and conventions of combining grammatical forms and meanings through cohesion and coherence to achieve unified spoken texts in different genres. Illocutionary force refers to the knowledge of using socially appropriate illocutionary acts which are realized in a variety of ways such mood, punctuation, word-order, stress and intonation. Their model is shown in the following figure :

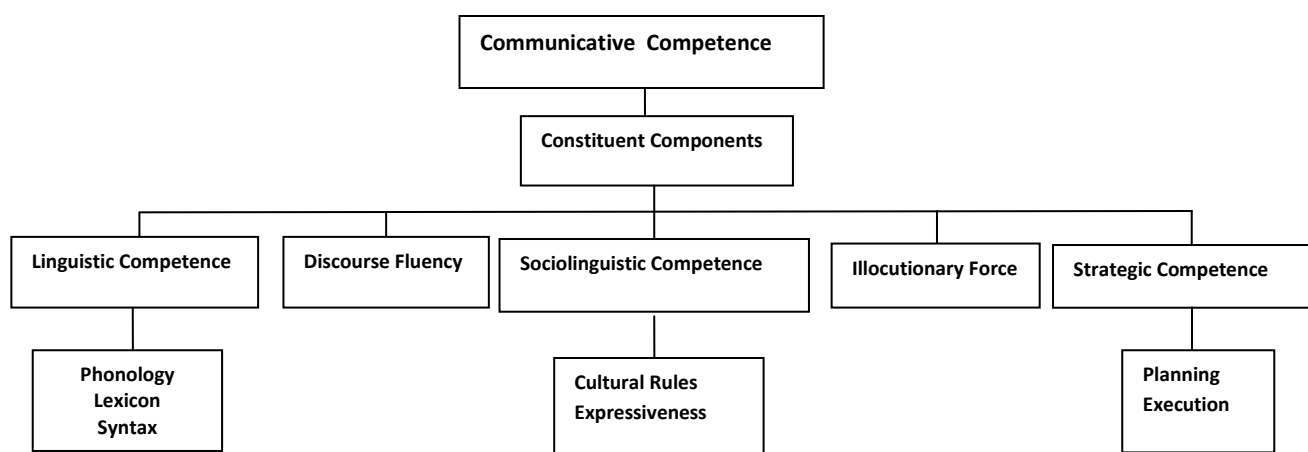


Figure 1.3 Verhoeven and Vermeer (1992) Model of Communicative Competence .

Lastly, the final framework would be that of Bachman and Palmer (1996), a more comprehensive model emphasises on language knowledge, as well as, on the central role of strategic competence and higher-order processes that explain the interaction of knowledge and affective components of language use. Their model can be summarized as follows in the following diagram:

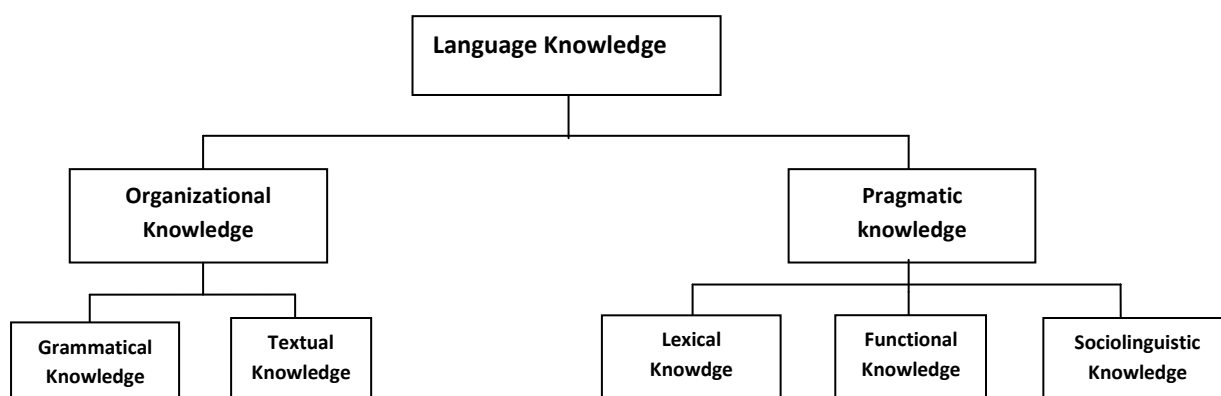


Figure 1.4 Bachman and Palmer's (1996) Model of Communicative Competence.

In this model, Bachman and Palmer divide organisational knowledge into grammatical knowledge (similar to Canale and Swain's grammatical competence) and textual knowledge (similar to Canale and Swain's discourse competence). The second divide of Bachman and Palmer of language competence known as pragmatic knowledge which is again broken down into lexical knowledge (knowledge of the meanings of words and the ability to use figurative language), functional knowledge (knowledge about the relationship between utterances and language user's communicative goals), and sociolinguistic knowledge (similar to Canale and Swain's sociolinguistic competence).

