MINISTRY OF HIGHER EDUCATION AND SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH

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DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH

The Impact of Implementing the Direct Approach in Teaching Conversational Strategies on the Development of EFL Learners' Intercultural Communicative Competence

Case Study of First Year and Third Year Students at Sétif 2 University

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Submitted by: Ms. HADJAB Soumia **Supervised by: Pr.HAMITOUCHE Fatiha**

Board of Examiners

Chairperson: Prof. BENSAFI Zoulikha	**University of Algiers 2**
Supervisor: Prof. HAMITOUCHE Fatiha	**University of Algiers 2**
Internal Examiner: Dr. ARAR Samira	**University of Algiers 2**
External Examiner: Prof. KAOULI Nadir	**University of Batna**
External Examiner: Dr. CHAABANE Ali Mouhamed	**Univerity of Blida**

Academic Year: 2021/ 2022

Board of Examiners

Chairperson: Prof. BENSAFI Zoulikha

Supervisor: Prof. HAMITOUCHE Fatiha

Internal Examiner: Dr. ARAR Samira

External Examiner: Prof. KAOULI Nadir

External Examiner: Dr. CHAABANE Ali Mouhamed

Declaration of Authorship

I hereby declare that the substance of this thesis is entirely the outcome of my own research and that reference or acknowledgment is made, whenever necessary, to the work of other scholars.

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Dedication

To my parents.

To my sister and brothers.

To my nephew, Yasser.

Abstract

Language hiccups and breakdowns are a salient part of communication in a TL. These problems may derive from one or a combination of the following: (a) resource deficits, (b) processing time pressure, (c) perceived deficiencies in one's own language output, and (d) perceived deficiencies in the interlocutor's performance. In any of these performance situations, the learner's attempt to compensate for missing/ inaccessible knowledge results in communication strategy-implementation as their communicative success relies entirely on their 'ability to communicate within restrictions'. Thus, conversational strategies (CSs) have been conceptualized as problem-shooting devices whose conscious implementation is directed towards counteracting the imbalance between learners' linguistic means and communicative ends. To raise EFL learners' awareness about the use and usefulness of CSs and to assess the impact of explicit CSs training on enhancing learners' intercultural communicative competence were the main objectives of the current study. An interventionist strategy-based instruction was conducted at the Department of English Language and Literature, Sétif 2 University. Two intact groups of first year (N=30) and third year (N=30) were the participants of the main study. The 60 participants were randomly assigned to the experiment groups (N=30) and comparison ones (N=30) giving them equal chances of being selected to undergo the experiment. A self-report strategy questionnaire was developed to investigate CSs employed by learners and to explore their perceptions of the use and usefulness of each CS. Focused one-way and two-way tasks were used to depict learners' actual performance. And to have in-depth information of their learning processes, Stimulated Recall was utilized. Further, an attitudinal questionnaire was used to gain information concerning students' attitudes towards CSs instruction and its usefulness. Wilcoxon Matched-Pairs Signed-Ranks Test was used to analyze data gathered from the self-report strategy checklist. And 'Typological Analysis' was the procedure followed in analyzing students' use of the seven taught achievement strategies. Green's (1998) Recommendations for analyzing verbal protocal data were pursued. And in order to avoid the harmful effects of rater subjectivity, the items of the attitudinal checklist were processed by means of some systematic 'content analysis'. The results demonstrate that the experimental groups outperformed the control ones. Moreover, the study has yielded evidence to back the value of introducing explicit

metacognitive strategy training in raising learners' awareness about CSs. This scrutiny also proves the effeciency and feasibility of the multi-dimensional perspective rather than the uni-dimensional one followed in many previous studies as it cements the weaknesses inherent in each research instrument. More importantly, the present investigation highlights the fact of integrating both 'what-to-learn goals' and 'how-to-learn goals' in the language learning/ teaching situation.

Key words: Conversational strategies (CSs); CSs training; Direct approach; Intercultural communicative competence; Multi-dimensional perspective.

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Résumé
الملخص

List of Abbreviations and Acronyms

CC: Communicative Competence

CEFR: Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learners, Teaching, Assessment

CG: Control/ Comparison Group

COLT: Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching

CR: Classroom

CSs: Communication Strategies

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

EG: Experimental Group

EK: Explicit Knowledge

ESL: English as a Second Language

ICC: Intercultural Communicative Competence

IDs: Individual Differences

IL: Interlanguage

L1: First Language

L2: Second Language

LLs: Learners

NNSs: Non-Native Speakers

NSs: Native Speakers

OCSs: Oral Communication Strategies

OCST: Oral Communication Strategy Training

OE: Oral Expression

SC: Strategic Competence

SR: Stimulated Recall

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The Impact of Implementing the Direct Approach in Teaching Conversational Strategies on the Development of EFL Learners' Intercultural Communicative Competence

Case Study of First Year and Third Year Students at Sétif 2 University

General Introduction

2021-2022

1.Background of the Study

The art of speaking is considered to be a pivotal part of a learner's communicative competence (Faerch & Kasper, 1983b) and the ultimate target of second/ foreign language learning, "to most people, mastering the art of speaking is the single most important aspect of learning a second or foreign language" (Nunan, 1991, p. 39). And the ability to communicate in English correctly and fluently contributes to the success of the learner not only in the language classroom but also in every phase of life; as English becomes a language "on which the sun never sets" (Crystal, 1997, p. 8) and a Lingua Franca that plays a crucial role in many fields as media, international travel, international safety, education and communications (ibid).

However, "speaking in a foreign language is very difficult and competence in speaking takes a long time to develop" (Alderson & Bachman, 2004, p. ix). This is because speaking involves a plathora of ingredients and fragments, "[I]n interaction students can use all they possess of the language, all they have learned or casually absorbed in real life exchanges" (Rivers, 1994; cit in. Gutiérrez, 2005, p. 84). In other words, speaking requires not only a repertoire of vocabulary and knowledge of grammar rules but also negotiating effectively and adapting to a variety of contexts within cultural and social norms of the communication/ conversational setting (Wells, 1985).

In fact, classroom syllabi and procedures for teaching the speaking skill often amount to nothing more than the 'parroting of dialogues' (Richards and Schmidt, 1983). And after years of speaking practice, many learners are still uncapable to take part in genuine conversation in the target language (Sze, 1995). Thus, teachers should always bear in mind the needs/ wants and interests of their students and plan their programmes accordingly. Indeed, when faced with low achievers, teachers may justifiably accord priority to what they consider to be the more 'pressing' areas such as grammar, vocabulary, and reading (ibid). However, one should not lose sight of one of the ultimate goals of second/ foreign language instruction, which is to facilitate learners' acquisition of 'communicative competence' (Faerch & Kasper, 1983b), the ability to speak both accurately and appropriately (Wolfson, 1989).

Many researchers (Hymes, 1972; Sze, 1995; Faerch & Kasper, 1983b; Xamani, 2013; Wolfson, 1989) have reported that communicative competence (CC henceforth) in English is a must for individuals because it enables them to communicate successfully and effectively in real-life situations. And in a globalized world, where English is a Lingua Franca, CC is a primary objective for learners in higher education settings (Xamani, 2013). According to CEFR "competences are the sum of knowledge, skills and characteristics that allow a person to perform actions…Communicative language competences are those which empower a person to act using specifically linguistic means" (2001, p. 9).

Canale (1983) emphasized that the framework of CC is to "prepare and encourage learners to exploit in an optimal way their limited communicative competence in the second language in order to participate in actual communicative situations" (p. 17). That is, a person who communicates well not only realizes what to say and when to say it, but also knows what to do when s/he does not know how to say something (Sze, 1995). While this is widely recognized in L1 communication (Cook, 1991), the question of how to make up for lack of language in a L2/ FL communication is neglected in second/ foreign language teaching (Sze, 1995). Thus, Faerch & Kasper (1983b) argued for the need to foster learners' ability to apply communication strategies (CSs henceforth) since no language programme can address all the learners' future communicative needs.

As a matter of fact, communicative resources are needed in order to carry out both written and oral communicative activities such as message production and reception, interaction and mediation. Thus, language users turn to CSs to plan, execute, assess and repair their utterances (Xamani, 2013). Dörnyei & Scott maintained that the interest in researching CSs originated from the fact that "the mismatch between L2 speakers' linguistic resources and communicative intentions leads to a number of systematic language phenomena whose main function is to handle difficulties or breakdowns in communication" (1997, p. 174). FL users are likely to frequently run into communication problems, and to do it more often than their L1 counterparts.

On the face of it, it sounds reasonable to speculate that the efficient and controlled use of CSs should in principle be an integral part of the strategic behaviour that characterizes autonomous learners (Manchón, 2000). In other words, CSs have been conceptualized as problem-solving devices whose (potentially) conscious implementation is directed towards counteracting the imbalance between ends and means typical of L2 learners' (productive) uses of language (Faerch & Kasper, 1983 a, 1984; Khanji, 1996 ; Poulisse, 1990, 1993; Poulisse, Bongaerts & Kellerman, 1984, 1987). More importantly, conversational strategies form part of both communicative competence and intercultural communicative competence.

And despite the widespread disagreement in the research literature about the exact nature of CSs, problem-orientedness, systematicness/ consciousness and intentionality are central features of these problem-shooting devices. These problems may derive from one or a combination of the following (Bou-Franch, 1993; Dörnyei, 1995; Dörnyei & Kormos, 1998): (a) resource deficits, (b) processing time pressure, (c) perceived deficiencies in one's own language output, and (d) perceived deficiencies in the interlocutor's performance. In any of these performance situations, the language learner's attempt to compensate for missing/ inaccessible knowledge results in CS-implementation (Manchón, 2000).

The notion of CSs in EFL setting was coined by Selinker (1972) in his discussion of learner interlanguage. After Selinker's classic paper, a number of works were subsequently proposed. Savignon (1972) investigated 'coping strategies' and conducted a pioneering experimental pedagogical research and followed a communicative approach sheding light on student training in CSs. Váradi (1973, but published in 1980) expanded on the ideas of Selinker (1972) by initiating a systematic analysis of CSs and presenting several taxonomies and terms. Also, Tarone (1977, in addition to Tarone, Cohen & Dumas, 1976) elaborated on Selinker's notion by lending another systematic analysis of CSs, introducing many of the categories and terms utilized in subsequent CS research.

Equally important, investigation about CSs entails many aspects as the identification of the disparate types of CSs available (Tarone, 1977, 1981; Faerch & Kasper, 1980,

1983b; Poulisse et al., 1990; Poulisse, 1993; Dörnyei & Kormos, 1998); the factors' influencing the learner's selection of particular CSs types (Tarone, 1977; Bialystok, 1983; Paribakht, 1985; Poulisse et al., 1990; Jourdain, 2000; Dobao, 2001, 2002); 'L1' (Palmberg, 1979; Si-Qing, 1990); 'personality and learning style' (Haastrup & Phillipson, 1983; Luján-Ortega & Clark-carter, 2000; Littlemore, 2001), and 'task-demands' (Galván & Campbell, 1979; Bialystok, 1983; Poulisse et al., 1990; Luján-Ortega, 1997; Dobao, 2001); 'the potential communicative usefulness of the contrasting types of strategic utterances uttered by the learner' (Ervin, 1979; Palmberg, 1982; Bialystok, 1983; Poulisse et al., 1990) ; and 'the possibility of CSs instruction' (Faerch & Kasper, 1986; Dörnyei & Thurrell, 1991; Dörnyei, 1995; Scullen & Jourdain, 2000; Faucette, 2001; Jourdain & Scullen, 2002).

Concerning the last aspect, Guillot (1999) noted that CSs "involve an interplay of available resources which is part and parcel of verbal exchange (for learners as for native speakers [NS]), yet is only selectively incorporated into teaching" (p. 43). For Weinstein and Mayer (1986), any learning/ teaching situation encompasses two kinds of goals: goals concerning the product of learning and goals about the process of learning. The former focus on what to learn, that is, on "what students should know or be able to do as a result of learning", whereas the latter focus on how to learn, i.e., on "techniques and strategies students can use to accomplish learning" (p. 315).

In its application to L2/ foreign language situation, Manchón (1998) interpreted the 'what-to-learn goals' as the double task confronted by the language learner: to come up with knowledge of the TL and to process the capability to invest acquired knowledge to use when attempting to produce or interpret messages in the TL. Together with these 'what-to-learn goals', the language learning/ teaching situation also covers corresponding 'how-to-learn goals'. These have to do with the acquisition of the pertinent knowledge to achieve the 'what-to-learn goals'. The aim behind the implementation of 'language-use strategies' is to acquire the ability to display acquired knowledge in practice, and this being the second perspective of 'what-to-learn goals' (ibid). To this it should be added that when setting acquired knowledge to practice, language LLs also learn how to make complete and effective use of their available

knowledge resources, while at the same stance they are to come skillful at handling communicative disruptionss triggered by deficit of knowledge or how accessibility to such knowledge which is particularly the situation that causes the use of CSs (Manchón, 1998).

Indeed, strategy instruction (SI henceforth) is defended on the grounds that language teaching has to assist learners learn how to learn, an institutional purpose which is in turn sited on the partially screened hypothesis that the language learner's how-to-learn procedures are amenable to amendement and conversion through teaching. Further, there is an assumption that one outcome of strategy instruction could be the enhancement of the learner's self-direction. SI has, therefore, to include those two aspects of knowledge (declarative and procedural) of strategies and control of their use (ibid). For Iwai and Gobel (2003), the terms 'instruction' and 'training' are both used and have dissimilar connotations. The former represents the meaning of teaching for definite objectives, while the latter stands for teaching following a particular/predefined program.

However, the issue of CSs instruction has always been controversial. In this case, Canale & Swain (1980) contended that training language learners to use CSs in formal training settings is not indispensable as they are bound to acquire them in real communication contexts anyway. Also, Paribakht (1986) opposed specific strategy training and suggested that the effective use of strategies depends on the availability of other knowledge zones as contextual, world, and paralinguistic knowledge. Further, Bongaerts and Poulisse (1989) stated that if CSs are universal among languages, then learners can readily transmit them from L1 to the TL and there is no need/urgency for teaching them either.

On the other hand, a number of scholars (Dörnyei & Thurrell, 1991; Dörnyei, 1995; Lam, 2004; Lam & Wong, 2003; Brooks, 1992; Nakatani, 2005) argued in favour of including CSs in language teaching courses. Willems (1987) claimed that since language learners have to be prepared for real-life communication environments and they do not always have the required means at their disposal, it is very crucial to teach them a predetermined set of strategies to circumvent communication problems in two

ways: they should be aware of the wide-ranging variety of CSs available and they should also use them so that the practice of CSs becomes automatic. Similarly, Brooks (1992) pointed out that learners with poor knowledge of the TL and carry out communicative tasks in a classroom setting need to be explicitly taught CSs that they can turn to for successful communication in real-life contexts. Furthermore, Lam (2004) examined the impact of explicit metacognitive strategy training and concluded that it has a positive impact on raising the awareness of the learners in terms of the range of CSs they could use. Besides, Lam's (2006) study confirms the results of a research conducted by Nakatani (2005) on the value of awareness raising on strategy use in oral communication. However, the effectiveness of teaching CSs has not been totally established yet as it requires further investigation (Xamani, 2013; Dörnyei, 1995; Nakatani, 2005; Manchón, 2000).

2. Rationale of the Study

1. The first motive that led the researcher to engage in this topic is her previous research in her Magister dissertation. The latter was an investigation about 'Raising EFL Learners' Awareness about Gambits as Conversational Turn-Taking Signals on Their Communicative Competence'. In that work, only stalling strategies (e.g., gambits) were taught explicitly in a quasi-experimental study to fourth year middle school learners. The treatment had positive effects, and learners in the experimental group outperformed their peers in the comparison one. From that time, she thought of teaching a larger range of strategies to learners because of their paramount usefulness in the learners' oral production.

2. Then, a full-scale, evident and comprehensible syllabus for the Oral Expression module is needed by all means, in which CSs must have a place because of their exclusive and helpful role. As the one supplied by the Ministry of Higher Education is quite global and summative. And teachers do not know and even disagree about what to include as the details given are wide and rather ambiguous and in many cases similar (**Appendix A**).

3. Furthermore, strategy training is still unheard of in many ESL/ EFL instructional settings and the continuing uncertainty about the effectiveness of strategy instruction

on strategy use and task performance yields an additional rationale, Lam (2004). In general, few works were carried out on Arab learners of English (Rababah, 2005; Rababah & seedhouse, 2004; Rababah & Bulut, 2007). And, particularly, limited studies on the topic, in the Algerian context, were conducted.

4. By the same token, it was argued that the previous experimental studies did not adopt a multi-method approach to investigating the impacts of strategy instruction on learners' strategy use (Lam, 2006). It has been defended that a synthesis of approaches to researching the impact of strategy training may offer a more comprehensive and fuller picture of learners' strategy application. As a matter of fact, prior investigations have chosen to be relalively uni-dimentional. This fact provides yet one more good justification for a multi-dimensional study. Equally important, Manchón (2000), in contrast to the theoretical and empirical concern in the perception and classification of CSs, stated that pedagogical matters do not stand out as an essential research issue in the CSs literature as a whole.