Comparing Canale and Swain's diagram, Bachman's diagram and Verhoeven & Vermeer's diagram of communicative competence, one can find that strategic competence plays an important role on learner's development of communicative competence by using *“ 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”* (Canale and Swain, 1980 :30). Furthermore, Chen (1990) conducted a study of communication strategies in interlanguage (IL) production by Chinese learners of the English language. He deduced that *“ one can develop learner's communicative competence by building up their strategic competence, that is, their ability to use communicative strategies that allow them to cope with various communicative problems that they might encounter”* (1990 :156). Therefore, the study of communication strategies is of great importance in the research of communicative competence.

1.5. Pragmatic Competence

In the early 1970s, a new approach appeared to language learning which came to be known as CA. It resulted from the work of the outstanding linguist Dell Hymes who viewed language as no more a set of grammatical rules to be learned; however, as a whole system of communication. In fact, the Functional- Communicative Approach was undeniably a reaction against the approaches and methods to teaching and learning that paid little or no attention to communication, and emphasised on an explicit teaching of the formal properties of language. This is obviously identified in official documents, *“Traditional methods which use, among other things, translation and systematic grammatical analysis leave pupils little time to practice the spoken language and do not lead to a sufficient consolidation of the language items learnt ”* (Directives et Conseils Pédagogiques, 1971-1972 :3). Therefore, the emphasis was to develop communicative competence instead of linguistic competence as suggested by Chomsky, i.e. the aim was to understand and produce language which is appropriate to communicative situations, as Searle (1969, qtd. in Chomsky 1975 :20) points out *“the*

purpose of language is communication in much the same sense that heart is to pump blood ”. In the same vein, Crystal (1989 :374) posits that *“a concern developed to make FLT ‘communicative’, by focusing on learners’ knowledge of the functions of language, and on their ability to select appropriate kinds of language for use in specific situations”*. In other words, many scholars and researchers within the field of EFL learning aim at developing pragmatic competence which is one of the indispensable components of communicative competence.

Before one look specifically at some definitions of pragmatic competence, some words are to be said in order to exolicate the concept of pragmatics. In fact, pragmatics is a subfield of linguistics defined as :

The study of language from the point of view of users, especially of the choices they make, the constraints they encounter in using language in social interaction and the effects their use of language has on other participants in an act of communication.
(Crystal, 1997 :301)

Charles Morris (1938) was the first to introduce the concept of pragmatics which was the concern of sociolinguistics and other disciplines. He originally defined pragmatics as *“the discipline that studies the relations of signs to interpreters, while semantics studies the relations of signs to the objects to which the signs are applicable”* (quoted in Liu, 2007 : para. 6). Furthermore, Kasper (1993 :3) argues that pragmatics is *“the study of people’s comprehension and production of linguistic action in context”*. As a research by Sharples, Hogg, Hutchinson, Torrance and Young (2009) provides a defintion of pragmatics based on the the concepts of context and identity. They (2009) says in this context *“those aspects of the study of language that pertain to the identity and intentions of the speaker and hearer, and the context in which speech takes place ”* (Quoted in Castillo, 2009 :15).

Currently, the concept of pragmatics is used thoroughly in the field of second language L2 and FL acquisition and teaching especially in reference to pragmatic competence. The latter is considered as one of the abilities included in the overarching concept of communicative competence. The notion of pragmatic competence seen in opposition to grammatical competence, i.e. ‘the knowledge of form and meaning’. Pragmatic competence was early defined in Chomskyan terms as the *“knowledge of conditions and manner of appropriate use (of the language), in conformity with various purposes”* (1978 :224).

Pragmatic competence is the ability to produce and comprehend utterances that are appropriate to the context in which they take place. In a very current study of pragmatic competence, Barron (2003) points out :

Pragmatic competence..... is understood as the knowledge of the linguistic resources

available in a given language for realising particular illocutions, knowledge of the sequential aspects of speech acts, and finally, knowledge of the appropriate contextual use of the particular language's linguistic resources.

Barron (2003 :12)

In the same vein, Castillo (2009 :9) stipulates, “ *pragmatic competence refers to the ability to comprehend, construct, and convey meanings that are both accurate and appropriate for the social and cultural circumstances in which communication takes place.*”

Many researchers, in fact, have shown their interest to the concept of pragmatic competence, for instance, Canale and Swain (1980) includes pragmatic competence as an essential component of their model of communicative competence under the concept of sociolinguistic competence which pertains to the mastery of cultural rules of use of the language and the rules of discourse. Canale (1988 :90) defines the term of pragmatic competence as one including “ *illocutionary competence, or the knowledge of the pragmatic conventions for performing acceptable language functions, and sociolinguistic competence, or knowledge of the sociolinguistic conventions for performing language functions appropriately in a given context*”. Later on, Bachman (1990) takes up the notion of pragmatic competence in his model of language competence, in which it includes pragmalinguistics, that is, “*the resources for conveying communicative acts and relational or interpersonal meanings. These resources include pragmatic strategies such as directness and indirectness, routines, and a great variety of linguistic forms which can intensify or soften communicative acts*”(Kecskes, 2015 :5), and sociopragmatics which refers to “*the sociological interface of pragmatics*” (Leech, 1983 :10).

1.6. Cultural competence

The last half of the twentieth century witnessed the recognition of communicative competence as an outstanding component of the foreign language learning (FLL) process. The term of communicative competence has always been used with purely positive ring to it. Some years later, many specialists within the field of EFL teaching become aware of the culture that varies from one country to another and from one community within that country to another. Therefore, culture diversity today is a norm rather than an exception, and it is increasingly argued, then, that teaching culture as a part of the language syllabus is central in enhancing communicative competence. Peterson and Coltrene (2003 :2) state “*in order for communication to be successful, language use must be associated with other culturally appropriate behaviour*”. Moreover, FLL has aimed at developing learners' ability to “*communicate with each other accross linguistic and cultural boundaries*” (Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, teaching, assessment (CEF) 2001 :3). Hendon (1980 :198) believes that the TL teaching that does not focus on teaching

its culture, students will not communicate to *“the fullest extent”*. In the same vein, Stern (1983b) proposes a multidimensional curriculum approach to teaching languages, in which *“both a cultural and a communicative syllabus become essentials in language teaching as much as more formal approach”* (1983 :123). In other words, FL teachers and educators are required not merely to increase all students performance, however, to bring knowledge about the country and its people , reduce achievement gap among racial groups and raise appreciation of diverse cultures, i.e. to develop FL learners cultural competence.

In fact, today’s FLL includes many components which are linguistic competence, communicative competence, language proficiency, and cultural competence which refers to the knowledge of the conventions, customs, beliefs, and systems of meaning and showing a set of appropriate behaviours and attitudes to communicate effectively in cross-cultural situations. The concept of cultural competence is well-demonstrated in the Office of Minority Health (OMH, 2000 :28) that merged several existing definitions :

Cultural and linguistic competence is a set of congruent behaviors, attitudes, and policies that together in a system , agency, or among professionals that enables effective work in cross-cultural situations, actions, customs, beliefs, values, and institutions of racial, ethnic, religious or social groups. ‘ Competence’ implies having the capacity to function effectively as an individual and an organization within the context of the cultural beliefs, behaviors, and needs presented by consumers and their communities

Furthermore, cultural competence is defined as :

The ability to identify and challenge one’ s own cultural assumptions,one’s values and beliefs. It is about developing empathy and connected knowledge, the ability to see the world through another’s eyes, or at the very least, to recognise that others may view the world through different cultural lenses.

Fitzgerald (2000, qtd. in Stewart 2006)

It is clear that cultural competence is more than speaking the TL or being aware of the essential features of a cultural group. Cultural competence denotes being able to recognise the importance of race, ethnicity, and culture in a cross cultural situation. It is awareness and acknowledgement that people from another culture do not inevitably share the same customs, beliefs, and practices. Cultural competence needs any person in any situation to show respect and openness toward someone whose social and cultural background is different from his own.

On the other hand, most FL teachers and learners seem to lose sight of is the fact that *“knowledge of the grammatical system of a language [grammatical competence] has to be complemented by understanding (sic) of culture-specific meanings [communicative or rather cultural competence]”* (Byram, Morgan et al ., 1994 :4).

Accordingly, FLL is foreign language culture learning, and Kramersch (1993) reveals the importance of integrating culture into language learning and teaching as follows :

Culture in language learning is not an expendable fifth skill, tacked on, so to speak to the teaching of speaking, listening, reading, and writing. It is always in the background, right from day one, ready to unsettle the good language learners when they expect it least, making evident the limitations of their hard-won communicative competence, challenging their ability to make sense of the world around them.

(Kramersch, 1993 :1)

Also, it is not surprising that whereby the teaching of culture in a FL classroom, cultural competence is highly fostered , and therefore, learners *“ideally, they will come to understand the concept of culture and the phenomena (e.g. ethnocentrism, empathy, stereotyping, exoticism, discrimination, culture shock) that are characteristic of the relationship with other cultures ”* (Minister of Education, Citizenship and Youth, 2004 :42)

1.7. Conclusion

This chapter has given an overview on the notion of communicative competence. The researcher also tried to show that communicative competence along with its different angles have had a central impact on the linguistic theories, leading them to develop in new direction. Moreover, the chapter shows the importance of both pragmatic competence and cultural competence in avoiding as much as unintelligibility that is likely to stem from cultural differences.

Chapter Two

Chapter Two :

Communication Strategies in Classroom of Teaching English as a Foreign Language

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2.1. Introduction

Communication strategies (CSs) are those verbal and non-verbal ways or solutions that EFL learners use to overcome the inadequacies of their IL resources. To train those learners to communicate fluently using CSs, providing effective communicative activities inside the EFL classroom becomes an urgent task.

Accordingly, the chapter tries to present various definitions of CSs and different taxonomies. It shows the pedagogical importance of CSs inside the classroom in facilitating learners communicative competence. Furthermore, the chapter gives some basic communicative activities with examples in which EFL learners use some CSs as soon as they cope with their communication problems.