5. Conversation is an instinctive part of life in which people exchange facts and create and prolong social ties. However, not many learners of English can make sense of (and even overlook and in most occasions they are not aware) conversational regulations or rhythms; thus, they encounter different types of troubles in keeping their conversations going (Walker, 2008). Using conversational strategies has been suggested as one effective way to overcome hiccups in sustaining conversations.

6. This study also argued that the effective deployment of CSs is closely associated with language development. Dörnyei & Thurrell (1991) postulated that learning to use CSs facilitates the development of SC. We adopted Dörnyei & Thurrell's (1991) stance, arguing for the training of CSs in the L2 classroom on the grounds that instruction strengthens learners' SC, which is part and parcel of the language ability to circumvent communication problems and keep going.

3. Significance of the Study

The current investigation echoes the position adopted by Konishi & Tarone (2004) that communication strategy training is an effective pedagogical tool for EFL communicative language teaching. The instruction provides learners with both

communicative practice and opportunities to learn a core set of English linguistic expressions. This way, learning to use CSs has a language learning potential. Moreover, it is believed that the findings of the present research, if they are found to be in favour of CSs training, should encourage syllabus designers to include communication strategy activities similar to the ones used in the present CSs training programme, whose ultimate goal is to develop foreign language learners' strategic competence and oral communicative ability. Also, the findings would contribute to the existing literature on CSs teaching, particularly to the realm of research dealt with achievement strategies because most previous research that examined the effect of CSs training on the development of LLs' CC, focused on reduction strategies rather (Faerch & Kasper, 1983; Nakatani, 2005).

To put it differently, this study provided additional evidence for strategy-based instruction and the teachability of CSs. In the past two decades, studies have been carried out about the descriptive nature of language learners' use of CSs in spoken language; but little research has been conducted to investigate whether it is feasible to teach CSs. Moreover, the present research assumed that Algerian EFL learners at university are underrepresented in CSs research; thus, this work would add another evidence of CSs teachability to the literature. More importantly, the findings of this study could be used to raise both teachers' and students' awareness of how important CSs are for the development of their speaking ability.

In addition, both qualitative and quantitative methods were employed to triangulate the findings of the current scrutiny. It dealt with both types of learning, i.e., learning process (covert thought) and learning product (overt speech), and shed light on the teachability of CSs from these two perspectives. However, the learning process aspect is most of the time overlooked in CSs research (Manchón, 2008). Also, the studies reviewed did not adopt a multi-method approach to investigating the impact of teaching CSs through the direct approach on EFL learners' CC. It has been argued that a synthesis of approaches to investigating the impact of strategy training may offer a more comprehensive and fuller picture of learners' strategy use (Chamot, 2004; Cohen, 1998; Cohen & Scott, 1996; Oxford, 1996a; Wigglesworth, 2005).

Further, the literature reviewed provided an additional justification for the present study in terms of a lack of adequate work on investigating the influence of CSs teaching through the direct approach on developing EFL learners' CC (Rababah, 2016). Finally, from a pedagogical angle, this study provided an empirical evidence in favour of teaching clusters of strategies rather than individual strategies, and also strengthened the benefits derived from departing from strategy programmes (Manchón, 2008; Dörnyei, 1995; Lam, 2004; Kongsom, 2009).

4. Objectives of the Study

The current investigation aimed to gauge the influence of teaching CSs through the direct approach on the development of Algerian EFL learners' CC. The issue of teaching CSs has been controvertial and some researches in the literature suggested that further studies should investigate the teachability issue. The assumption of this study was that EFL learners need to be able to use various communication strategies skillfully in order to engage effectively in interactional situations/ settings involving both one-way and two-way tasks. The instruction provides learners with awareness-raising communicative practices and the opportunity to learn a core set of English learning expressions/ chunks that relate typically to the selected achievement strategies.

Furthermore, taking into account the supporting views of CSs teaching (Faerch & Kasper, 1983b; Dörnyei, 1995; Dörnyei & Kormos, 1998; Manchón, 2008), the effects of modified output on language acquisition (Swain, 1985); the Interaction Hypothesis (Long, 1996); the Collaborative Model of Communication (Clark & Wilkes-Gibbs, 1986; Clark & Schaefer, 1987, 1989; Wilkes-Gibbs, 1997); and vanPattern's Model of Processing Instruction (2002, 2003), this study intended to examine the effect(s) of CSs training via Dörnyei's programme (1995) on the development of EFL learners' CC. Also, the research aimed to teach a cluster of strategies rather than individial ones; an idea defended by many previous researches in the domain (Manchón, 2008; Dörnyei, 1995; Lam, 2004; Kongsom, 2009). All in all, the purpose of the current study was two-fold: (1) to raise the EFL learners' awareness about CSs; and (2) to examine to what extent CSs training would alter the learners' interaction behaviours.

5. Statement of the Problem

An important part of real-life communication is problematic (Gass & Varonis, 1991). SL/ FL learners are likely to frequently run into communicative troubles because of the imbalance between their communicative ends and their linguistic means. Algerian EFL learners are still struggling with a shortened linguistic/ communicative repertoire to convey correctly and fluently their messages (**Appendix B**). In such liguistic/ communicative impasses, the learners have only two available scenarios in front of them: whether to leave the conversational setting at all or use one of the L1-based strategies and both are believed to hinder language and CC/ ICC development.

Many researchers (Dörnyei & Thurrell, 1991; Manchón, 1988; Tarone, 1984) explicilty argued that one of the aims of language teaching should be the development of the student's use of CSs as a way of enhancing their communicative competence. Learners must therefore be trained in the use of CSs. And the explicit teaching of these strategies results in an enhanced metacognitive awareness on the part of the learner that in turn favours the retention of strategy over time and the transferebility of its use to new learning tasks (Manchón, 2000). Also, CS instruction bridges the gap between classroom and real-life communication, as Faerch & Kasper (1986, p. 180) put it, "bridging the gap between learners' linguistic and pragmatic knowledge in the L2 and the specific communicative means needed to cope with unforeseen situations". However, Algerian pedagogical matters, at the university level, do not stand out as a major research issue in the CS literature as a whole (**Appendices A, C, D**).

6. Research Questions and Hypotheses

This investigation aimed to find answers to these subsequent questions and sought to reject or confirm the following hypotheses:

6.1. Research Questions

1. Do learners use conversational strategies (CSs) in their speaking tasks?

2. Does the implementation of the direct approach in teaching CSs have an impact on the development of EFL learners' ICC?

3. Are students able to identify the types of CSs they use in the speaking tasks?

4. What are the students' attitudes towards strategy training and the usefulness of CSs through the direct/ explicit approach?

6.2. Hypotheses

Null Hypotheses

It is hypothesized that there will be no difference between learners' CSs use prior and after CS strategy training.

It is hypothesized that CSs training programme will not influence the development of EFL learners' ICC.

Nondirectional Hypotheses

If learners receive CSs training, then their ICC will be developed.

The more EFL learners receive strategy training, the more conversational strategies will be used.

7. Overview of the Methodology

Given the small number of communication strategy training studies, there is a definitive need for more interventionist studies to gauge the effect of CSs training through the direct appproach on the development of EFL learners' CC. It was anticipated that this would offer some understanding about the relationship between CSs training, CSs use and ICC development. The experimental design was adopted. In addition, the researcher adopted the six procedures of strategy training proposed by Dörnyei's (1995) programme.

For data collection, the researcher adopted 'the convergent parallel design', i.e., the convergent mixed methods design where equal importance was given to both quantitative and qualitative data and regards them as approximately equal sources of information. A set of research tools were used to tap both the overt CSs use and the covert part. The self-report strategy questionnaire was a quantitative tool as it does not include any open-ended probes from the part of the target respondents. In a 5 point likert-scale, the participants were just asked to tick the appropriate choice whether of CSs use or CSs usefulness. To confirm or disconfirm the questionnaire results, our participants were given three qualitative research instruments. The first was a speaking

task battery. Then, directly after these tasks and to profile the learners' communicative/linguistic problems and strategy use, a stimulated recall (SR) was used as an introspective method to elicit data about thought processes involved in carrying out the given tasks. And by the end of the treatment phase, the experimental groups were asked to fill in an attitudinal questionnaire.

In the present investigation, three main stages were followed: a baseline data that were brought from the first step, i.e., the preliminary phase in which the research gap was proven. The research instruments that were used in this phase were 'A Needs Analysis Survey' with learners, a semi-structured interview with OE teachers and CR observation. And to pilot the research tools and the intervention, a small-scale study was conducted; and then the main study. In other terms, the implementation of the multi-method approach helps complement the strengths and weaknesses inherent in each and every research method.

In addition, the 16-week strategy training programme took place at Mohamed Lamine Debaghine (Sétif 2) University in the academic year 2017-2018. Two intact groups of first year (N=30) and third year (N=30) were the participants of the main study. A purposive/random sampling was adhered in this piece of research, i.e., they were purposefully selected to gauge their strategy repertoire and use as freshmen (to see the effect of previous education) and as seniors (to assess the impact of higher education on their ICC). But the 60 participants were randomly assigned to both the experiment and control groups to give them equal chances of being selected to undergo the experiment.

For the treatment condition, the researcher of the current study designed nine lessons (**Appendix E**) to teach seven achievement communication strategies, based on Dörnyei and Kormos's (1998) framework: circumlocution, appeal for help, lexicalized pauses, self-correction, comprehension checks, asking for clarification and asking for confirmation. The selected strategies correspond with the LLs' main sources of communicative breakdowns: (a) L2 resource deficits, (b) processing time pressure, (c) perceived deficiencies in one's own language output, and (d) perceived deficiencies in the interlocutor's performance. The instructional approach adopted for the E groups

was explicit strategy training. And to implement this approach, Dörnyei's (1995) CSs' training programme was adopted.

About the procedures of data analysis methods, the data gathered from the self-report strategy questionnaire were analyzed to find out students' reported use and usefulness of CSs. And to test the difference between the two groups (experimental and control) and in-group differences (pre- and post-), Wilcoxon Matched-Pairs Signed-Ranks Test was used. And to code and categorize CSs used by the students in the given tasks, the researcher followed 'Typological Analysis' by LeCompte & Preissle (1993) and Hatch (2002). For the SR interviews, the recommendations of Green (1998) were used. Lastly, the results of the attitudinal questionnaire were analyzed using 'content analysis'.

8. Operational Definitions of Key Terms

8.1. Conversational strategies

They are conscious ways to assist keeping the communication up and avoiding 'trouble spots'.

8.2. Achievement Strategies

For the sake of saving the original communicative target of the language learner, achievement strategies are employed.

8.3. Circumlocution

It is the most notable achievement strategy and a critical aspect of SC that may support LLs to do the instant hiccup of 'what to say' and 'how to say it'.

8.4. Direct appeal for help

Such mechanics are explicitly used to overcome a gap in one's language knowledge. The learner seeks the interlocutor's help in solving communication problems through negotiation of meaning.

8.5. Fillers/ Stalling mechanisms :

They are also known as 'time-gaining strategies' and 'conversational maintenance strategies' because they help LLs gain time and keep the communication channel open at times of difficulty.

8.6. Comprehension check

It is part of the 'modified interaction strategies'. It is used to make sure that the listener has pursued what you said.

8.7. Self-correction

It is also called 'self-repair'. The speaker immediately corrects his mistake for the sake of regulating the linguistic accuracy. This may facilitate pushed or forced output.

8.8. Confirmation check

It is the second type of 'modified interaction strategies'. It is a move that can be used after a speaker's utterance to confirm what was heard or understood.

8.9. Clarification request

It is the third type of 'modified interaction strategies'. To get clarification(s) about what was previously said by the interlocutor, clarification requests are utilized.

8. 10. Communicative competence

It is a synthesis of an underlying system of knowledge (conscious or unconscious) and skill required for actual communication.

8.11. Intercultural communicative competence

It is a sophisticated set of abilities demanded to function effectively and appropriately with people from heterogeneous linguistic and cultural schemata.

8.12. Direct/ Explicit approach

It is that declarative and conscious process which results in 'knowing about' facts of a language. These facts are about both rule-based knowledge and knowledge of fragments and exemplars.

9. Organization and Structure of the Current Study

This thesis consists of two main parts: theoretical underpinnings and empirical study. To create a balance between these two parts, the researcher divided each part into three chapters. The purpose of the first chapter is to review the related literature that dealt with CSs. It is divided into five sections. The first is a historical overview and conceptualization about CSs. The second is to deal with the approaches to defining CSs. And the third section is about the defining criteria of CSs. Moreover, CSs taxonomies are to be discussed in the fourth section. And the variables influencing the selection of CSs are the main focus of the fifth section.

The primary objective of the second chapter is to highlight the significance of raising LLs' awareness about strategy usefulness. It contains five sections. The first is for raising LLs' awareness, i.e., the neuropsychological aspect of language learning is stressed. The second section is devoted for explaining the concept of 'strategy training'. And the outcomes of ST are tackled in the third section. Moreover, the fourth section deals with the teachability of CSs. Further, the last section is dedicated for researching the types of data for studying CSs in SLA field.

The content of the third chapter which deals with models of language proficiency and speech production frameworks is organized in three sections. The first is mainly about models of language proficiency. And the second section is devoted to discuss the relationship between strategic competence and models of language proficiency of SC. Then, aspects of SC are to be elaborated in the third section.

The fourth chapter is dedicated to tackle a number of methodological issues. The first part presents the study's research questions and hypotheses. Then, the research design is thoroughly explained. After, the research variables are distinguished. Moreover, the setting, learners' profiles and sampling techniques are discussed. Further, data collection tools are well stated. In addition, data collection procedures are expounded. The last part of this chapter presents the data analysis methods.

The fifth chapter deals with the analyses and findings of the current investigation. The latter was conducted in three phases. Thus, the results are to be displayed following the chronological and systematic order that the study respected. First of all,

the results and interpretations of the research tools used in the preliminary study (Needs Analysis Survey, Teachers' Interviews and Classroom Observation (COLT)) are to be presented. Secondly, the findings of the second phase, i.e., the Small-Scale Study (Piloting Phase), are to be displayed. And lastly, only the findings of the third phase, i.e., the main study, are to be unveiled as the interpretation of them will be the focus of the subsequent chapter (Chapter Six).

The last chapter, i.e., the sixth one, is about discussions and interpretations of the main study's findings. It is the place where the research questions are answered and some hypotheses are confirmed and others are rejected. In the first place, we present the questionnaire outcomes, i.e., the impact of strategy training on LLs' reported use and usefulness of CSs. Then, the explicit strategy training outcomes, i.e., the direct approach and the development of LLs' SC, are discussed. Also, the retrospective verbal reports' outcomes, i.e., one-task/ two-task performance and CSs implementation, are to be addressed. Besides, LLs' attitudes towards CSs training are to be illustrated. Furthermore, the originality of the current research and the limitations of the study are to be displayed. In addition to that, pedagogical implications and future research directions are to be spelled out. And equally important, the ethics in the present study are to be highlighted.

The Impact of Implementing the Direct Approach in Teaching Conversational Strategies on the Development of EFL Learners' Intercultural Communicative Competence

Case Study of First Year and Third Year Students at Sétif 2 University

Part I:

Theoretical Underpinnings

2021-2022

The Impact of Implementing the Direct Approach in Teaching Conversational Strategies on the Development of EFL Learners' Intercultural Communicative Competence

Case Study of First Year and Third Year Students at Sétif 2 University

Chapter One: Conversational Strategies

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Introduction:

The purpose of this chapter is to review the related literature that dealt with CSs. It is divided into five sections. The first is a historical overview and conceptualization about CSs. The second is to deal with the approaches to defining CSs. And the third section is about the defining criteria of CSs. Moreover, CSs taxonomies are to be discussed in the fourth section. And the variables influencing the selection of CSs are the main focus of the fifth section.

Section One: Conversational Strategies: Historical Overview and Conceptualization

This section is longer to be compared with the other sections of the chapter as it deals with the history and conceptualization of CSs. In the first place, we clarify the difference between some concepts as strategy, process, technique and the like. Then, we discuss the linguistic deficiencies and communicative goals of language learners. After that, we highlight the difference between CR reality and authentic communication. Moreover, CSs are elaborated as problem-shooting devices and the ways in which they were tackled in previous research are to be thoroughly unveiled.

1.1.1.1 Difference between Strategy, Process, and Technique, Plan, Product, Rule and Tactic

Ever since the paradigm shift from behaviourist to cognitivist views of how languages are learned and used, researchers have taken an increasing interest in the processes which take place in the learners' minds when they learn a second or foreign language and try to communicate in that language. Moreover, the conception of the learner as actively and creatively involved in these processes has directed researchers' attention to the devices learners make use of in second/ foreign language learning and communication, and they have referred to these devices as 'strategies' (Faerch & Kasper, 1980).

It has been widely recognized that processes and strategies in learning and communication will be constitutive components of any theory of SLA, as was particularly emphasized in Selinker's programmatic article on 'Interlanguage' (1972). In this he distinguished between 'five central processes' which contribute to the

formation of interlanguages; two of them being 'strategies of second language learning' and ' strategies of second language communication' (ibid).