2.2. Communication Strategies' Definitions and Classifications

Nowadays, how to communicate effectively in FLL becomes much more important than reading and writing. However, some people can communicate effectively in a second language (L2) with only using gestures, paraphrase, cognate words from their first language (L1), synonyms, and switch from one language to another, i.e. they use CSs because **“they lack grammatical and vocabulary in the target language”** (Dornyei, 1995 :56), and their communication success relies completely on their **“ability to communicate within restrictions”** (Savignon, 1983 :43). As a result, **“communication strategies have turned into a crucial topic for all foreign language learners and teachers”** (Zhang, 2007 :43). O'Malley and Chamot (1990 :43) point out that CSs are particularly essential **“in negotiating meaning where either linguistic structures or sociolinguistic rules are not shared between a second language learner and a speaker of the target language ”** to make themselves understood and hold the conversation despite their limited FL system.

In the early 1970s, the notion of CSs was introduced into SLA and has reserved as a focus of interest for researchers ever since. In fact, Selinker (1972) was the responsible for the coinage of this term, as well as for the term of IL. The latter refers to the language system which is neither the native language (NL) nor the TL, adopted by L2 learners to approach the TL. As stated by Nemser (1971 :116) that **“learner speech at a given time is the patterned product of a linguistic system La (approxiamative languag) distint from Ls (source language) and Lt (target language) and internally structured”**. Development of this system of language relies especially on the use of CSs of the TL communication (Selinker, 1972).

CSs have been differently highlighted and defined by many scholars of second and forein language learning. Various technical terms and key words have covered the definitions of CSs as follows : A systematic technique (Corder, 1977); conscious plans (Faerch and Kasper,

1983); techniques (Stern, 1983); a mutual attempt (Tarone, 1981). An early definition of CSs maybe stated by Corder (1978, qtd. in Lin 2011 :13) as *“a systematic technique employed by a speaker to express his own idea when faced with some difficulties”*. Accordingly, Corder’s definition *“seems to be more visual and pellucid from the viewpoint of non-native speaker of English”* (Zhang, 2007 :44)

CSs are tools used to reach some communication goals, i.e. they tell the interlocutor what a speaker needs or wants to say. Faerch and Kasper (1983 :36) used the term ‘plan’ to explain CSs, *“communication strategies are potentially conscious plans for solving what to an individual presents itself as a problem in reaching a particular communicative goal ”*. While Faerch and kasper looked at CSs from the psychological perspective, that is, *“an individual mental response to problem rather than a joint response by two people”* (Lin, 2011 :12), Tarone (1981) studied CSs from the interactional perspective. He defined them as *“a mutual attempt of two interlocutors to agree on a meaning in situations where requisite meaning structures do not seem to be shared. (Meaning structures include both linguistic and sociolinguistic structures”* (1981 :72). Tarone pointed out that successful communication is the responsibility of the speaker and hearer simultaneously, i.e. they rely on several strategies to overcome some difficulties faced during communication.

Poullisse (1987) talks about the linguistic deficiency in FL interaction which results in communicative problems. He argues emphatically that CSs are *“the strategies which they employ to solve these linguistic problems”* (1987 :141). Ellis (1986 :182) reveals that CSs are *“psycholinguistic plans which exist as part of the language user’s communicative competence. They are potentially conscious and serve as substitutes for production plans which the learner is unable to implement”*. Stern (1983, qtd. in Bialystok, 1990 :3) considers CSs as *“techniques of coping with difficulties in communicating in an imperfectly known second language”*.

Furthermore, the concept of CSs is defined as *“those systematic devices a second-language learner uses in attempting to express precise meaning in TL”* (Palmberg, 1978 :1). Bialystok proposes that *“communication strategies overcome obstacles to communication by providing the speaker with an alternative form of expression for the intended meaning”* (1990 :35).

When reading the definitions as presented by different theorists and researchers, it is obvious that there are conceptual differences; however, they reveal the same purpose, namely *“to solve an emerged communication problem by applying some kinds of techniques”* (Zhang, 2007:44).

Vàradi (1973) was the first to carry out an empirical research on CSs. He focused on the strategies which the learner uses when he experiences a ‘hiatus’ in his IL repertoire.

Since the 1970s, many theorists and scholars have contributed to provide different explanations of CSs. In fact, some outstanding theorists have suggested distinct models to create a hierarchy of strategies on the basis of which a particular strategy an EFL learner adopts due to his insufficient linguistic resources. In order to deal with communication difficulties, “*furthermore students can compensate for their lack in resources in the L2 by either changing their original intention or by using other ways of expression*” (Hedge, 2000: 52). These models include Tarone’s five major kinds of CSs, Faerch and Kasper’s two category strategy taxonomy and Dornyei two category strategy model. These frameworks are considered as being different from each other; nevertheless, differences exist in terms of how strategies are categorized and labelled. In other words, “*the organization of classification would possibly be a different surface structure which reflects the same fundamental structure*” (Lin, 2011:19).

In a very early study on CSs, Tarone (1977) provides five kinds of strategies of communication: Avoidance, paraphrase, borrowing, appeal for assistance and mime. This is illustrated in the following diagram :

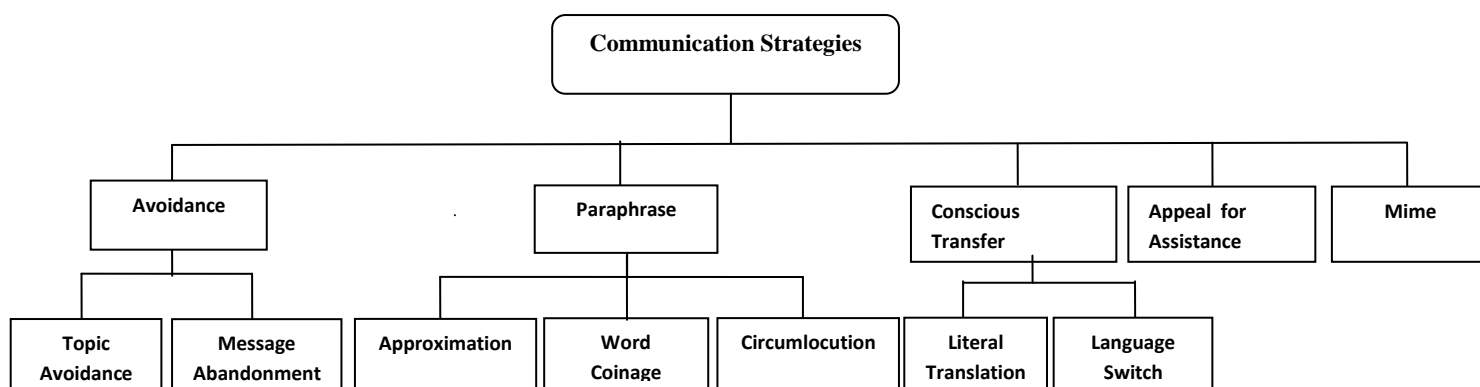


Figure 2.5 Tarone’s (1977) Typology of CSs.

In this figure, avoidance is divided into topic avoidance (the learner’s avoiding to share deliberately information about a specific topic as it presents difficulties during an interpersonal interaction) and message abandonment (the learner’s leaving of a message unfinished due to lack of linguistic competence or weak strategic competence. Paraphrase comprises of approximation which is defined by Tarone (1977, qtd. in Bialystok 1990 :40) as “*the use of a single target language vocabulary item or structure, which the learner knows is not correct, but which shares enough semantic features ...*”, word coinage refers to the learner’s making up of a new item to reach his message to the speaker, and circumlocution refers to describing of the properties of an object or an action instead of using the suitable foreign term. Transfer encompasses, again of two components. By literal translation he means translating literally a lexical item, or structure from L1 to L2. By language switch, on the other hand, he means “*the straightforward insertion of words from another*

language” (41). The last two divides are known as appeal for assistance and mime. The former refers to the learner request for the cooperation of the interlocutor to give him the exact term or structure. The latter meant as the learner’s using of non verbal strategies such as gestures, facial expressions, drawing pictures and imitating sounds which replace a lexical item or an action.

Dornyei (1995) provides two branches which reveal a totally different orientations from each other in communication. One is avoiding strategies and the other is compensating strategies. Dornyei proposes eleven components for compensation, and two components for avoidance, as shown in the following table :

Avoidance Strategies	Message Abandonment Topic Avoidance
Compensatory Strategies	Circumlocution Approximation Use of All -Purpose Words Word Coinage Prefabricated Patterns Non-Linguistic Signals Literal Translation Foreignizing Code-Switching Appeal for Help Stalling or Time-Gaining Strategies

Table 2.1 Dornyei’s (1995) Model of CSs.

Dornyei suggests seven types of strategies that are similar in Tarone framework of CSs, i.e. message abandonment, topic avoidance, circumlocution, approximation, word coinage, literal translation, and appeal for help. In term of differentiation, Dornyei introduces six types of distinctions as follows: Use of all–purpose words, prefabricated patterns, nonlinguistic signals, foreignizing, code-switching, and time gaining strategies. First, use of all purpose words refers to the learner’s use of general word to fill the vocabulary gap. The second, prefabricated patterns concern *“using the memorized stock phrases or sentences for survival purposes”* Dornyei (1995, qtd. in Brown 2000 :128). The third, nonlinguistic signals comprises using of *“mime, gesture, facial expression, or sound imitation”* (128). The fourth, foreignizing refers to *“using a L1 word by adjusting it to L2 phonology and /or morphology”* (128). the fifth , code switching is defined as *“using a L1 word with L1 pronunciation or a L3 word with L3 pronunciation while speaking in L2”* (128). Finally, time gaining strategies, that is to say *“using fillers or hesitations devices to fill pauses and to gain time to think”* (128).

Faerch and Kasper (1983) categorize strategies of communication into two main aspects: Achievement communicative strategies and reduction communicative strategies, i.e. *“achievement strategies allow learners to have an alternative plan to achieve reaching an*

original goal using the resources that are available. Reduction strategies are used by learners to avoid solving a communication problem and allow them to give up on conveying an original message” (Rodríguez and Roux, 2012 :114). Their model can be summarized in the following table:

Reduction strategies	Formal reduction strategies Phonological Morphological Syntactic Lexical Functional reduction strategies Acritical reduction Modal reduction Propositional reduction Topic avoidance Message abandonment Meaning replacement
Achievement strategies	Compensatory strategies Code switching Interlingual transfer Inter/intra lingual transfer IL based strategies Generalization Paraphrase Word coinage Restructuring Cooperative strategies Non-linguistic strategies Retrieval strategies

Table 2.2 Faerch and Kasper’s (1983) Classification of CSs.