However, in studies of IL processes and strategies, researchers do not use terms like 'process' and 'strategy' consistently. Sometimes they use them as synonyms for general mental operations, but sometimes they use them to differentiate operations involved in language processing (Ellis, 1985). In different words, the terms 'processes' and 'strategies' are often used in an apparently arbitrary, non-defined way (Faerch and Kasper, 1980). This fact is quite apparent in the following quotes:

" 'Simplification' is understood as the act of simplifying, the strategies of communication, the processes whereby specific meanings are communicated on specific occasions" (Levenston & Blum-Kulka, 1977,p. 52).

"the learning strategy to reduce speech to a simpler system seems to be employed by every learner… both the native child and the second language learner use a developmental process of speech reduction" (Jain, 1974,p.190).

"… overgeneralization and transfer: learning strategies appear to be two distinctly different linguistic manifestations of one psychological process" (Taylor, 1975,p.87).

" simplification may be the result of a learning strategy or process" (Corder, 1977, p. 12).

Although originally a military term, 'strategy' in general use has come to refer to the implementation of a set of procedures for accomplishing something (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997), "The word strategy comes from the Greek term strategia meaning generalship or the art of war. More specifically, strategy involves the optimal management of troops, ships, or aircraft in a planned campaign" (Oxford, 1990,p. 7). Put simply, a strategy is "a plan for success" (McIntyre, 1994,p.190). The succint statement indicates some kind of action plan to achieve goals. Moreover, the kind of goal that strategies aim to achieve is one of success-orientation.

However, Faerch & Kasper (1983b), for example, use the criterion of 'problem-orientedness' to distinguish between 'plans' which relate to non-strategic communicative goals, and those which relate to strategic goals ,i.e., goals which present themselves to the individual as problems. Only plans of the latter type are considered strategies. In their model of speech production, Faerch & Kasper (1980) devided between two phases : a planning phase, comprising 'goal', 'planning process'

and 'plan' ; and a realization phase, which comprises 'plan', 'realization process' and 'action'. They placed CSs, "within the planning phase…within the area of the planning process and the resulting plan" (Faerch & Kasper, 1983a,p. 30).

Furthermore, Faerch & Kasper (1983b) opposed 'process' to linguistic output. They made reference to some frequently used phrases in SLA studies such as 'process descriptions', 'the process of L2 acquisition', and 'the communication process'. Faerch & Kasper (1980) made a clear distinction between 'strategy' and 'process'. They defined the former as plans for controlling the order in which a sequence of operations is to be performed, and the latter as the operations involved either in the development of a plan (the planning process) or in the realization of a plan (the realization process). A problem with such a distinction is that there is little consensus concerning which behaviours belong to 'processes' as opposed to 'strategies' (Ellis, 1985).

Focusing on the notion of consciousness, Seliger (1984) proposed a distinction between 'strategy' and 'tactic'. Strategies are "universal, age- and context-dependent, and when engaged must be assumed to lead to a long-term acquisition" (p. 38). As for tactics, they are devices used to meet the immediate demands of a situation and are "dependent on a wide variety of factors such as age, environment, personality, affective constraints and first language" (ibid). Differences in consciousness are also important in distinguishing 'strategy' from 'tactic', the former being unconscious and inaccessible to inspection (Smaoui, 2015).

Other researchers use different terminology like 'attempt' that is used by Tarone, Cohen & Dumas (1983); and 'technique' that is employed by Corder (1983) and Stern (1983). According to Ogane (1998), an 'attempt' is an effort to do something, whereas a 'technique' is a way of doing some activity, i.e., a 'technique' is something that is mastered through learning and practice.

1.1.1.2 Language Learners between Linguistic Deficiencies (Means) and Communicative Goals (Ends)

1.1.1.2.1 Learners' Means and Ends: A Lack of Balance

Dörnyei & Scott (1997) found that the existence of a mismatch between language speakers' linguistic knowledge and communicative intentions caused a crucial need for CSs to help learners in their efforts to speak English as a TL. In fact, CSs help in negotiating meaning where either linguistic structures or sociolinguistic rules are not shared between a foreign language learner and a speaker of the TL (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). These devices facilitate learners' communicative competence in a foreign language and focus on interaction and interlocutors' negotiation behaviour for coping with communication breakdowns (Yaman, Irgin & Kavasoglu, 2013). Furthermore, CSs enhance the effectiveness of communication (Canale, 1983).

1.1.1.2.2 Classroom Reality and Authentic Communication

Teachers should try to ensure that learners can practise the TL not only in a controlled way with accuracy concerned, but also in purposeful communication with fluency involved (Hedge, 2000). However, spontaneous communication can be very problematic in language classroom due to the fact it is hard to control the learners' linguistic knowledge (Tian, 2011). Learners always meet difficulties in expressing themselves freely. They stumble and talk in a very low speed to gain time for the search of suitable expressions. They are impatient and finally revert to their L1 from time to time during the process of interaction, which is ackonwledged as a big problem/ hinder to language learning (Ur, 1981; Gower, Phillips & Walters, 1995; Harmer, 2001).

1.1.1.3 Conversational Strategies as a Solution to Learners' Communicative Problems

The use of CSs is suggested as a solution to help learners achieve their communicative goals (Hedge, 2000; McDonough, 2006). Tarone (2005) stated that speakers use CSs to "resolve difficulties they encounter in expressing an intended meaning" (p. 488). In different words, CSs are defined as tactics taken by language learners to solve oral communication problems. Further, Yaman et al., (2013) claimed that CSs involve both listening and speaking which contribute to the foreign language

learners. They are used to negotiate the meaning and to maintain the conversation (Tarone, 1980). Again, Faerch & Kasper (1983) said that CSs handle difficulties or communication breakdowns.

1.1.1.3.1 Defining the Communicative Gap/ Problem/ Difficulty/ Disruption/ Crisis

1.1.1.3.1.1 Communicative State of Language Learners

It seems a solid fact that no second/foreign language learner's, or even no native speaker's linguistic repertoire or control of language is perfect. Native as well as non-native speakers of a given language sometimes struggle to find the appropriate expression or grammatical construction when they intend to get their meaning across (Faucette, 2001; Aliakbari & Allvar, 2009). And the ways in which an individual speaker attempts to compensate for this 'gap' between what he intends to communicate and his immediately available linguistic resources are known as CSs (Faucette, 2001; Oweis, 2013).

1.1.1.3.1.2 Operational Definition of a 'Problem'

In Lafford's (2004) paper, the concept of communication gap is operationalized as an interruption in the normal flow of conversational interaction between the speaker and the interlocutor owing to a breakdown in communication. Lafford (ibid) continued to say that a communication gap is a breakdown in communication caused by the learners' inability to understand their interlocutors or to express themselves in the L2/ TL. In the same vein, Nacey & Graedler (2013) explained that situations in which learners lack or are uncertain about a lexical item they require may result in a communication disruption, "when mutual comprehension is impaired by one of the speakers misunderstanding the other or when the learner is manifestly in trouble in putting across what he/she wants to say" (Haastrup & Phillipson, 1983,p. 143).

Ogane (1998) used the term problem/ difficulty exchangeably, and stated that there are two types of problems/ difficulties we face in communication: those in expressing and those in understanding. According to Tarone, Cohen & Dumas (1983), a problem is a situation where the appropriate systematic target language rules have not been found. And for Faerch & Kasper (1983), a difficulty is a problem in reaching a

particular communicative goal. In sum, the concept is well-defined in Klaus & Buhr's quote as "recognition by an individual .. of the insufficiency of her .. existing knowledge to reach a .. goal and of the consequent need for expanding this knowledge" (1976,p. 974). The ' crisis' is another term which has the same qualities as the word 'problem'. It is proposed by Tarone (1977) when she defined CSs as "strategies used by an individual to overcome the crisis which occurs when language structures are inadequate to convey the individual's thought" (p. 195).

And about the types of such problems that impinge on the conversational flow, Dörnyei & Scott (1997, p. 183) characterized the subsequent incidences: (A) resource deficits: gaps in speakers' knowledge preventing them from verbalizing messages; (B) own performance problems: the realization that something one has said is incorrect or only partly correct, associated with various types of self-repair, self-rephrasing, and self-editing mechanisms; and (C) other performance problems: something perceived as problematic in the interlocutor's speech, either because it is thought to be incorrect (or highly unexpected) or because of a lack (or uncertainty) of understanding something fully, associated with various meaning negotiation strategies.

1.1.1.4. Conceptualization of Conversational Strategies

1.1.1.4.1 Before the 70's

Second language learners' production was viewed as an incorrect form of the TL untill the late 1960's. Transferring from L1 was seen as the main reason of errors. It was claimed that language learning was a process of acquiring rules that were different from those of the mother tongue (Yakut, 2013). The Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH) composed a theoretical background of this belief, and formed a basis for detecting differences between L1 and L2. It attempted to predict areas leading to potential errors (Lightbown & Spada, 2006). However, CAH ignored the effects of intralingual factors in language learning. Since CAH could not explain many aspects of learner language, researchers developed an approach called 'Error Analysis' which is different from CAH as it seeks to find out and describe different kinds of errors to understand the use of second language data.

1.1.1.4.2 Main Works of the 70's

Researchers first raised the notion of second language conversational strategies at the beginning of the 1970s, following the recognition that the mismatch between language speakers' linguistic resources and communicative intentions leads to a number of systematic language phenomena whose main function is to handle difficulties or breakdowns in communication (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997). In the 1970s, four studies prepared the ground for the study of CSs, a new area of research within applied linguistics (Dörnyei, 1995): (1). Selinker's (1972) classic article on IL introduced the notion of strategies of L2 communication. (2). Váradi's study (1973, but published in 1980) and (3). Tarone (1977, also Tarone, Cohen & Dumas, 1976) elaborated on Selinker's notion by providing a systematic analysis of CSs, introducing many of the categories and terms used in subsequent CS research. And (4). Savignon (1972) reported on a pioneering language teaching experiment involving a communicative approach, which, for the first time, included student training in CSs (or, as she termed, 'coping strategies'). Since these early studies, much research has been done to identify and classify CSs (Bialystok, 1990; Cook, 1993; Poulisse, 1987).

1.1.1.4.3 Main works of the 80s

In the early 1980s, the role of CSs was widely acknowledged in the field of second language learning and became the concern of many researchers due to the seminal works of Canale & Swain (1980) and Faerch & Kasper (1983). As Dörnyei & Scott (1997, p. 176) claimed, "The real 'career' of CSs started in the early 1980s".

Canale & Swain (1980) and Canale (1983) included them in their influential framework of communicative competence as one of the constituents of the sub-competences – strategic competence. In Canale & Swain's (1980) model, strategic competence consists of "verbal and non-verbal CSs that may be called into action to compensate for breakdown in communication due to performance variables or to insufficient competence" (p. 30). This competence, the strategic one, involves the ability to use problem-solving devices to overcome communication problems derived from lack of knowledge in any of the other sub-competences. In addition, the

researchers (Canale & Swain, 1980; Canale, 1983) suggested teaching CSs in the classroom and providing students the chance to use these strategies.

'Strategies in Interlanguage Communication' was the first edited volume in the field of CS by Faerch & Kasper (1983). In this book, the most important studies and papers were put together (Bialystok, 1983; Dechert, 1983; Faerch & Kasper, 1983c; Haastrup & Phillipson, 1983; Raupach, 1983; Wagner, 1983). This compilation is divided into three main parts: CSs defined, empirical studies and problems in analyzing CSs. This collection, therefore, provides a valuable contribution to the research of CSs. Following these seminal works, an increased research interest in CS and a number of published papers were followed in the 1980. The publications of that time focused primarily on identifying and classifying CSs, the issue of teaching CSs in the second language classroom and the factors that influenced learners' use of CSs (Bialystok, 1984; Bialystok & Kellerman, 1987; Dekeyser, 1988; Faerch & Kasper, 1984,1986; Harper, 1985; Kumaravadevilu, 1988; Paribakht, 1985,1986; Scholfield, 1987; Tarone, 1984; Tarone & Yule, 1987,1989; Willems, 1987; Yule & Tarone, 1990).

In the latter half of the 1980s, a group of researchers at the Nijmegen University in the Netherlands also conducted a large-scale empirical project on CSs. At that time, the Netherlands was the centre for research on CSs. The Nijmegen Group shed light on various aspects of CSs such as definitions, theories of CSs and also challenged some aspects of the previous taxonomies (Poulisse & Schils, 1989; Poulisse, Bongaerts & Kellerman, 1987). Researchers in the 1980s, thus, attempted to define, identify and classify CSs more systematically. They proposed various CS taxonomies based on their conceptual papers and research (Bongaerts & Poulisse, 1989; Bongaerts, Kellerman & Bentlage, 1987; Kellerman, 1991; Kellerman, Bongaerts & Poulisse, 1987; Kellerman, Ammerlaan, Bongaerts & Poulisse, 1990).

1.1.1.4.4. Main Works of the 1990s

Two comprehensive monographs by Bialystok (1990) and Poulisse (1989, 1990) made 1990 an important year in CS research (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997). Bialystok's (1990) book 'Communication Strategies: A psychological Analysis of Second Language Use' contains definitions and theories of CSs proposed by Poulisse (1987,

1989); Faerch & Kasper (1983); Paribakht (1982,1985); Váradi (1980); Tarone (1979, 1980, 1981); Kellerman (1978,1984); Corder (1977,1978,1983) and other researchers' works in the field of CSs were discussed. The latter parts of this book explore empiriral evidence of CSs used by children or adults in the first or second language in relation to language processing. The last part, the issue of learning and teaching CSs are discussed. The most important point Bialystok suggested was that the psychological process of speech production should be regarded as a basis for the study of CSs. She argued that language learners should be taught and practised language structure rather than strategies. Following the seminal work of Bialystok, the researchers in the 1990s, investigated CS application in relation to different proficiency level (Chen, 1990; Kebir, 1994) and teaching pedagogy of CSs (Dörnyei & Thurrell, 1991; Rost & Ross, 1991; Yule & Tarone, 1991; Dörnyei, 1995).

'The Use of Compensatory Strategies by Dutch Learners of English' is Poulisse's masterpiece. Topics as language use and language learning, communication strategies in the L1 and L2, and the Nijmegen Group's project are explained. In the survey of literature, different issues are presented: definitions, taxonomies, and the theoretical and practical problems related to traditional taxonomies. Poulisse (1989,1990) discussed thoroughly compensatory strategies and their relation to communication. She also presented a taxonomy of compensatory strategy use. Conceptual strategies and linguistic strategies are discussed separalely then the relation between these strategies was highlighted. In addition, conceptual and linguistic strategies are discussed in terms of Level's model. Then, the cooperative principle, the role of mutual knowledge and constraints on communication are discussed under the heading of 'communication: general principles and constraints'.

Bialystok (1990) and Poulisse (1989, 1990) shed light on CS studies and provided theoretical contributions to the field at that time. Since then, the issue of CS instruction has received increasing attention from a variety of researchers. Despite the controversy about CS instruction, many researchers have defined CSs, promoted CS application and supported CS intruction (Lam, 2004; Wen, 2004; Nakatani, 2005). Wen (2004) conducted empirical studies to investigate the effects of strategy instruction on learners' use of CSs. Lam (2004) argued that it is possible and desirable to teach and

raise learners' awareness of using CSs in oral communication. Nakatani (2005) also supported the idea that language learners should be made aware of how to use CSs in their communication. As has been noted, the researchers in the field of CSs have recently paid more attention to the teachability issue of CSs as well as promoted strategy instruction. They have attempted to explore the effect of CS strategy instruction in on learners' strategic behaviour and competence (Kongsom, 2009).

1.1.1.5. CSs: A Myriad of Definitions and the Absence of a Rigorous Conception

1.1.1.5.1. No Consensus on One Definition

It is difficult to find a rigorous definition of CSs, on which CS researchers have reached an agreement (Rababah, 2002). In fact, there is a wide consensus on considering CSs as conscious plans for solving a problem to reach a particular communicative goal. However, researchers are still not in complete agreement of the concept of CSs. Karimnia & Zade (2007) considered defining CSs rigorously as a difficult task, but they provided the insights into the nature of CSs that have been stated by other researchers represented in two points. The first refers to learners' attempt to bridge the gap between their linguistic competence in the target language and that of the TL interlocutors. And the second represents the conscious employment of verbal and non-verbal mechanisms for communicating an idea when precise linguistic forms are for some reasons not available to the learner at that point in communication (ibid).

1.1.1.5.2. Different Researchers and Distinct Conceptualizations of CSs

The subsequent table (**Table1**) presents different conceptualizations of CSs. Generally speaking, Dörnyei & Scott (1997) highlighted that, "there is no universally accepted definition of CSs" (p. 174). This view is also elaborated by Benali (2013) who pointed out, "there is still controversy surrounding the definition or identification of CSs .. as opposed to certain types of strategies like learning and production strategies. From this background of different definitions .. we can conclude that no conclusive definition of this term can be provided due to the various terminologies" (p.39).