Faerch and Kasper (1983:37) state that *“the choices of strategies learners use are not only base on the type of strategy they apply, they also depend on the kind of problem they are facing”*. In one hand, they describe reduction strategies in terms of formal and functional, that is to say, *“formal reduction strategies dealing with avoidance of particular L2 linguistic form whether in pronunciation, in syntax or in morphemes, and functional reduction strategy dealing with avoidance of specific types of function such as speech acts, topics and some modality markers ”* (Ellis, 1994 :398). On the second hand, Faerch and Kasper divide achievement strategies into compensatory strategies and retrieval strategies. The former *“ aid learners in overcoming knowledge gaps and continuing to communicate authentically”* (Oxford, 1990 :9), and they include code switching, interlingual transfer (combination of features from IL and L1), IL–based strategies (consist of generalization, i.e. using a more generalized word rather than a more particular one, paraphrase, word coinage, and restructuring, i.e. the learner’s effort to find another plan to transmit his messages), cooperative strategies (the learner’s attempt to solve his communicative problems on cooperative basis), and non-linguistic strategies (a strategy which replaces a lexical term such

mime and facial expression). The latter refer to the strategies a learner uses them such waiting the term to appear or uses another language when find difficulty to retrieve some particular IL items.

2.3. Teaching of Communication Strategies

There has been a considerable agreement among applied linguists and theorists that communicative competence includes a major component termed as ‘strategic competence’ in which its development incontestably determines the learner’s fluency and conversational skills. Strategic competence refers to *“the ability to express oneself in the face of difficulties or limited language. The lack of fluency or conversational skills that students often complain about is, to a considerable extent, due to the underdevelopment of strategic competence”* (Dornyei and Thurrell, 1991 :16). Canale and Swain (1980) define it, *“how to cope in an authentic communicative situation and how to keep the communicative channel open”* (1980:25). Strategic competence requires some strategies to be used or learners seeking for alternative ways such paraphrasing, appealing for help, code switching, mimes to maintain a conversation, i.e. they rely on some CSs due to the gaps in their knowledge of the TL.

It is believed, then, that CSs play a crucial role in the development of strategic competence. CSs are those ways in which an EFL learner use to refine the process of communication (Canale, 1983). Furthermore, Wenden and Rubin (1987:109) assert that *“learners who emphasize the importance of using the language often utilize communication strategies”*. Nayar (1988:63) suggests five criteria of CSs as follows :

- 1. Noticeable deviance from native speaker norm in the IL syntax or word choice or discourse pattern.***
- 2. Apparent, obvious desire on the part of the speaker to communicate “meaning” to listeners as indicated by overt and cover discourse clues.***
- 3. Evident and sometimes repetitive attempts to seek alternative ways, including repairs and appeals, to communicate and negotiate meaning.***
- 4. Overt pausological, hesitational and other temporal features in the speaker’s communicative behavior.***
- 5. Presence of paralinguistic and kinesthetic features both in lieu of and in support of linguistic inadequacy.***

Hedge (2000 : 52) gives an example of a conversation between a native speaker of English and a Swedish student in which the two speakers rely on number of communicative strategies to achieve their communicative goals :

Student	Every summer we go for a for....., you know, erm,.... fjorton dagar,...um...
----------------	---

	fourteen days ... a for... I mean...
Native speaker	Oh, a fortnight.
Student	Yes, a fortnight. We go for a fortnight to our summer stuga.
Native speaker	What' that ?
Student	It's a small house in the country. It has, you know, a garden around it...
	[gestures a circle to show an area of surrounding land]
Native speaker	Oh, like a cottage, a country cottage

In this example, one can notice that the Swedish speaker relies on achievement strategies to overcome the linguistic problems, i.e. she gives a literal translation 'fourteen days' for the word 'fortnight'. Then she appeals for a help from the English interlocutor by uttering 'you know' and 'I mean'. For the term 'cottage', the Swedish student code switches to Swedish, later, she paraphrases and is assisted by a gesture due to her insufficient linguistic resources. Therefore, CSs which involve speaking and listening can strongly participate in FLL.

In fact, since the 1970s, CSs have been the core of attention in EFL learning and teaching. There are certainly successful FL learners who have come to a target situation in which they have been obliged to cope with lack of language knowledge, struggling to make themselves intelligible either by repeating, speaking slowly, clarifying, describing, code-switching, or appealing for a help from their interlocutor; therefore, they bank on some communicative strategies to make the conversation continued. Accordingly, the orthodoxy of the ongoing EFL learning focuses on the need to make learners able to accomplish the use of CSs which allow them to carry on the conversation, provide them opportunities to listen to more input and produce new utterances. O'Malley (1987) provides some evidence to teach

CSs in EFL classroom :

Teachers should be confident that there exist a number of strategies which can be embedded into existing curricula, that can be taught to students with only modest extra effort, and that can improve the overall class performance... Future research should be directed to refining the strategy training approaches, identifying effects associated with individual strategies, and determining procedures for strengthening the impact of the strategies on student outcomes.