Table 1: Different Conceptualizations of CSs

Researcher	CS Definition
Tarone (1977, p. 195)	"…are used by an individual to overcome the crisis which occurs when language structures are inadequate to convey the individual's thought".
Tarone (1980, p.420)	"a mutual attempt of two interlocutors to agree on a meaning in situations where requisite meaning structures do not seem to be shared".
Corder (1981, p.103 ; 1983,p.16)	"they are systematic techniques employed by a speaker to express his meaning when faced with some difficulty".
Corder (1983,p.16)	"a systematic technique employed by a speaker to express his (or her) meaning when faced with some difficulty".
Tarone (1981,p. 288)	"Learners' attempt to bridge the gap between their linguistic competence in the target language and that of the target language interlocutors".
Faerch & Kasper (1983 a ,p. 36)	"CSs are potentially conscious plans for solving what to an individual presents itself as a problem in reaching a particular communicative goal".
Wagner (1983,p. 167)	"…predetermine the verbal planning, they serve the function of adjusting the plan to the situation,i.e., each individual utterance is to be seen as strategic. What is specific for IL users is that plans of action cannot be directly converted into verbal plans, because of gaps in the speaker's (and hearer's) linguistic repertoire".
Stern (1983,p. 411)	"…techniques of coping with difficulties in communicating in an imperfectly known second language".
Harding (1983,p. 1)	"The domain of compensation strategies must be precisely defined. It is the domain of attempts made by non-native speakers of a language to remedy the disparity that exists between their communicative needs and the linguistic tools at their disposal".
Bialystok (1983,pp.102-103)	"all attempts to manipulate a limited linguistic system in order to promote communication. Should learning result from the exercise, the

	strategy has also functioned as a learning strategy, but there is no inherent feature of the strategy itself which can determine which of these roles it will serve".
Poulisse (1990,p. 88)	"Compensatory strategies are strategies which a language user employs in order to achieve his intended meaning on becoming aware of problems arising during the planning phase of an utterance due to his own linguistic shortcomings".
Paribakht (1985,p. 132)	"…have generally been defined as means that speakers use to solve their communicative problems".
Mitchell & Myles (1998,p. 94)	"strategies that learners employ when their incomplete linguistic system lets them down".
Canale & Swain (1980,p. 27)	"verbal and non-verbal strategies that may be called into action to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to ability variables or to insufficient competence".
CEFR (2001,p. 57)	"strategies are a means the language user exploits to mobilize and balance his or her resources, to activate skills and procedures, in order to fulfil the demands of communication in context and successfully complete the task in question in the most comprehensive or most economical way feasible depending on his or her precise purpose. CSs should therefore not be viewed simply with a disability model – as a way of making up for a language deficit or a miscommunication".
Towel (1987,p. 97)	" the means used by a speaker to overcome a difficulty encountered whilst attempting to communicate in the foreign language".
Dörnyei & Scott (1997,p. 174)	"the mismatch between L2 speakers' linguistic resources and communicative intentions (which) leads to a number of systematic language phenomenon whose aim function is to handle difficulties or breakdowns in communication".
Smith (1979, p.349)	"problem-solving procedures".
Ellis (1985,p.182)	"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".
Tarone, Cohen & Dumas (1983,p. 5)	" systematic attempt by the learner to express meaning in the target language, in situations

	where the appropriate target language rules have not been formed"
O'Malley & Chamot (1990,p. 43)	"communication strategies are particularly important 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".

1.1.1.5.3. CS Definition Adopted in the Current Investigation

Communication strategies train learners in the flexibility they need to cope with the unexpected and the unpredictable. At the same time, they help students get used to the non-exact communication, which is perhaps the real nature of all communication. In this way, they help to bridge the gap between the classroom and the outside reality, between formal and informal learning. Finally, communication strategies encourage risk-taking and individual initiative and this is certainly a step towards linguistic and cognitive autonomy (Mariani, 1994,p. 19).

1.1.1.5.4. Different Terminology about CSs

Though not many writers offered a definition of strategies, they usually referred to them by using different terms (Rababah, 2002). Communication strategies are known as 'communicative strategies' (Corder, 1983), 'communicational strategies' (Váradi, 1973), 'compensation strategies' (Harding, 1983), and 'compensatory strategies' (Poulisse et al., 1990), and also as 'coping strategies' (Savignon, 1972). Moreover, they are labelled 'conversational strategies' by Dörnyei & Thurrell (1994). In the literature, they are used interchangeably.

1.1.1.5.5. CS Identification

Nakano (1996) regarded the term CSs as problematic because many of the instances of their use in the literature could be attributed to insufficient awareness of discourse strategies. Al-Khanji (1996) identified three components of CSs: (1) a communication difficulty owing the TL inadequacy, (2) student awareness of the problem, and (3) a solution to overcome it. Further, Nayar (1988, p. 63) proposed five criteria to identify CSs:

"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 covert 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 behaviour.

5.Presence of paralinguistic and kinesthetic features both in lieu of and in support of linguistic inadequacy".

1.1.1.5.6. Effectiveness of CSs Use

1.1.1.5.6.1. CSs as Problem-Shooting Devices

The term CSs is often limited to strategies resorted to when the language learner has difficulty with communicating (Kalebić, 2007). So, a communication strategy is used when things go wrong, "a spare tyre for emergencies" (Cook, 1993, p. 119). In different terms, they are an invaluable means of dealing with communication trouble spots or as Canale & Swain (1980) said 'breakdowns in communication', such as not knowing a particular word, or misunderstanding the other speaker (Doqaruni & Najjari, 2013). Moreover, CSs can also enhance fluency and add to the efficiency of communication which has been hindered by 'performance variables'. Knowing such strategies is particularly useful for language learners because they provide them with a sense of security in the language by allowing extra time and room to maneuver (ibid).

1.1.1.5.6.2. CSs as Meaning-Negotiation Devices

According to Nakatani & Gho (2007,p. 208), "CSs are regarded not only as problem-solving phenomena to compensate for communication disruptions, but also as devices with pragmatic discourse functions for message enhancement". Furthermore, Tarone (1980) stated that CSs are considered to be an interactional phenomenon; a mutual attempt of two interlocutors to agree on a meaning in situations where requisite meaning structures are not shared. This is quite apparent in her words that consider CSs as "tools used in negotiation of meaning where both interlocutors are attempting to agree as to a communicative goal and a shared enterprise in which both the speaker and the hearer are involved rather than being only the responsibility of the speaker"

(Tarone 1980,p. 424). Thus, according to Tarone (1983), only those CSs that are marked in performance by some form of appeal on the part of the learner are considered. Ellis (1985) claimed that the interactional perspective of CSs is best tackled by discourse analysis.

This section was longer to be compared with the other sections of the chapter as it dealt with the history and conceptualization of CSs. In the first place, we clarified the difference between some concepts as strategy, process, technique and the like. Then, we discussed the linguistic deficiencies and communicative goals of language learners. After that, we highlighted the difference between CR reality and authentic communication. Moreover, CSs were elaborated as problem-shooting devices and the ways in which they were tackled in previous research were thoroughly unveiled.

Section Two: Approaches to Defining Conversational Strategies

In this section, we present different views and approaches to CSs. First of all, the traditional view is to be discussed. Then, the socio-linguistic view, Dörnyei's (1995) extended view and Canale's (1983) extended concept are to be elaborated. Moreover, the intra-individual perspective and what was beyond the interactional and psycholinguistic perspectives to conceptualizing CSs are introduced. Besides, two other views to conceptualizing CSs, i.e., process-oriented approach and the broadened one, are brought in.

1.1.2.1. Traditional View

The classificational controversy centered on such issues as whether CSs should be construed as interactional, focusing on the negotiation of meaning between and interlocutor (Tarone, 1983; Gass & Varonis, 1990; Williams, Iscoe & Tasker, 1997), or as suface manifestations of psycholinguistic process, i.e., they consider the behaviours of problem-solving arising from gaps in speakers' linguistic knowledge (Faerch & Kasper, 1983; Nakatani, 2005; Poulisse, 1990). Some researchers classified CSs according to the process, whether analytical/ holistic or conceptual/ linguistic, that produced them (Kellerman, Bongaerts, & Poulisse, 1987; Poulisse, 1987), while others (Bialystok & Fröhlich, 1980) focused instead on the actual product (i.e., CS),

classifying CSs according to whether they are based in L1 (or L3), as opposed to L2 (Liskin-Gasparro, 1996).

Originally, CSs have been derived from the notion of problem-orientedness (Numata, 2009). In different terms, researchers traditionally saw CSs as verbal and non-verbal first-aid devices used to compensate for gaps in the speaker's L2 proficiency (Dörnyei and Scott, 1997). This problem-oriented origin can be seen in the early definitions of CSs by Tarone (1977) and Faerch & Kasper (1983): "conscious communication strategies are used by an individual to overcome the crisis which occurs when language structures are inadequate to convey the individual's thought" (Tarone, 1977, p.195).

"CSs are potentially conscious plans for solving what to an individual presents itself as a problem in reaching a particular communicative goal" (Faerch & Kasper, 1983b,p. 36). According to this conceptualization, CSs constitute a subtype of L2 problem-management efforts (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997), and occur in either the planning phase or the execution one (Numata, 2009). The use of CSs in the planning phase occurs when a speaker confronts a communication difficulty because of his or her limited linguistic knowledge. In case of uses in the execution phase, a speaker is assumed to have certain knowledge, yet he or she faces difficulty in uttering it, and thus the quality and fluency of the production may be affected. This type of CS use in the execution phase can be observed in native speaker's communication; therefore, the traditional view was warranted for both L1 and L2 speakers.

1.1.2.2. The Socio-Linguistic View (The Interactional Perspective/ The Inter-Individual Perspective)

Based on the traditional approach, Tarone (1980) took into account the notion of communicative competence proposed by Canale & Swain (1980), in which a speaker's communication ability was considered significant. Thus, she made an attempt to incorporate the idea of CC in CS research. CS was defined as "mutual attempts of two interlocutors to agree on a meaning in situations where the requisite meaning structures do not seem to be shared" (Tarone, 1981,p. 288). And in this very definition, the distinction between CSs and meaning-negotiation mechanisms was somewhat

blurred (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997). In different items, this interactional perspective would allow the inclusion of various repair mechanisms, which Tarone considered CSs if their intention was "to clarify intended meaning rather than simply correct linguistic form" (1980,p. 424).

Compared to the traditional definition, this approach introduced an interactional perspective; in Tarone's words, "CS are seen as tools used in a joint negotiation of meaning where both interlocutors are attempting to agree as to a communicative goal" (1980,p. 420). Also, in order to draw the line between CSs and other strategies (i.e., learning and production strategies), three criteria were provided as follows:

1."A speaker desires to communicate a meaning X to a listener.

2.The speaker believes the linguistic or sociolinguistic structure desired to communicating meaning X is unavailable or is not shared with the listener.

3.The speaker chooses to:

A.avoid- not attempt to communicate meaning X or

B.attempt- alternative meanings to communicate meaning X.

The speaker stops trying alternatives when it seems clear to the speaker that there is shared meaning" (Tarone,1981 ,p. 288).

The interactional approach suggested that these three criteria comprise the essential compenents to define CSs whereas they are not required in their production or learning strategies (Numata, 2009). Even though Tarone herself never extended the scope of her CS taxonomy to include interactional trouble-shooting mechanisms, other researchers did specifically list meaning-negotiation strategies among CSs (Canale, 1983; Dörnyei & Thurrell, 1992; Dörnyei, 1995; Dörnyei & Scott, 1997; Rost, 1994; Rost & Ross, 1991; Rubin, 1987; Savignon, 1983; Willems, 1987).

1.1.2.3. Dörnyei's (1995) Extended View

Dörnyei (1995) suggested an extention of the definition of CSs arguing that because a primary source of L2 speakers' communication problems is insufficient processing time, 'stalling devices' (e.g., the use of lexicalized pause-fillers and hesitation

gambits) that help speakers gain time to think and keep the communication channel open are also problem-solving strategies – a point mentioned by several other researchers (e.g., Canale, 1983; Rost, 1994; Rubin, 1987; Savignon, 1983). Psycholinguistics and, and to a lesser extent, L2 research have extensively studied such stalling phenomena and the temporal organization of communication in general (Váradi, 1993 ; Griffiths, 1991), but these efforts have not been integrated into main stream CS research (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997). In Tarone's (1980) framework, pause fillers would fall under production rather than communication strategies, the difference being that production strategies "are not used for the primary purpose of negotiating meaning" (p. 420, italics in original). Faerch & Kasper (1983c) considered pause fillers temporal variables rather than strategic devices.

1.1.2.4. Canale's (1983) Extended Concept

Canale (1983) offered the broadest extension of the concept of CS. He proposed that CSs involve any attempt to "enhance the effectiveness of communication" (p. 11). This definition is broader than the restriction of CSs to problem-solving devices. Although originally a military term, strategy in general use has come to refer to the implimentation of a set of procedures for accomplishing something (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997), Bialystok (1990) defined this use of the term as "skillful planning to achieve explicit goals" (p.1). Thus, a communication strategy, in the most general sense, is a plan of action to accomplish a communication goal; the enhancement of communication effect is certainly such a goal.

An example of the broader interpretation of 'strategy' surfaces in L1 communication studies, where CS research has focused on ways of achieving "critical social goals such as gaining compliance, generating affinity, resolving social conflict, and offering information" (Wiemann & Daley, 1994,p. vii). Similarly, methods to manage potentially difficult discourse situations (e.g., how to interrupt someone, how to hold the floor, or how to close a conversation) are also communication-enhancing devices (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997).

1.1.2.5. The Intra-Individual Perspective to Conceptualizing CSs: The Psycholinguistic Approach

The psycholinguistic view, on the other hand, focuses on the language learner's problem-solving behaviours dealing with lexical and discourse problems (Faerch & Kasper, 1983; Bialystok, 1990; Kellerman, 1991; Poulisse, 1993; Littlemore, 2001, 2003). Yule & Tarone (1997) summarized the duality of approaches taken by researchers – the 'Pros' following the traditional approach and the 'Cons' taking a primarily psychological stance – as follows, The taxomic approach of the Pros focuses on the descriptions of the language produced by L2 learners, essentially characterizing the means used to accomplish reference in terms of the observed form. It is primarily a description of observed forms in L2 output, with implicit inferences being made about the differences in the psychological processing that produced them. The alternative approach of the Cons focuses on a description of the psychological processes used by L2 learners, essentially characterizing the cognitive decisions humans made in order to accomplish reference. It is primarily a description of cognitive processing, with implicit references being made about the inherent similarity of linguistically different forms observed in the L2 output (Yule & Tarone, 1997 cit in Dörnyei & Scott, 1997, p. 181).

Faerch & Kasper (1980; 1983 a,b) adopt a psycholinguistic approach to CSs, attempted to distinguish strategies from processes, plans and tactics and drew attention to the potentiality of the planning process of CSs. To put it simply, CSs are located within a general model of speech production, in which two phases are identified, the planning phase and the execution one. The researchers contended that L2 learners use CSs when they have problems executing their original communication plan. As a result, they resort to CSs, which are considered to be solutions to their limited IL. Faerch & Kasper (1983 a,p. 36) defined CSs in terms of " the individual's mental responses to a problem rather than as a joint response by two people, which means that CSs deal with language production problems that occur at the planning stage". In their speech production model, CSs are categorized as an appropriate learners' choice, learners can choose to avoid communication problems or to face them. In other words, learners may choose avoidance by changing their original goal through some sort of 'reduction' strategy. Alternatively, they may maintain their original goal through a substitute plan. This is referred to as an 'achievement' strategy. Also, Faerch & Kasper

argued that "the choice of strategy is not only sensitive to the underlying behaviour (avoidance/ achievement) but also to the nature of the problem to be solved" (1983 a ,p.37).

Within the cognitive approach, the parallel papers of Bialystok (1990) and Poulisse (1990) must be taken into account. Bialystok (1990) believed that although considerable progress has been made through different approaches, the ultimate goal of integrating the observations into a coherent account of speech production has not been realized. According to Bialystok, the only solution to this problem is an approach based on the process of using language for communicative purposes. In different terms, Bialystok (1990) argued that CSs respond to the cognitive mechanisms that operate on mental representations in linguistic processing. In this way, Bialystok's alternative cognitive framework of CSs is based on two cognitive skills: analysis of knowledge and cognitive control. While the first component refers to "the process of structuring mental representations of language which are organized at the level of meanings (knowledge of the world) into explicit representations of structure organized at the level of symbols (forms) " (Bialystok, 1990, p. 118). That is, 'analysis of knowledge' is defined as the ability to make some kind of alteration to the message content by exploiting knowledge of the concept. Strategies employed to accomplish this may include providing a definition of a concept or object; or engaging in circumlocution (Doqaruni & Najjari, 2014).

The second component implies "the ability to control attention to relevant and appropriate information and to integrate those forms in real time" (Bialystok, 1990,p. 125). That is, 'cognitive control' refers to the manipulation of the method of expression by integrating resources from outside the L2 in order to communicate the intended message. Strategies employed to accomplish this may include use of the L1 or non-linguistic strategies such as miming (Doqaruni & Najjari, 2014). And about conceptualizing CSs, Bialystok stated that, " The definition of communication strategies that follows from this framework is that they are the dynamic interaction of the components of language processing that balance each other in their level of involvement to meet task demands" (1990, p. 138).

Perhaps the most extensive series of studies to date into CSs was undertaken by the Nijmegen Project though out the 1980s and 1990s (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997). The Nijmegen Group researchers (i.e., Kellerman, Bongaerts & Poulisse, 1990) also approached CSs from a psycholinguistic perspective and chiefly concer with investigating a subset of CSs called 'compensatory strategies'. In the Nijmegen model, compensatory strategies will be of two types: conceptual or code compensetory strategies (Kellerman & Bialystok, 1997). Conceptual strategies are those whereby the participant manipulates the concept of the target referent in an effort to explain the item and is constant with Bialystok's (1990) notion of 'analysis of knowledge'. Linguistic or code compensatory strategies are those where learners manipulate their linguistic knowledge.