(O'Malley, 1987 :143)

Moreover, Rabab'ah (2005 :194) asserts that raising learner's awareness about the CSs may lead to an effective FL learning by "*eliciting unknown language items from the interlocutor*". He simultaneously continues to say that "*...successful language learning is not only a matter of developing grammatical, sociolinguistic, and semantic competence, but also the strategic competence which involves the use of CSs...*" (194). Corrales and Call

(1989) state that *“the study of communication strategies can provide insights into ways in which interlanguage changes and develops as language learners become increasingly proficient in the target language”* (1989 :227).

On the other hand, it is the job of the teacher to supply the necessary communication activities in classroom that give learners the opportunity to negotiate meaning and use various types CSs of substantial value in making themselves understood to the other pair in the required task.

Accordingly , pair work activities are vital techniques of collaborative teaching of CSs during which students work independently of the teacher, give them a chance to work collaboratively in order to complete a certain task, produce authentic language, and especially pair work activity *“teaches them how to lead and be led by someone other than the teacher”* (Byrne, 1989 :31).

2.4. In –Class Activities to Develop Communication Strategies

2.4.1. Information Gap Activity

Information gap activity was introduced to the research context through Long (1980) to address questions on input and interaction in SLA. Since that time, it becomes a central issue in ELT to see what role can these kind of activities play in the progress of negotiation of meaning and verbal and non- verbal genuine communication. This kind of activity *“involves a transfer of given information from one person to another or from one form to another, or from one place to another generally calling for the decoding or encoding of information from or into language”* (Hedge, 2000:58). Information gap activity takes place between students, generally in pair work in which one student has to select the relevant utterance of information to facilitate to his pair the finding of the gap.

Johnson and Morrow (1981) identify the usefulness of this type of activity in the language classroom as *“one of the most fundamental in the whole area of communicative teaching”* (1981 :62). Furthermore, investigation into information gap activity acknowledges that it is useful to move to EFL learners from working in a more structured environment into a more communicative environment during which they use more the TL.

2.4.1.1. Information Gap Activity Procedure

In information gap activity, the class is divided into pairs in which a student in a pair work is given a card and try to make his partner to guess the word or the drawing in the card. The example given below, known as ‘guess the card’ the student is given a picture that encompasses the word ‘typing’ and attempts to describe it to his pair insightfully :

Student A **Um... a device used for writing.**

Student B	...That would be ..that....the board of the computer ?
Student A	The key board ,...no ! ..well.. a machine that needs our ten fingers to perform writing with such rapidity.
Student B	It needs our ten ?
Student A	Our hands ...um [he moves his fingers to show the need for them]. Do you understand what I mean ?..... it used to be a job to write letters.
Student B	You mean a dactylo... ?
Student A	Oh, yes it is called the typing in English.

In the example mentioned above, the pair rely on achievement strategies .The student A paraphrases the term appeared on the card ‘a machine used for writing’ and ‘ it needs our ten fingers...’. To elucidate things to his listener, he relies on gesture and appeal for help by saying ‘do you understand what I mean’. On the other hand, student B approximates ‘keyboard’ by using the word ‘ the board of computer’. He, then, asks for repetition from his pair, that is, a kind of an appeal for assistance. Finally, he discovered the missed information by code-switching to French in ‘dactylo’as he does not know the word ‘typing’.

2.4.2. Jigsaw Activity

Jigsaw activity known as a piece of information needed to be completed by a pair or group of students in a special task (Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics, 1998). Jigsaw is a cooperative learning activity which develops team work to achieve a common goal. It is invented by Aronson in 1971 and was considered as crucial in increasing positive educational outcomes.

Such kind of activity reveals that each student is essential as he owns that part which contributes to the full understanding of the final product.Also, it is argued that implementing jigsaw activity in EFL classroom makes it possible to focus on language learners, and therefore, language learning becomes “*more interdependent than independent*” (Benson, 2003 :292).

2.4.2.1. Jigsaw Activity Procedure

In a jigsaw activity, learners depend on each other in group work in which they assemble the disorganised pieces to obtain the complete meaning that would be the core of their discussion inside the classroom. In the following exapmle, the teacher splits the class into groups of three students, each group must cooperate by giving clues to each other so that they can complete the entire puzzle,and then, they prepare themselves to discuss and explain the topic provided in the puzzle (Christmas in Britain) in front of each other and adopting some CSs simultaneously :

- Student A** ...um... Christmas is a annual festival on each 25 of December.
- Student B** Um...well... British people meet in dinner time...they decorate the tree with jubilation.
- Student A** Oh yes ... the Papa Noel comes on his skateboarder holding presents for small children.
- Student B** ...well... that is a fictitious story of that white-bearded old man who pulled by ...that animal....um...how do you say it in English ?
- Student A** ...A reindeer.
- Student B**and they perform on churches... their religious song together.
- Student C** ...I do not know.... this opportunity is a creator of wealth and many jobs there.

The three students rely on various kinds of CSs, that is to say, achievement strategies and avoiding strategies to overcome the lacks occurred in the TL. For instance, Student A uses paraphrasing to reach the concept of ‘British Christmas’ to his partners. He code-switches to French in ‘the Papa Noel’, and uses approximation in ‘skateboarder’ instead of ‘sleigh’ and circumlocution in ‘religious song’ in place of ‘carol’. Student B, uses time-gaining strategy in ‘well’ as a way to think for words to appear, translate the term ‘Papa Noel’ to student A in ‘that white-bearded...’ and asks for an assistance from him in ‘how do you say it in English’.

Student C, on the other hand, adopts completely avoiding strategies in his participation during the conversation, i.e. he uses a negative avoiding in ‘I do not know’, and then to make the communication continues, he shifts to discuss the economic side of such festival unlike his interlocutors. Accordingly, he uses a positive avoiding.

2.4.3. Role-Playing Activity

According to Brown (2001), “*Roleplay minimally involves a) giving a role to one or more members of a group, and b) assigning a purpose or objective that participants must accomplish*” (2001 :183). Role play is an effective way to develop interaction in FL classes. Richard-Amato (1996) argues that role playing develops the learners self-esteem and improve their ability to work in cooperative way.

Role-play represents the following advantages to the EFL learners :

- Learners satisfaction that they really use the language for a communicative purpose.
- It is a stimulus to discuss and problem solving.
- It helps to determine which degree of language mastery the student has attained

2.4.3.1. Role-Playing Procedure

Role play is drama-like classroom in which FL learners take the role of different participants in a situation. In this way, the teacher creates situations that provide opportunities for the learners to perform roles. The instance mentioned below reflects a pair work in which one student (A) plays the role of Chinese patient coming to Algerian hospital, and the other student (B) plays the role of a doctor. The two players try to express some meaning through different CSs :

- Student A** **an tengtong laidao jingchi...bu neng buxing (Chinese Language)...
I have an acute ache in my foot...I cannot walk !**
- Student B** **Doucement ...doucement...**
- Student A** **What do you mean ?**
- Student B** **...I do not speak English well...um.. do you have a person with
you speak French ...or Arabic ?**
- Student A** **.....no I do not have ...**
- Student B** **...uml... well...show me the organ which ...makes you suffering...**
- Student A** **I have a pain in my ankle.**
- Student B** **in your..... ?**
- Student A** **..um [he gestures to the place of the pain]**
- Student B** **ok... try to make... un mouvement [she moves her foot to show
him how to do]**
- Student A** **I cannot !**
- Student B** **...so we ...should make un examen complémentaire...I ...mean the
Radio [gestues to a cliché to inform him the subsequest step in
treatment]**

The Chinese starts complaining about his state using his L1, then, he gives a literal translation in English in 'I have an acute ache'. He continues by appealing for aid from his listener in 'what do you mean'. He adopted a gesture after his interlocutor loses to understand in English. However, the Algerian doctor starts her discussion with an avoiding strategy, i.e. she does not allow the communication to continue in English in 'doucement...doucement...' and 'I do not speak English well'. Later, she starts gaining time by uttering 'well', uses circumlocution in 'makes you suffering' for 'ache', and code-switches to French in 'un mouvement' and 'un examen complémentaire' assisted those by gestures. In summary, all of their strategies could be termed as achievement strategies and avoiding strategies.

2.5. Conclusion

This chapter is an attempt to provide some definitions of CSs with fundamental classifications of them in ELT. The researcher focuses on the importance of teaching and incorporating communicative strategies inside EFL classroom to develop learners' communicative competence. This part, as well as, provides some outstanding oral activities

with examples of real-life communication which can create an effective English-speaking environment which would be conducive to effective language learning.

General Conclusion

General Conclusion

The ability of EFL students to achieve their goals in that language speaking contexts depends to a large extent on their communicative competence. However, in students' daily communication in classroom, they lack being competent to express their ideas, thoughts and desires due to their ineffective knowledge about the TL. Therefore, those learners try to overcome those communication difficulties by adopting some strategies in which the learners overcome the inadequacies that hinder their process of communication.

Accordingly, this research work has strived to answer the following research questions already formulated in the General Introduction, as well as, the hypotheses. Needless to recall these questions:

- 1)- What is communicative competence and what is involved in it as a broad concept ?
- 2)- What is the effective role of the teacher to maximize the use of CSs in classroom conversations ?
- 3)- What are the different strategies that EFL students develop in classroom ?

The answers to these questions raised the following research hypotheses :

- 1)- The ability of EFL learners to reach their communicative goals depends to a large extent on their communicative competence in which strategic competence plays an indispensable role.
- 2)- Teachers need to teach their learners what to do when they fall into trouble in communication.
- 3)- EFL Learners need to learn and practise ways of dealing with conversations where they can encounter problems in achieving their aims of communication.

The first chapter was concerned with the theoretical aspects underlying communicative competence as a broad term. Thus, the researcher tried to shed light on the the concepts of pragmatic competence and cultural competence as central for grasping communicative competence. The second chapter dealt with findings and definitions relating to CSs, the importance of teaching them to EFL learners, and teachers' assistance inside classroom to train to use those strategies during some communicative activities which make those learners more interested in language study.

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