A follow-up to Bialystok's and the Nijmegen Group's approach to place CSs in a parsimonious cognitive framework was Poulisse's (1993) conceptualzation of CSs within a coherent model of speech production (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997). In fact, the psycholinguistic perspective was further developed by Poulisse (1993) by investigating CSs in an adopted version of Level's (1989) speech production framework which allowed more detailed psycholinguistic analysis oof strategic language behaviour than was possible before (Dörnyei and Scott, 1997). In addition, Poulisse (1990) also considered that the study of CSs (or 'compensatory strategies' which are her subject of study) refers to the general study of communication. She identifies two main CS types: the conceptual and the analytic strategy. For her, compensatory strategies are:

" processes, operating on conceptual and linguistic knowledge representations, which are adopted by language users in the creation of alternative means of expression when linguistic shortcomings make it impossible for them to communicate their intended meanings in the preferred manner" (Poulisse,1990, pp. 192-193).

In sum, as Dörnyei & Scott (1997) claimed, researchers have generally agreed with Bialystok's (1990) statement that "communication strategies are an undeniable event of the language use, their existence is a reliably documented aspect of communication, and their role in second language communication seems particularly salient" (p. 116).

Bialystok (1990) and the Nijmegen Group took an entirely different approach as opposed to those who believe in a linguistic perspective in studying CSs (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997). Although their definition of CS was similar to Faerch and Kasper's (1983b), they claimed that not understanding the cognitive psychological and psycholinguistic dimensions of CS use, and focusing only on the surface verbalization of underlying psychological processes, would lead to taxonomies of doubtful validity (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997). Indeed, the proliferation of different 'product-oriented' classifications in strategy research underscores Bialystok's and the Nijmegen Group's argument (ibid). This state of affair is well-described by Kellerman (1991,p. 158),

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

Instead of conducting product-oriented research, Bialystok and the Nijmegen Group recommended CS research adopt a new analytic perspective, focusing on the cognitive 'deep structure' of strategic language behaviour.

Despite their usefulness, the psycholinguistic typologies of CSs developed by Bialystok (1990) and the Nijmegen Group have been criticized by some researchers (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997; Nakatani & Goh, 2007). It is argued that despite the fact that the psycholinguistic researchers have attempted to present their taxonomy within an encompassing theory of communication, they only deal with a part of CSs, namely those of a compensatory nature. Therefore, we may assume that they present a restricted and limited view of what a taxonomy of CSs would include (Doqaruni and Najjari (2014). Nakatani & Goh, (2007,p. 208) contended "while this narrow focus allows researchers to concentrate on one clear aspect of learners' strategy use, a psycholinguistic perspective should, in our view, be broad enough to encompass research on other cognitive processes during speech production". Although Kellerman

& Bialystok (1997) made an important attempt to systhesize the Nijmegen taxonomy with Bialystok's framework in order to extend the psycholinguistic approach to cover other types of strategies, this new reclassification of CSs is still in its early stages.

1.1.2.6. Beyond the Interactional and Psycholinguistic Perspectives

According to Doqaruni & Najjari (2014), a widened perspective in the area of CS research would be of considerable importance in the current SLA research. Arguments for the current psycholinguistic and interactional views are to a large extent speculative, plausible, and advanced with tenacious conviction. As the theoretical pendulum swung from one extreme to the other, each approach was followed by its opposite (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997; Yule & Tarone, 1997).

The Cons realized that the Pros have been producing too many taxonomies, so taxonomy was reduced to its least possible amount. Cognitive processes were seen to have been over-valued by the Cons, so the Pros gave their attention to more interactional phenomena. However, one approach failed to give sufficient importance to the other. Hence, there is a certain air of uncertainty about the whole 'psycholinguistic/ interactional debate' (Doqaruni & Najjari, 2014).

This discussion of L2 communication strategies is better no longer be limited to a consideration of the two basic interactional and psycholinguistic concepts. We really need to look at CSs from other directions, asking ourselves 'why is (non-native) teachers' talk filled with CSs ?' or 'how can previously neglected discourse-based CSs serve to enhance our understanding of the strategic competence of language learners in their interlanguage ?' or 'what is the relationship between CSs and noticing function of output hypothesis ?' (Doqaruni & Najjari, 2014). Thus, the new paths to dealing with CSs rely on three aspects. First, the abundant use of CSs in non-native teacher talk within EFL classroom contexts. Second, the neglected role of discourse-based CSs in previous studies is to be taken into account. Third, the particular relevance of CSs to noticing function of Output Hypothesis is to be considered (ibid).

1.1.2.6.1. Teacher Talk Dimension

Since researchers have so far treated CSs as independent and isolated units of analysis, the possible collaboration of the interlocutor in the strategic communication of the meaning process has drawn little or no attention at all (Doqaruni & Najjari, 2014). In other words, the previous research has focused overwhelmingly on individual production, as compared to achievement of comprehension and the mutual construction of discourse (Williams et al., 1997). CSs have thus been generally studied as part of the learner's use of the language and not as the product of the interaction taking place between a learner and, at least, one other interlocutor (Fernandez Dobao & Martinez, 2007). However, following Yule & Tarone's (1991) claim that for a comprehensive understanding of strategic communication, attention should be paid to 'both sides of the page',i.e., to the actions of both learners and interlocutors. Scholars, such as Firth & Wagner (1997), tried to describe strategic communication as an interactive activity. In these studies, CSs are anlyzed as elements of the ongoing and co-constructed context of the interaction and their communicative function is established by taking into account the actions of all the conversational participants, not only students.

It does not just be the L2 student who is felt to have inadequate linguistic knowledge in classroom interaction, it may be the teacher (Rampton, 1997). As Willems (1987,p. 354) asserted, "all of us [teachers] – and not jus tour pupils – have a natural tendency to use communication strategies when communication problems arise". The latter argument is of particular performance in EFL classroom contextswhere non-native English speaking teachers perform their task (Doqaruni & Najjari, 2014). Ideally we assume that all language teachers have an acceptable proficiency in English, but it is worth noting that many of the language teachers are themselves second/ foreign language speakers and lag behind their very own linguistic knowledge (Medgyes, 1994, 2001). Therefore, "it is appropriate to think of a great number of language teachers as language learners – albeit advance ones" (Horwitz, 1996,p. 366).

In this way, CSs become important not only for their function as support for facilitating the understanding of the second language learner but also, at the same time, as a source for helping the second language speaking teachers (Anani, 2004). Anani

(2004) and Yakubi & Doqaruni (2009) claimed that teacher talk, and the use of CSs in their talk, can reveal and make explicit to a large extent the conditions and consequences of teaching and learning principles in classroom contexts. Cullen (1998), considering this issue, believed that, While the question of how much teachers talk is still important, more emphasis is given to how effectively they are able to facilitate learning and promote communicative interaction in their classroom through, for example, the kind of questions they ask, the speech modifications [such as communication strategies] they make when talking to learners, or the way they react to student errors (p.179).

1.1.2.6.2. Discourse-Based Dimension

To add to the two established frameworks on CSs (psycholinguistic and interactional), Clennell (1995) proposed a discourse view of CSs. In fact, Clennell's (1995) concept of discourse-based strategies came from Faerch & Kasper's (1984) notion of advance planning. Although Faerch & Kasper are well-known for their psychological problem-solving view of CSs, these researchers actually acknowledge that advanced learners have the ability to predict an interaction problem in advance and venture to solve it beforehand in order to assure a higher degree of smoothness and fluency in the speech (Doqaruni & Najjari, 2014). In their own words, "advanced learners, who are capable of planning longer units, can often predict a communication problem well in advance and attempt to solve it beforehand, as part of the normal planning process" (Faerch & Kasper, 1984,pp. 60-61).

The idea of advance planning was grasped by Clennell (1995) a decade later and he propposed a pragmatic discourse perspective of CSs.his typology of discourse-based CSs differs from the other more familiar typologies of CSs which only focus on the use of verbal and non-verbal strategies to overcome specific lexical difficulty or to negotiate communication breakdown. In his opinion, CSs should not be seen relevant only when the need for conversational repair arises, but that CSs have the potential to make easy exchange of key information to lessen breakdowns in communication. This definition is broad than the restriction of CSs to problem-solving devices; therefore, going beyond the psycholinguistic and interactional perspectives. In this respect,

Clennell's (1995) message-enhancing CSs are in accordance with an influential definition of CSs by Canale (1983).

Strategic competence is seen as one of the main four components of overall communicative competence, and consists of "mastery of verbal and nonverbal communication strategies that may be called into action for two main reasons; a) to compensate for brakdowns in communication dus to limiting conditions in actual communication or to insufficient competence in one or more areas of communicative competence; and b) to enhance the effectiveness of communication" (Canale, 1983, p. 12). It is just this second part of Canale's (1983) definition that Clennell (1995) believed has mostly been neglected in the previous literature on CSs.

Clennell (1995) considered the strategies in Faerch & Kasper's (1984) and Tarone's (1980) typologies as "local lexically based compensatory devices that learners operate to overcome specific obstacles in the process of communication" (p.6), and put them under

1.Category 1: improvisation/ avoidance strategies in his reclassification of CSs. Besides lexical strategies, Clennell (1995) recognized two other categories that aid conversational maintenace and are defined as discourse-based strategies.

2.Category 2: strategies are negotiation/ interaction strategies and are used when participants in an interaction negotiate communication brakdown through the use of clarification requests and comprehension checks. These discourse strategies play a compensatory role in communication.

3.Category 3: strategies are used to enhance the effectiveness of communication. These collaboration/ planning strategies make easy exchange of key information through the use of topic fronting, tonicity and lexical repetition.

It is interesting to note that the role of specific discourse-based strategies such as negotiation of meaning has been an important object of study for a long time in SLA research and a considerable number of studies have been conducted on the learning effects interlocutor's mutual attempts to avoid and repair impasses in the target language (Doughty & Pica, 1986; Long, 1983; Pica, 2002; Pica & Doughty, 1985;

Varonis & Gass, 1985). For example, Varonis and Gass (1985) define negotiation of meaning as strategic behaviour for solving interaction problems and Long (1983) divided an interlocutor's signals for negotiation of meaning into comprehension checks, confirmation checks and clarification requests.

Previous literature has proved that through employing such strategies for negotiation, learners can receive comprehensible input and have opportunities for modifying their output. In other words, learners can comprehend and produce messages beyond their current interlanguage receptive expressive capacities through negotiation of meaning. In fact, Yule & Tarone (1991) emphasized that the research literature discussing the negotiation of meaning in L2 communication has been entirely independent of CSs studies (Pica, 1994). It is in this situation that Ting & Phan (2008,p. 30) stated, "research into the use of discourse-based communication strategiesis prelimiminary, [and] further research on the use of these discourse-based strategies by learners with varying levels of language proficiency would be needed". In this way, it seems that now it is the time for SLA researchers to show how an expanded typology encompassing not only problem-solving strategies but also message-enhancing strategies can serve to enhance current understanding of the strategic competence of language learners in their interlanguage.

1.1.2.6.3. Noticing Function Dimension

In a seminal work article, Swain (1985) argued that comprehensible input may not be sufficient for successful second language acquisition, but that opportunities for non-native speakers to produce comprehensible output are also necessary. In this way, Swain (1985) proposed a hypothesis relating to the second language learner's production comparable to Krashen's comprehensible input hypothesis. She termed this hypothesis as the 'Comprehensible Output Hypothesis' for SLA. Swain argued that comprehensible output is the output that extends the linguistic repertoire of the learner as s/he attempts to create precisely and appropriately the meaning desired.

Swain (1995) later, refining the comprehensible output hypothesis developed in Swain (1985), proposed three different functions of output in SLA. First, it is hypothesized that output promotes 'noticing'. That is to say, "in producing the target

language (vocally or sub-vocally) learners may notice a gap between what the want to say and what they can say, leading them to recognize that they do not know, or know only partially" (pp.125-126). A second way in which producing language may serve the language learning process is through hypothesis testing. That is, "producing output is one way of testing a hypothesis about comprehensibility or linguistic well-formedness" (p.126). Thirdly, as learners reflect upon their own targer language use, their output serves a metalinguistic function, enabling them to control and internalize linguistic knowledge.

Of particular relevance to CSs study in Swain's noticing function of output hypothesis which clearly states that language production enables learners to notice the gap between what they can say and what they want to say when they formulate the target language. Addressing this function of output, Swain (1995) argued that, "under some circumstances, the activity of producing the target language may prompt second language learners to consciously recognize some of their linguistic preblems; it may bring to their attention something they need to discover about their L2". In other words, Swain (1995) believed that output gives rise to noticing. She stated, "to test this hypothesis (function), one would need to demonstrate that learners may, on occasion, notice a problem (even without external cueing) through, for example, implicit or explicit feedback provided from an interlocutor about problems in the learners' output" (p. 129). She further asserted, "It seems to me that there is ample evidence from the communication strategy literature (for example, Tarone, 1977; Faerch & Kasper, 1983; Bialystok, 1990; Kellerman, 1991) that learners do notice problems as they speak, and do try to de something about them" (p.129). Considering the Swain's claim, it seems that output hypothesis and its noticing function is applicable to the use of CSs in L2 learners' language. In other words, it seems that there is a relationship between noting function of output hypothesis and CSs (Doqaruni & Najjari, 2014).

1.1.2.7. Process-Oriented Approach

The traditional approach, the interactional approach, and the psycholinguistic approach have proposed ways of investigating CSs. As said before, the three approaches are different in terms of what they emphasize (Doqaruni & Najjari, 2014).

For example, the interactional approach emphasizes the importance of interaction, and the psycholinguistic approach originated from a speech production model. However, it seems that all three approaches put their emphasis on the resule of learners' production. The early researchers focused on classifying every CS one by one, with the result that they struggled to generalize CS uses (ibid).

Poulisse (1994) argued "they (i.e., the early approaches) are insufficiently related to theories of language use or development, so that studies which adopt them cannot provide much insight into the cognitive processes underlying CS use" (p.620). In this view, the process-oriented approach focused on learner types as a crucial factor which affects the selection of CS (Bialystok, 1990; Bongaerts & Poulisse, 1989, Littlemore, 2001, 2003; Poulisse, 1987, 1990; Poulisse & Schils, 1989). In other words, this approach focuses on the role of cognitive processes underlying CS use, and such emphasis was placed on the processes over the resulting products.

The process-oriented approach enabled researchers to categorize a variety of CSs into two groups, which are 'conceptual strategies' and 'linguistic strategies'. Kellerman (1991) defined the term 'conceptual strategies' as how speakers 'manipulate the concept so that it becomes expressible through their available linguistic resources" (p.149). Furthermore, 'conceptual strategies' are divided into 'analytic' and 'holistic' depending on the learner type. Whereas 'analytic' learners are those who need to spell out characteristic features of the concept, 'holistic' learners are those who use a substitute referent which shares characteristics with the targer item (Doqaruni & Najjari, 2014). 'Linguistic strategies' involve 'mophological creativity' and 'transfer'. The traditional categories such as approximation, circumlocution, word coinage, literal translation, and code switching are included under 'linguistic strategies'. 'Morphological creativity' refers to the use of strategy by making up an English word that is similar to the target item.

This process-oriented approach seems to be workable in examining learners' CS use as placing an emphasis on their cognitive processes. Furthermore, in order to examine learners' cognitive types as a crucial determinant of their CS use, Poulisse (1993) proposed adopting Levelt's (1989) L1 speech production model to L2 speech

production because the distinction between holistic conceptual strategies and transfer strategies are not clearly made.

1.1.2.8. Broadened Approach [Dörnyei & Scott's (1995a&b) Extended View]

A broadened approach was proposed by Dörnyei & Scott's (1995a&b). Their extended taxonomy is based on ones developed by Tarone, and Faerch & Kasper, but it is concerned with "how CSs contribute to resolving conflicts and achieving mutual understanding" (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997,p. 198). It is divided into three categories according to the manner of problem management as 'direct strategies', 'indirect strategies' and 'interactional strategies'. Direct strategies refer to any strategies used when a speaker lacks resources, and consists of any moves used in order to assist speech production. Indirect strategies do not directly work to solve problems; rather indirect strategies are used to create the conditions for mutual understanding. It is, for example, exemplified by use of fillers or hedges in order to handle time pressure. In addition, 'interactional strategies' involve cooperative exchange between two or more interlocutors to overcome problems.

In this section, we presented different views and approaches to CSs. First of all, the traditional view was to be discussed. Then, the socio-linguistic view, Dörnyei's (1995) extended view and Canale's (1983) extended concept were elaborated. Moreover, the intra-individual perspective and what was beyond the interactional and psycholinguistic perspectives to conceptualizing CSs were introduced. Besides, two other views to conceptualizing CSs, i.e., process-oriented approach and the broadened one, were brought in.

Section Three: Defining Criteria of Conversational Strategies

In the current section, the main criteria for defining CSs are demonstrated. At the onset, we give a comprehensive account of the first criterion, i.e., problematicity/ problem-orientedness. Next, 'consciousness' as a second criterion is considered. Then, the third criterion, i.e., intentionality, is explained. CSs use and LLs' behaviours is the last aspect to be presented in this section.

1.1.3.1. First Criterion: 'Problematicity/ Problem-Orientedness'

Although there are many definitions of CSs in the literature, most researchers include the criterion of problems or difficulties in their definitions of this very concept. That is, most conceptualizations are based on the idea of 'problematicity' (Tarone, 1977, 1980, 1981; Bialystok & Fröch, 1980; Faerch & Kasper, 1980, 1983, 1984). This view is clearly supported by Bialystok (1990) who pointed out that although CSs researchers offer various definitions; these definitions seem to converge on three criteria: 'problematicity', 'consciousness' and 'intentionality'.

Bachman (1990) did not relate strategic competence to the notion of problematicity in that he sees strategic language use as underlying all language use. Bachman's model of laguage ability comprises three components: language competence, strategic competence and psychophysiological mechanisms. Strategic competence, according to him, characterizes "the mental capacity for implementing the components of language competence in contextualized language use" (ibid, p. 84). Bachman & Palmer (1996) gave the following definition of strategic competence, "A set of metacognitive components, or strategies, which can be thought of as higher order executive processes that provide a cognitive management function in language use, as well as in other cognitive activities" (p.70). It is clear, thus, that strategies in this model permeate all the other aspects of language use and are not special to emergencies (Smaoui, 2015).

The second group of researchers, on the other hand, argue that problem-orientedness is a primary criterion in defining CS. As a matter of fact, "the original insight into CSs was based on a mismatch between communicative intention and linguistic resources" (Váradi, 1992, p.437); that is, CSs were seen as language devices used to overcome communication problems related to interlanguage deficiencies. For example, Faerch & Kasper (1983b) defined CS as "potentially conscious plans for solving what to an individual presents itself as a problem in reaching a particular communicative goal" (p. 20). For them, not every communicative goal is reached through the use of a CS, but only those which present themselves to the individual as problems (Smaoui, 2015). The notion of problematicity was, in fact, adopted in numerous other definitions. Poulisse et al., (1984), for instance, talked about CS as "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 utteranc due to his own linguistic

shortcomings" (p. 72). Paribakht (1985) suggested that "CS have generally been defined as means that speakers use to solve their communicative problems" (p. 132).

The criterion of 'problem-orientedness' was termed by Bialystok (1983) as 'problematicity' and it refers to the fact that CSs occur when a goal presents itself to be problematic (Benali, 2013). That is, it indicates that speakers employ strategies only when they have realized that there is a problem which may break down the communication process (Frewan, 2015). Similarily, Garcia (2011) stated that problematicity is related to the scope of motivation of using CSs. Faerch and Kasper (1983) argued that the word 'problem' is sometimes mistakenly used as a synonym for 'task'. They claimed that problems need to be related to the knowledge insufficiency in the learner's interlanguage system. Furthermore, Faerch & Kasper (1983) explained that this insufficiency cannot be attributed to fiest language users as they may face problems as a result of some psychological constraints from being exhausted or anxious.

Some researchers, however, express their dissatisfaction with this criterion. For example, Dörnyei and Scott (1995a & b) argued that it is not specific enough, and the exact type of problem referred to by the term 'problematicity' is not identified clearly. Moreover, Dörnyei & Scott (1997) stated that the study of CS sis limited to handle only type of language problem 'resource deficit gaps' (p. 183) in speakers' linguistic knowledge preventing them from sending their messages across. In other words, the researchers argue that many researchers have restricted their conceptualizations of CSs to only one type of problem and this restriction does not reflect the general meaning implied in the term CSs. Therefore, the term was extended to include different types of problems. First and foremost, at the initial planning stage during speech production, 'resource deficit', i.e., insufficient knowledge of vocabulary items is the fundamental problem that an L2 speaker is likely to encounter (Dörnyei & Kormos, 1998; Levelt, 1989). The second problem is 'processing time pressure' and is related to the fact that L2 speech processing is far less automatic than L1 speech processing (Dörnyei and Kormos, 1998), and that retrieval may take "more time than the production system will allow" (de Bot, 1992,p. 14). The third problem occurs when "the monitor inspects the language output both before articulation and after articulation" (Dörnyei & Kormos,

1998, p. 371) and detects "deficiencies in one's own language output" (p.371). The fourth problem may arise when an L2 speaker experiences "perceived deficiencies in the interlocutor's performance" (Dörnyei & Kormos, 1998, p. 374). Problems may occur when the L2 speaker does not hear or have sufficient L2 knowledge to understand the speech of his/ her interlocutor (s) (Lam, 2005).

1.1.3.2. Second Criterion: Consciousness

According to Faerch & Kasper (1980), the criterion of consciousness is derived from the criterion of proble-orientedness and can consequently be considered a 'secondary' criterion (p.57). In fact, this criterion is implicilty indicated in most of the definition of CSs. Canale & Swain (1980) and Faerch & Kasper (1983); Váradi (1973) and Tarone (1977) all considered CSs as potentially consciously developed verbal and non-verbal plans. Faerch & Kasper (1983b) pointed out that learners develop plans which may or may not be conscious as part of language production and that the consciousness changes according to occasion. In fact, consciousness implies that learners who employ CSs are aware of their communicative difficulties, and that is why they resort to such alternative ways (Bialystok, 1990). However, there is no evidence that learners are certainly aware thet, "their utterances constitute strategic uses of language" (Bialystok, 1990,p. 4). From a cognitive perspective, instruction is mainly aimed to give learners the opportunity in order to raise their awareness of a certain topic (Dörnyei, 1995).

However, there are some problems associated with consciousness as a defining criterion of CSs. For example, consciousness is a relative concept, a graded phenomenon (Faerch & Kasper, 1984b). Faerch & Kasper (1980) claimed that it is a matter of degree than of either-or, as is apparent from Tarone, Frauenfelder & Selinker (1976), who distinguished between "'more' conscious" and "'more' unconscious" strategies. Thus instead of saying that strategies are used consciously or not consciously, it is better to say that they are used more or less consciously, hence it is better to use Faerch and Kasper's phrase 'potentially conscious'. The existence of consciousness depends on the individual and the situational variables as well as the

linguistic materials and the psychological precesses involved. This is clear in Dörnyei & Scott's (1997, p. 184) words,

One can be conscious of a language problem, the intent/ attempt to solve this problem, the repertoire of potentially applicable CSs, the way a CS may achieve its effect, the alternative plan, the execution of the CS, the use of a less-then-perfect 'stopgap' device (i.e., the CS), or the use of a CS when brought to the learner's attention later.

Bialystok (1990) excluded the criterion of consciousness as a defining criterion for CS because she does not find evidence to support the claim that, when speakers use CSs, they are aware that they have done so. Speakers have a choice when they communicate (Rababah, 2002). For example, they may choose lorry or truck to refer to the same thing. So it is a choice that takes place "without the conscious consideration of the speaker" (Bialystok, 1990, p.4). In addition, as Gass & Selinker (1994) pointed out, a central feature of language use is a tendency to automatize high frequency elements; therefore, the small set of strategies people use in the numerous problem-situations they encounter can become routinized (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997). In Wiemann & Daly's (1994) words, some strategies "overlearned seem to drop from consciousness" (p.ix). That is, what was originally an intentional strategy may become in certain situations and/ or with certain individuals a highly automatized or fossilized – hence not fully conscious- device.

Moreover, consciousness as a criterion may have the indication that CSs are only applied by those who are conscious about them. This restriction exclude children ae it has always been claimed that their consciousness processing is not possible (Bialystok, 1990). Benali (2013,p.45) stated that, "the bulk of theoretical and empirical studies in the field acknowledges that the application of CSs might be either conscious or sub-conscious, but still there is a confusion concerning the mental stage in which this consciousness takes place". In addition, consciousness has many different connotations that "one would best avoid it altogether" (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997, p. 184). For example, Schmidt (1994), when discussing consciousness in language attainment, suggests deconstructing it intoseveral aspects: intentionality, attention, awareness and control. Poulisse et al., (1990) preferred to use the term 'awareness' instead of

consciousness. Also, Bialystok (1990) separated consciousness from 'intentionality', which she defined as the "learner's control over a repertoire of strategies so that particular ones may be selected from the range of options and deliberately applied to achieve certain effects" (p.5).

Even though consciousness has been reported in many studies as a definition criterion, there has been no clear consensus on the underlying meaning of it (Yakut, 2013). By referring to previous studies, Dörnyei & Scott (1997) discussed three aspects of consciousness:

1.Consciousness as awareness of the problem refers to instances of problem-related language use which are related to language processing problems that the speaker consciously recognizes as such should be termed CSs in order to distinguish mistakes and CSs that may have a similar erroneous form.

2.Consciousness as intentionality refers to the intentional use of the CS separates CSs from certain verbal behaviours that are systematically related to problems of which the speaker is aware but that are done intentionally.

3.Consciousness as awareness of strategic language use refers to realizing that he/ she is using a less-than-perfect, stopag device or is doing a problem-related detour on the way to mutual understanding.

1.1.3.3. Third Criterion: Intentionality

Intentionality refers to the learner's control over a range of strategies, thus they may select ceratin strategies over others in order to apply them to reach certain communicative goals (Bialystok, 1990). This criterion is based on the assumption that the speaker has a control over the strategy that is selected and the choice is a response to the obstacle under consideration (ibid). Schmidt (1994) and Bialystok (1990) considered consciousness and intentinality as two different entities. However, this is not the case for Dörnyei & Scott (1997) who described consciousness as intentionality. They argued that the intentional use of CSs distinguisheed them from some systematic behaviour that is related to problems which speakers become aware of but they do not do intentionally.

In other words, Dörnyei & Scott (1997) highlighted that speakers may use pauses like "umming and erring" (p. 115) with an awareness of the difficulty faced but they always use them without a conscious decision. However, Bialystok (1990) explained that CSs may be used equally well in situations where no problems have arisen, as in the case when a native speaker gives a road description to a stranger using a long definition instead of the actual word. This means that CS cannot be exclusively defined by reference to any particular feature because each feature is a matter of degree (Oweis, 2013).

1.1.3.4. CSs Use and Learners' Behaviours

Strategies of communication have essentially to do with the relationship between ends and means. In a native speaker ie is ideally assumed that these are in balance, that is, that he always has the linguistic means to express the messages he wishes to communicate. In a learner, however, these are not in balance. The learner will sometimes wish to convey messages which his linguistic resources do not permit him to express successfully (Corder, 1983). When learners come across a communication breakdown in the course of interaction, certain learners may attempt to accomplish their intended goal by employing whatever knowledge is available to them at that moment even if they take a risk (Song, 1997). On the contrary, other learners may reduce or give up completely in order to avoid the risk (ibid). The former type of strategies, described as 'resource expansion' strategies (Corder, 1981) or 'achievement strategies' (Faerch & Kasper, 1980), are likely to extend the learner's communicative performance, whereas the latter type, 'message-adjustment strategies'/ 'risk-avoiding strategies' (Corder, 1981) or 'reduction strategies' (Faerch and Kasper, 1980), tend to reduce their communicative performance.

1.1.3.4.1. Achievement Strategies: Success-Oriented Strategies

In language production, achievement strategies are used when faced with communication problems and to compensate for insufficient means by confronting the problem and by making the effort to retrieve the required linguistic items, and thereby eaching a solution (Al-Khanji et al., 2000). In other terms, achievement strategies (such as code-switching, paraphrasing, literal translation, and appeal, word-coinage,

restructuring and non-linguistic strategies) are employed to communicate the whole message as perceived by the speaker. As a result, the message is neither lost nor altered (Alssaqaf et al., 2016), or in Hua et al.'s (2012) words "achievement strategies.. are used to maintain the original goal of the language user" (p. 833), that is, the learners' communicative gaps are bridged (ibid). About their classification, Corder (1983) claimed that "we cannot order the techniques according to a hierarchy" (p. 17).

Resource expansion strategies (i.e., achievement strategies) are frequently found one or more being employed simultaneously. All are risk-taking, in that they run the danger of failure,i.e., misunderstanding or communication breakdown. Such strategies are regarded as 'good learner behaviours' (Nakatani, 2006). And the case when the learner is not forced to edjust his meaning in anyway, when his selected A form does not differ from a proper T form conveying the same meaning, and when he manages to perform the utterance without any performance distortion, this fact is described by Váradi (1983) as 'perfect communication'. And the attainment of such proficiency is obviously a long-range objective in language acquisition, it can be argued that it is counter-productive for teachers to insist upon reaching it throughout the learning process (ibid, p. 98).

1.1.3.4.1.1. Compensatory Strategies and the Planning Phase

Faerch & Kasper (1980) stated that by using an achievement strategy, the learner attempts to solve problems in communication by expanding by expanding her communicative resources (Corder, 1978a), rather than by reducing her communicative goal (functional reduction). Most of the strategies relate to problems in the planning phase, some to retrieval problems in the realization phase, and one (restructuring) to problems in both the planning and the realization phase. Of the problems in the planning phase, Faerch & Kasper (1980) distinguished between discourse problems and problems with respect to the linguistic code.

In the first type of problems, learners in fact have difficulties in organizing discourse has been demonstrated by Götz (1977) and Kasper (1979) who found that the following represented problems for advanced German learners of English:

-realizing moves in opening phases;

-signalling change of topic and end of exchange;

-identifying the interlocutor's preclosing signals;

-using uptakers and devices for getting the floor.

And in the second type of peroblems (i.e., linguistic code problems or compensatory strategies), Faerch & Kasper (1980) referred to achievement strategies aimed at solving problems in the planning phase due to insufficient linguistic resources as 'compensatory strategies'. The compensatory strategies will be subclassified according to what resources the learner draws on in trying to solve her planning problem: code switching, inter- / intra-lingual transfer, generalization, discourse phenomena and non-linguistic communication (ibid).

1.1.3.4.2. Reduction Strategies: Risk-Avoiding Strategies

Reduction/ avoidance strategies are used by learners to avoid solving a communication problem (Cervantes & Rodriguez, 2012), without being able to develop an alternative plan, and this may result in an imperfect message or a message different from the one intially intended,i.e., changing the original communicative goal (Cervantes & Rodriguez, 2012; Al-Khanji et al., 2000; Hua et al., 2012; Saeidi & Farshchi, 2015; Nakatani et al., 2012; Alsaqqaf et al., 2016; Huang, 2010). That is, it leads to either reducing the message (due to the speaker's failure to convey the whole intended messages and accordingly, only a partial solution may be resorted to), or to find no solution (as the speakers abandon the message and may be try to convey messages they can manage) (Alsaqqaf et al., 2016), or abstain from unfamiliar topics (Huang, 2010). According to Brown (2000), a learner who is not able to come up with a word or grammatical structure and has phonological difficulty wishes to avoid using it. When asked a specific question, the learners who find the answer too difficult to express will keep silent and this leads the occurrence of topic avoidance (Yan-ni, 2007). These strategies such as topic avoidance, message abandonment, and meaning replacement that have a negative effect on interaction are prevalent among low proficiency learners (Saeidi & Farshchi, 2015; Nakatani, 2006).

In the current section, the main criteria for defining CSs were demonstrated. At the onset, we gave a comprehensive account of the first criterion, i.e., problematicity/ problem-orientedness. Next, 'consciousness' as a second criterion was considered. Then, the third criterion, i.e., intentionality, was explained. CSs use and LLs' behaviours was the last aspect presented in this section.

Section Four: Conversational Strategies Taxonomies

We start, in this section, presenting a critical fact in CS research which is the difficulty in agreeing upon one taxonomy as was the case with CS conceptualization. Then, we discuss how the different CS taxonomies contain the same substance. After, we present the criteria of classification. Further, we display the dissimilar types of typologies. Evaluation and problems inherent in the previous frameworks are discussed. And in the last place, we explain the taxonomy adopted in the present study.

1.1.4.1. No Agreement on One Typology

A variety of typologies referring to CSs in IL production have been proposed by Váradi (1973), Tarone (1977), Tarone et al., (1976), Corder (1978b), Faerch & Kasper (1980, 1983a). In addition, typologies relating specificall to lexical problems are provided by Blum-Kulka & Levenston (1978), and Paribakht (1982, 1985). The available research on CS typologies and classifications reveal that CSs have been classified differently according to the principles of terminology and categorisation of different researchers (Hirano, 1987; Somsai et al., 2011). Much of the literature in this field seems to lack a consensus over a taxonomy of CSs (Hirano, 1987; Rababah, 2002). However, there is considerable overlap between the types of CSs. It is very clear in the literature that a single utterance may be labelled under two different categories. Cook argues that "if the lists were standardized, at least, there would be an agreement about such categories" (1993, p. 133). It is supposed that because of the problems of definition, there is no agreement yet for CSs types and classification (Ellis, 1985).

1.1.4.2. Different Typologies and Same Substance

Ever since Selinker's (1972) article on interlanguage introduced the notion of second language CSs, various researchers have gone about classifying these strategies in various ways (Aliakbari et at., 2009). From among these classifications, one can allude to Váradi (1973) and Tarone (1977) who introduced a classification of CSs that were used in subsequent research. Tarone (1977) described her taxonomy as a system which provides the best tool to make sense of the behaviour of the subjects in communicative situations. The author herself points out the lack of generality of her taxonomy. However, other researchers have adapted Tarone's (1977) typology and introduced other strategies (Paribakht, 1985).

This fact has promoted the existence of a rather confusing multitude of different strategies of ambiguous validity (Aliakbari et at., 2009). Bialystok (1990) believed that the variety of taxonomies proposed in the literature differ primarily in terminology and overall categorizing principles rather than in the substance of specific strategies. She remarks that, "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, 1990,p. 61).

1.1.4.3. Criteria of Classification

Many different taxonomies of CSs have been suggested over the years (Nacey et al., 2013). The classifications proposed by researchers have been organized around ceratin criteria, such as the choice of the learner as to whether to reduce or achieve the goal; or to consult different sources of information – L1-based versus IL- or L2-based strategies; or to use his conceptual, analytic versus linguistic strategies (Nacey et al., 2013; Rababah, 2002). Moreover, a variety of different terms has been developed by individual researchers to refer to more or less the same strategy ,e.g., code-switching/ language switching/ borrowing or foreignizing/ anglicizing, etc. As Bialystok (1990) noted, "the similarity in the strategies listed, and to some extent, even in their classification, is striking" (p. 45).

In fact, though researchers have produced apparently different taxonomies with different structures, the underlying structure of these taxonomies is often the same. What is referred to as 'circumlocution' by one taxonomy is classified as

'description'or 'exemplification' in other taxonomies. For example, Bongaerts & Poulisse (1989) distinguished between two sub-types of linguistic strategy: morphological creativity and strategy of transfer. Strategy of transfer consists of transferring items from L1 or L3. It may be referred to a 'literal translation', 'foreignizing' and 'borrowing'. In Tarone's (1977) taxonomy, these strategies are referred of as 'strategies of conscious transfer' and later by Tarone (1983) as 'borrowing'.

1.1.4.4. Types of Taxonomies

1.1.4.4.1. Psycholinguistic vs. Interactional Typologies

1.1.4.4.1.1. The Psycholinguistic Stance (Definition and Classification)

According to Faerch & Kasper (1984), CSs are located within underlying cognitive structures and are regarded as a subclass of verbal plans. This definition distinguishes CSs from other verbal plans by two criteria: problem-orientedness and potential consciousness.

On the basis of the above definition, CSs are categorized into various subtypes. A first major categorization reflects the difference between strategies aimed at solving problems in speech production and strategies aimed at receptive problems. Most of these have previously been identified by various researchers (Tarone et al., 1976; Blum & Levenston, 1978), and some of its major strategy types have been suggested by Váradi (1973) and Corder (1978). The first major categorization of productive strategies is made according to two types of behaviours that language users may adopt when faced with a communicative problem: they can either adopt avoidance behaviour, thereby renouncing (part of) their original communication goal, or rely on achievement behaviour, attempting to maintain their original aim by developing an alternative plan. These two types of behaviour correspond to two fundamentally different types of CSs: avoidance behaviour manifests itself in reduction strategies, whereas achievement behaviour underlies achievement strategies (Faerch & Kasper, 1984).

1.1.4.4.1.2. The Interactional Stance

An alternative definition of CSs has been offered by Tarone (1980, 1981, 1983). For her, a communicative strategy represents "a mutual attempt of two interlocutors to agree on a meaning in situations where requisite meaning structures do not seem to be shared" (1980,p. 419). This definition implies that the negotiation of meaning as a joint effort between the interlocutors is central to the concept of CSs (Faerch and Kasper, 1984).

Tarone's (1980) typology of CSs comprises the following categories: paraphrase, transfer, mime, and avoidance. This typology is taken over without modification from an earlier study (Tarone, 1977), in which a different non-interactional definition of CS sis formulated, "conscious communication strategies are used by an individual to overcome a crisis which occurs when language structures are inadequate to convey the individual's thought" (1977,p. 194). This definition is in perfect agreement with the categories provided in the typology.

If the same set of CSs is to be compatible with the interactional definition, however, these strategies have to ber e-interpretable in an interactional way. Faerch & Kasper (1984) claimed that we can think of two ways of doing this. One possibility is to adopt a weak 'interactional claim'. By this we mean that as a result of a speaker's application of a strategy some reaction from the interlocutor is elicited. The strategy could therefore be characterized as 'interactional'.

However, there are several problems associated with the weak claim. First, it implies a confusion of a strategy, operating at the (psycholinguistic) process level of language use, with its linguistic result being the way it manifests itself at the product level of a speaker's performance. Second, interactiveness as a defining criterion of CSs makes it impossible to apply this concept to types of discourse in which no feedback is given or feedback is delayed. This means that the sender of a message does not obtain immediate confirmation or disconfirmation as to whether mutual understanding has been secured (ibid).

To sum up, the weak interactional claim does not offer a criterion by means of which communication strategies can be distinguished from other ways of using language in situations that allow for immediate feedback, while at the same time it excludes

problem-solving procedures activated in discourse types with delayed or no feedback from the concept of CSs (ibid).

The 'strong interactional claim' implies that CSs are truly cooperative in nature: the interlocutors are both aware of the presence of a communicative problem which they then attempt to solve on a cooperative basis. A prerequisite for this is that the problem somehow surfaces in the performance. In the case of appeals for assistance, the learner explicitly invites the interlocutor to provide a solution to a communicative problem. In all other instances, the learner first attempts a solution, which elicits the interlocutor's cooperation. Consequently there are only two major types of CSs: direct appeals, which leave the first attempt at problem-solving to the interlocutor, and indirect appeals (e.g., paraphrase, transfer, or mime) in which the learner provides the first solution, thereby eliciting the interlocutor's participation in the process of meaning negotiation (Faerch & Kasper, 1984).

1.1.4.4.2. Data-Driven vs. Theory Basis Taxonomies

Whereas the negotiation of meaning is 'listener-oriented', communication strategies are 'speaker-oriented'; that is, they are used by learners to compensate for lack of L2 knowledge or their inability to access the L2 knowledge they have (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005). There are a number of category system offering taxonomies of communication strategy. Most of the strategies so identified relate to lexis, although, potentially they can apply to any level of language (i.e., phonological, grammatical, or pragmatic). Examples of the CSs that have been identified are avoidance, and various achievement strategies such as paraphrase, conscious transfer, appeals for assistance and mime (Tarone, 1981). These taxonomies have been data-driven rather than theoretically informed and perhaps for this reason have tended to proliferate (Ellis and Barkhuizen, 2005).

1.1.4.4.3. Surface Structure vs. Process Structure Taxonomies

According to Oweis (2013), the taxonomies of CSs vary depending on whether the focus is on the produced verbal interaction (Tarone, 1980, 1983; Faerch & Kasper, 1983; Yule & Tarone, 1997) or on the cognitive process of selecting CSs (Bialystok & Fröhlich, 1980; Kellerman & Bialystok, 1997; Poulisse, 1997). In fact, in the latter half

of the 1980s, researchers at the Nijmegen University (Netherlands) criticized the existing typologies of CSs as being product-oriented, focusing on the surface structures of underlying psychological processes and thus resulting in a proliferation of different strategies of ambiguous validity (Kellerman, 1991; Poulisse, 1987; Cook, 1993).

1.1.4.4.4. Conceptual Analysis vs. Linguistic Analysis Taxonomies

The problems with existing taxonomies have prompted Bongaerts and Poulisse (1989) to propose a new, parsimonious, two-strategy taxonomy. What they claim essentially is that a language user who wants to communicate a referent whose name is not available to him or her, adopts one of two main strategies in order to reach his or her communicative goal. They have termed these two main strategies 'conceptual' and 'linguistic'.

The conceptual strategy entails analysis and manipulation of the intended concept. Within the conceptual strategy two subtypes can be distinguished: holistic and analytic. When the language user adopts a holistic strategy he or she names a referent which is similar to or reminiscent of the target referent; for example, chair for stool. In traditional taxonomies such behaviour is captured by terms like 'approximation', 'semantic contiguity', and 'exemplification' (ibid). The analytic strategy entails the selection and subsequent listing of such attributes of the intended referent as are expected to lead to correct identification on the part of the listener. An example would be 'This you use foe a baby so that it can't make its clothes dirty', for 'bib'. Often the holistic and analytic approaches are combined, as in 'A bird which is small and has a red breast', for Robin (ibid).

The second major option available to a speaker is to adopt a linguistic strategy, that is to exploit his or her knowledge of the rule systems of the native language, the target language, or any other language he or she happens to know, and his or her insights into the correpondences between these rule systems (Bongaerts & Poulisse,1989). Two subtypes of the linguistic strategy can be distinguished. One is the use of L2 rules of morphological derivation to create what the learner assumes to be comprehensible L2 lexis. This subtype they have termed 'morphological creativity'. It is exemplified in

utterances as appliances (for letters of application), representor (for representative). The other subtype, which operates on the basis of similarities between languages, they have termed the 'strategy of transfer'. The latter includes what in the literature has been termed 'literal translation', 'foreignizing', and 'borrowing'.

1.1.4.5. Evaluation and Critics of Previous Taxonomies

1.1.4.5.1. Discussion of the Previous Taxonomies

Language problems and difficulties are a salient part of communication in a L2 and problem management occurs at several levels. No wonder 'CSs', seen as the language devices used to handle communication problems, have been the target of much research during the past two decades. It is also understandable that the approaches to understanding CSs have varied according the researchers' general orientations towards language analysis (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997). And as different types of definitions evolved, they led to many different taxonomies of CSs (Xamani, 2013). The conceptual differences among CS researchers surface most explicitly when they specify the actual language devices they consider to be CSs. Accordingly, the list of strategies and their taxonomies in different studies on CSs vary significantly. Dörnyei & Scott (1997) offered a comprehensive review of the various definitions and taxonomies.

Dörnyei & Scott (1997), in their review, pulled together all the main language devices mentioned in the literature under the label 'communication strategy', and present nine different taxonomies of CSs by Tarone (1977), Faerch & Kasper (1983b), Bialystok (1983), Bialystok (1990), Paribakht (1985), the Nijmegen Group (based on Poulisse, 1987; Kellerman, 1991), Poulisse (1993), and finally Dörnyei & Scott (1995a, b). Most of the existing taxonomies distinguish several types of CSs (Faerch & Kasper, 1983; Dörnyei & 2002), and some of them propose multiple levels of subcategorization (Faerch & Kasper, 1983; Paribakht, 1986). The taxonomies of CSs have been based on criteria such as whether language users consult sources of information in their first language (L1) or in their L2, or whether they choose or reduce the communication goal. Another classification distinguishing between risk-

taking strategies and risk-avoidance strategies is based on the framework of Corder (Corder, 1983).

The first thing that becomes obvious when comparing the classifications is that they concern various ranges of language devices in different degrees of elaborateness. On one end of the narrow-broad continuum are the typologies of the Nijmegen Group and Poulisse (1993), who explicitly restricted the scope of language phenomena examined the lexical-compensatory strategies. On the other end of the continuum is Dörnyei and Scott's (1995a, b) system, which concerns L2 problem-management in general.

Although the terminologies used and their levels of specificity vary a great deal, the corresponding parts of 6 of the 9 taxonomies (Bialystok, 1983; Dörnyei & Scott, 1995a, b; Faerch & Kasper, 1983b; Paribakht, 1985; Tarone, 1977; and Willems, 1987) show many similarities. Biakystok (1990) expressed this basic convergence around similar concepts when she remarked that, the variety of taxonomies proposed in the literature differ primarily in terminology and overall categorizing principle rather than in the substance of the specific strategies. If we ignore, then, differences in the structure of the taxonomies by abolishing the various overall categories, then a core group of specific strategies that appear consistently across the taxonomies clearly emerges (p. 61).

Three of the nine (9) taxonomies (Faerch & Kasper, 1983b; Tarone, 1977; Willems, 1987) recognize a basic duality in strategy use; strategies are used either: a/ to tailor one's message to one's resources by altering, reducing, or completely abandoning the original content; or b/ to try and convey the intended message in spite of the linguistic deficiencies by extending or manipulating the available language system.

Váradi (1973) and Faerch & Kasper (1983b) termed strategies belonging to the option 'reduction strategies' and Tarone (1977) called them 'avoidance strategies'; Corder (1981) who pointed out that they could also be labelled 'risk-avoidance strategies', preferred 'message adjustment strategies'. Faerch & Kasper (1983b) termed strategies belonging to the second option 'achievement strategies' ; Corder (1981) called them 'resource expansion strategies' and considered themm 'risk-taking strategies' because by using them the speaker ventures beyond 'playing it safe' and

takes a certain risk of not being able to convey the message. Dörnyei & Scott (1995a, b) also implictly recognize the achievement – reduction duality, whereas the rest of the taxonomies cover only achievement strategies (ibid, 1997).

Also, the organizing principles in five (5) taxonomies (Bialystok, 1983; Faerch & Kasper, 1983b; Paribakht, 1985; Tarone, 1977; and Willems, 1989) primarily rest on certain properties of the language devices concerned (e.g., the role of the L1 or the type of knowledge utilized in CS realization). Bialystok and the Nijmegen Group considered the kind of descriptive categories found in these taxonomies psychologically unfounded and often over-delailed, claiming that they 'artificially carve up what are in fact unitary operations' (cit in. Dörnyei & Scott, 1997, p. 198).

1.1.4.5.2. Problems with the Classification of CSs

CS research has suffered from problems related to the classification of CSs (Rababak, 2002). According to Bialystok, "each utterance betrays the presence of several strategies. This combination of approaches used by speakers in a single utterance leads to problems of classification" (1990, p. 69). Duff (1997) claimed that overlap axists across the CSs, "the same utterances may manifest or have embedded within them more than one strategy". For example, in one utterance, repetition strategy, circumlocution and mumbling can be identified (Rababah, 2001).

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

the expressions refer to the characteristics of the item, they are all caraterized as 'circumlocution'.

Traditional taxonomies (e.g., Tarone, 1977 ; Faerch & Kasper, 1983a) would categorize 'something to kill flies with' for 'a fly-swat' as a description of function, 'an animal in the form of a star' for 'a starfish' as a description of shape, and 'the small orange ones' to distinguish large fish from small ones, as a description of size followed by colour. Bongaerts and Poulisse (1989) claimed that the problem with such a classification is that "these distinctions merely reflect differences in refrents and differences in the contexts in which the referents are presented. Consequently, taxonomies that contain such distinctions fail to capture an important generalization with respect to refrential behaviour: the strategy learners adopt is to mention these attributes of a referent which uniquely identify it in a given context" (p. 254).

Kellerman (1991), in criticising the taxonomies proposed so far, pointed out that referring to 'an art gallery' as 'a picture place' or as 'a place where you look at pictures' obviously reflects the same underlying cognitive process. Thus to code them as 'word coinage' and 'circumlocution', according to Tarone's taxonomy, is misleading. Bialystok (1990) summarised the main problems that CS research suffers from the criteria for assigning an utterance to a specific strategy are sometimes vague, sometimes arbitrary, and sometimes irrelevant. If concepts such as 'sharing semantic features' or 'single words' are interpreted differently, the same utterance would be assigned to a different category. These vagaries of classification directly challenge the reliability of the taxonomies and limit their potential for forming the basis for explanation of communication strategies (p. 75).

1.1.4.6. Taxonomy Adopted in the Current Research

1.1.4.6.1. Dörnyei & Kormos' (1998) Typology and Speech Production Models

In the introduction of a recent paper on managing problems in speaking, Clark (1994) wrote that "when the participants of a conversation have problems, they manage most of them quickly, skillfully, and without apparent effort" (p. 244). Although this statement is true when the conversation is conducted in the participants' L1, even a brief analysis of any spontaneous piece of L2 oral discourse will reveal that

L2 speakers tend to spend a great deal of time and effort negotiating meaning and struggling to cope with the various problems they encounter during the course of communication (Gass & Varonis, 1991). Understanding L2 problem management, therefore, is a principal issue in L2 research with important potential implications for L2 theory. The question has considerable practical relevance as well: In spite of the prominence of problem-solving behaviour in learners' speech, current language-teaching course books and approaches do not tend to provide learners with strategies on how to cope with difficulties, although this might be, in principle, possible (Cohen, Weaver & Li, 1996; Dörnyei, 1995).

The language devices applied to overcome communication problems have been the target of extensive research in various subfields of applied linguistics, but there have been very few attempts to provide a comprehensive treatment of the mechanisms L2 speakers employ when encountering communication difficulties. Indeed, Yule & Tarone (1991) pointed out in their discussion of the relationship between the two central domains of problem management (i.e., meaning negotiation and communication strategies) that the research literatures of the two areas were almost entirely independent. Besides these fields, there are two further research areas relevant to communication problem management but not as yet integrated sufficiently: the study of the temporal organization of L2 communication and repair mechanisms in discourse analysis (Griffiths, 1991; Schmidt, 1992; Kasper, 1985; Schegloff, Jefferson & Sacks, 1977; Tarone, 1980; Gass & Varonis, 1985).

In their paper 'Problem-Solving Mechanisms in L2 Communication', Dörnyei & Kormos (1998) brought several lines of research and provide a comprehensive overview of problem management in L2 communication. Following Dörnyei & Scott (1997), Dörnyei & Kormos (1998) distinguished four main problem sources in L2 communication: (a) L2 resource deficits, (b) processing time pressure, (c) perceived deficiencies in one's own language output, and (d) perceived deficiencies in the interlocutor's performance. In order to provide a systematic analysis of the wide range of problem-solving mechanisms associated with these preblem areas, they adopt a psycholinguistic perspective based on the L2 adaptation of Levelt's (1989, 1993,

1995) model of speech production. This approach offers a theoretical framework in which problem-solving devices can be connected to the various pre- and post-articulatory phases of speech processing, thereby helping to achieve a coherent process-oriented description.

1.1.4.6.2. Outline of a Framework for Problem-Solving Mechanisms in L2 Use

As Table 2 shows, the first problem area, resource deficit (which is a product of L2 speakers' deficient L2 competence), is associated with three problem-solving processes in the planning and encoding of the preverbal message (Dörnyei & Kormos, 1998): (a) lexical problem-solving mechanisms handle the frequent inability to retrieve the appropriate L2 lemma that correponds to the concepts specified in the preverbal plan; (b) grammatical problem-solving mechanisms deal with the insufficient knowledge of the grammatical form and the argument structure of the lemma, as well as the word-ordering rules of the L2 (Kempen & Hoenkamp, 1987; Levelt, 1989); and (c) phonological and articulatory problem-solving mechanisms help overcome difficulties in the phonological encoding and articulatory phases caused by the lack of phonological knowledge of a word or connected speech.

The second main problem area, processing time pressure, is related to the fact that L2 speech processing is (at least partially) serial and, therefore, requires more attentional resources and processing time than speech production in L1 (Schmidt, 1992). In order to gain time and devote additional attention to processing, L2 speakers can employ various stalling mechanisms both when planning the message and encoding the preverbal plan (Dörnyei & Kormos, 1998).

After the message has been encoded, the process of monitoring might reveal deficiencies in one's own language output, which will result in self-initiated, self-correction or self-repair. It is argued that self-repairs can be triggered by three different phenomena: a lapse in the encoding process, the generation of an inappropriate or inadequate message, and incomplete knowledge of the L2 system. As an alternative to immediate self-repair, the speaker may first check with the interlocutor whether a repair is indeed necessary by asking check questions (ibid). Finally, because the speech comprehension system (i.e., parser) also constitutes an integral part of Levelt's

comprehensive processing model, other-performance-related problems, involving meaning-negotiation mechanisms, comprese the fourth main level of Dörnyei and Kormos' s (1998) framework.

Table 2: Outline of a Framework for Problem-Solving Mechanisms in L2 Use

Problem type	**Relevant phase of speech production**	**Speech-production mechanisms**
Resourse deficit	Planning and encoding the preverbal message	Lexical problem-solving mechanisms Grammatical problem-solving mechanisms Phonological problem-solving mechanisms
Processing time pressure	Planning and encoding the preverbal message	Stalling mechanisms
Perceived deficiency in one's own language output	Monitoring the phonetic plan and the articumated speech	Self-corrections Check questions
Perceived deficiency in the interlocutor's performance	Post-articulatory monitoring	Meaning-negotiation mechanisms

We started the section presenting a critical fact in CS research which is the difficulty in agreeing upon one taxonomy as was the case with CS conceptualization. Then, we discussed how the different CS taxonomies contain the same substance. After, we presented the criteria of classification. Further, we displayed the dissimilar types of typologies. Evaluation and problems inherent in the previous frameworks were discussed. And in the last place, we explained the taxonomy adopted in the present study.

Section Five: Variables Influencing the Selection of CSs

'Who is the good learner?' is the first aspect to be answered in this section. Right after, IDs' instruction is discussed. Then, the relationship between CSs and ID sis

explained and illustrated. The main IDs referred to in this section are attitude, LLs' proficiency level, task-related factors and culture, contecxt, personality, gender and learning styles.

1.1.5.1.Who is a 'good language learner'?

After our own experience with language learning or that of our siblings, relatives or friends or other people around us, we come to conclude that the inherent individual differences are accounted for language learning success or breakdown (Lightbown & Spada, 2006). In the educational setting, extrovert LLs are stereotyped as successful language LLs as they are talkative, outgoing and search for opportunities to practise langauge skills. In addition to extroversion, as being a personality trait, intelligence, aptitude, motivation and age are believed to be other characteristics that are responsible for successful language learning and foresee its continuity (ibid).

Moreover, a quick glance at any SL/ EF classroom can capture the countless differences among students. And even in the considered ideal conditions, the language LLs' learning pace is still contrasting: some progress rapidly (high achievers) but others continue to struggle in achieving a slow progress (low achievers) (Lightbown & Spada, 2006; Reid, 1995). Motivation, intellectual abilities, personality and learning preferences are some of the characteristics that have been thought to contribute to successful language learning by Naiman et al., (1995). Furthermore, LLs' attitudes to language remains an established fact in applied linguistic research because it determines to a large extent the degree of success in acquiring a second of a FL (Baker, 2001; Gardner, 2001; Gass & Selinker, 2001; Rastegar & Gohari, 2016).

1.1.5.2. IDs' Instruction

It has been scrutinized that the impact that instruction has on the cognitive and social processes as well as language learning is mediated by individual learner factors (Ellis, 2012). Different scholars explore the relationship between individual learner factors and L2 learning (ibid). Indeed, it has been found that learning outcomes are influenced by a set of individual learner factors. The latter have been traditionally separated into three factors: cognitive, affective and motivational. However, from a neuropsychological perspective, Dörnyei (2009) found it difficult to make such a

distinction. In fact, Ellis (2012) distinghished Six crucial processes that have been thought to be included in language learning and instruction is viewed as a tool or way to activate such processes (pp. 308-310):

1.noticing: the learner consciously attends to a linguistic form in the input.

2.Rehearsing: the learner rehearses the form in working memory.

3.Semantic processing: the learner constructs a form-function mapping by assigning meaning to a linguistic form.

4.Comparing: the learner compares the form noticed in the input with her own mental grammar, registering to what extent there is a 'gap' between the input and her grammar.

5.Rule-formation: the learner constructs an explicit rule to account for the new information derived from the above processes.

6.Integrating: the learner integrates a representation of the new linguistic feature into implicit memory and, if necessary, restructures the existing mental grammar.

In addition, LLs' 'receptivity' to instruction is considered as a key concept to understand that mediating role played by individual differences to ensure the effectiveness of language instruction (Ellis, 2012). 'Openess to instruction' rather than defensiveness is another equivalent terminology to 'receptivity' given by Allwright & Bailey (1991). The way (s) LLs perceive the teacher as a person, their different preferences to the participatory-structures, the teaching method and instructional materials, and communication apprehension are some examples of LLs' openess to language instruction (Allwright & Bailey, 1991). Also, 'receptivity' urges the need to consider LLs' affective factors and their eminent impact on instruction. Allwright & Bailey (1991) gave much importance to LLs' anxiety and competitiveness. In a nutshell, as Harmer (2001) stated, "the moment we realise that a class in composed of individuals (rather than being some kind of unified whole), we have to start thinking about how to respond to these students individually so that while we may frequently teach the group as a whole, we will also, in different ways, pay attention to the different identities we are faced with" (p. 85).

1.1.5.2.1. Attitude and CSs Use

Stern (1983) made a clear distinction between : (A) Attitudes towards the community and people who speak the L2 (group specific attitudes); (B) Attitudes towards learning the language concerned, and (C) Attitudes towards languages and language learning in general. And concerning the link between attitudes and L2 performance, Gardner & Lambert (1972) explained that the learner's "motivation to learn is thought to be determined by his attitudes towards the other group in particular and by his orientation towards the learning task itself" (p. 3). As a result, researchers believed that affective language teaching strategies can encourage students to hold more positive attitudes towards the learning process in general and learning EFL in particular. Most of the previous studies (Ellis, 1985; Gardner, 1985; Gardner & Lambert, 1972) conducted yet show that the LLs with both positive and negative attitudes towards learning English might use CSs in different ways. Surely, the degree of success in acquiring a second or a foreign language is to a large extent determined by LLs' individual differences in terms of their attitudes (Rastegar & Gohari, 2016). Based on the differences in LLs' attitudes towards learning English as a FL and the various uses of CSs, their oral language output may differ among them. This very ide ais highly emphsized by Ellis's (1985) work which emphasized the prominence of the class environment as a crucial situation in which the positive attitude towards the use of the most efficient speaking strategies can be fostered.

1.1.5.2.2. Learners' Proficiency Level and CSs

It has also been suggested that speakers' choice of CS and their levels of target language proficiency may be related (Tarone, 1977; Corder, 1978), although little empirical research has been done on this issue (Prebianca & Fortkamp, 2007; Dönyei & Scott, 1997). Bachman and Palmer (1981) claimed that LLs have different strategic abilities. Bialystok and Fröhlich (1980) reported some interactions between LLs' levels of TL knowledge and their strategy use in terms of, for example, their sensitivity to the variety of CS.

Examination of speakers' CS use within the framework of language proficiency may help in understanding the contributions of different aspects of knowledge to the

speakers' communicative competence (Paribakht, 1985). Thus, Nakatani et al., (2012) and Cohen (1998) suggested establishing CS training (meta-cognitive training) to solve TL vocabulary and communicative problems. Once EFL LLs get used to utilizing meta-cognitive strategies, they can freely choose some CSs which they think the most appropriate according to specific learning contexts (Nakatani et al., 2012). And to maximize the benefits of strategy development and use, it is generally desirable to match the cognitive/ linguistic demands of strategy use with LLs' proficiency level. It may even be necessary to provide L2 speakers with linguistic scaffolding and/ or appropriate and accurate linguistic models so that they know how to use oral strategies to good effect (Lam, 2006; Littlewood & Liu, 1996).

1.1.5.2.3. CSs and Task-Related Factors

According to Poulisse & Schills (1989), task-related factors as purpose, formality, cognitive demands, the context, and the interlocutor's status all affect different LLs differently, and have particular effects on CS use. And with a growing interest in the role of task on L2 development, SLA researchers have spent a considerable amount of time defining a 'task' (Numata, 2009). Skehan (1998, p. 268) suggested four criteria: (1) meaning is primary; (2) there is a goal which needs to be worked towards; (3) the activity is outcome-evaluated; and (4) there is a real world relationship. In language teaching, current interest into tasks comes from the conviction that they are affective pedagogical tools to develop LLs' CC (Ghout, 2012). 'A task' is generally defined as a "piece of work which involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is principally focused on meaning rather than form" (Nunan, 1989, cited in Ghout, 2012, p. 772). Widdowson (1998) distinguished a task from an exercise and defines a task as "an exercise is premised on the need to develop linguistic skills as a prerequisite for the learning of communicative abilities, while a task is based on the assumption that linguistic abilities are developed through communicative activity" (p. 328). In other words, tasks are viewed as a goal-oriented opportunity where LLs can work to resolve their communicative problems as they negotiate meaning and as they exchange information. That is, tasks are regarded as opportunities to experience language as it is used outside the CR (Ghout, 2012). Tarone & Yule (1989) argued that communicative tasks give

the language LLs the possibility to negotiate meaning successfully. And based on a belief in the crucial role of tasks, SLA researchers have pursued empirical support for the proposal that LLs' strategy is facilitative of L2 acquisition by examining LLs' interaction observed through tasks (Numata, 2009).

Moreover, Poulisse & Schills (1989) claimed that task-related factors influence the choice of CSs. They asserted that LLs decide how to convey information by assessing demands, contexts, and interlocutors. In their study, three groups of Dutch LLs of English were given three tasks (picture description, story retelling, and an interview with a native speaker). They find that the type of CS used was influenced by the type of task. They also found that other task-related factors, such as the presence or absence of an interlocutor significantly affected the choice of CSs. Corrales & Call (1989) study CS use by two Spanish-speaking groups (intermediate and advanced LLs of English). To elicit data, LLs were given two tasks: answering structured questions and a simulated communication situation. The data was elicited twice within an interval of five weeks (corresponding to pre- and post-periods). It was found that both of LLs used considerably more CSs (transfer strategies) in the unstructured task and there was a significant relation between proficient level and choice of CSs. In addition, the results showed that the advanced group employed a greater mean percentage of task-influenced strategies than the intermediate group in the pre-period process, whereas the intermediate group employed a greater mean percentage of there strategies in the post-period, i.e., there was a significant correlation between time and proficiency level with respect to the use of task-influenced strategies. Describing this difference, Corrales & Call (1989, p. 227) explained that "students of a language may go through a period of maximum exploitation of task-influenced strategies, which peaks and then drops off as they become more proficient in the language".

To obtain as detailed a description as possible of the use that Spanish and Galician-speaking LLs of English as a FL make of CS and to find out to what extent this use could be explained in relation to CS factors as proficiency level, native language and task demands, Fernández Dobao (2001) held a two-phase experiment with a total of 15 students of English. And in order to elicit a representative sample of oral production in English that could be recorded, transcribed and analysed in the search for CS, these

subjects were asked to accomplish three different communicative tasks: a picture story narration, a narration, a photograph description and a ten-minute conversation. The results obtained evidence that the subjects' use of CS is influenced, in terms of frequency and choice, by their proficiency level in the second language. It seems that once a certain proficiency level is reached, this factor alone cannot further account for differences in CS use across subjects. The use of CS needs to be related to other-related features of the specific task being performed, particularly to the complexity of the target discourse. In concluding terms, the researcher found that task-related factors, as the type of discourse, its cognitive complexity, and the presence of an interlocutor had a significant effect on the use of CSs. For example, achievement strategies were used more often in conversation and photograph description than in the picture story task.

Another investigation of task influence was made by Rababah & Bulut (2007), using second year LLs studying Arabic as a second language. The CSs investigated were reduction (message abandonment), achievement strategies (approximation, paraphrase, retrieval, coinage, restructuring, repetition); and interactive strategies (clarification request and asking for repetition). 24 male and female LLs of 8 different countries were involved. It was found that LLs used more CSs (416 cases) in the interview task than in role-play task (63 cases). Two reasons for this were suggested. The first was the fact that the interview task was more challenging, and required a wider and more difficult range of vocabulary items than the role-play task. The second reason might be attributed to the fact that the interview demanded a more specific response that may have been beyond the student's capacity to express using their own language, even with the use of CSs. Bialystok (1983) studied LLs' CS use by examining who uses which strategies, when LLs use strategies, and what factors affect their strategy use. A picture reconstruction task required three criteria: (1) the task had to simulate real communicative exchange with NSs; (2) a certain level of difficulty level had to be maintained; and (3) researchers had to control their selection of target items. The subject in Bialystok (1983), a learner of French, was asked to describe a picture to a native speaker of French, and the native speaker then reconstructed the story on a

board. Her study identified LLs' CS use and contributed to an understanding of CS use as a function of LLs' proficiency levels.

Also, two types of tasks, a picture description and a translation task, were selected for Váradi's (1983) study. In his picture description task, the LLs first described a series of pictures to the researcher, then wrote down their descriptions by working alone, and they described the pictures to the researcher once again. The translation task required them to translate a text from Hungarian English or from English to Hungarian. In his study, translated texts in Hungarian and English were analyzed by observing what types of CSs were employed by the LLs. The length of sentences, the use of vocabulary, and the use of grammar were the targets of investigation. The two tasks were conducted in an experimental context, and thus no communicative interaction was involved. However, the choices of two tasks allowed him to obtain clear written data. In other words, comparison of written data in English and Hungarian enabled the researcher to investigate complexities in vocabulary and grammar items in detail. However, the conduct of picture description description seems to involve a minimum level of oral production, therefore, the two tasks in Váradi (1983) may be inadequate to measure the LLs' actual oral production.

While Bialystok (1985) and Váradi (1983) examined LLs' CS use in an experimental context, Haastrup & Phillipson (1983) observed CS use between a NS and a NNS in an interactional and communicative context. Their study aimed to investigate how Danish LLs deal with communication disruptions in interactional situations, "occurring when mutual comprehension is impaired by one of the speakers misunderstanding the other or when the learner is manifestly in trouble in putting across what he/ she wants to say" (p. 143). The elicitation method used was 'conversations'. In the conversation task, topics were given to the subjects although the format of the conversation was not specified or controlled. Based on the conversational data, they investigated the LLs' use of achievement strategies at the occurrence of communication disruptions and examined what types of CS scan be effectively used to achieve the highest mutual comprehensibility in conversations between a NS and a NNS. In their study, it was assumed that data from 'conversations' would be difficult to analyze. As a solution to this methodological difficulty, a small size of eight NSs was used, and this resulted in

absence of generalizability of their research findings. Thus, their study did not arrive at any firm conclusions. While the significance of meaningflness in communication was emphasized in Haastrup & Phillipson's (1983) study, in the process-oriented approach, LLs' CS use has been mostly elicited in controlled experimental contexts (Chen, 1990; Littelemore, 2001; Poulisse & Schills, 1989). Ogiwara (1996) observed LLs of Japanese over a year-long period. The subjects took interview tests four times as a part of the curriculum. The topics of the interviews included self-introduction, family, and hobbies in the first interview; future plans, cultural differences, cooking and invitations in the second interview, recent Japanese news, summer vacation and a scene in the train for the third interview; and the Japanese New Year, recently viewed TV shows or movies, and interviewing people for the final interview. Three role-plays were included in this procedure. In Fujinaga (1996), the interview was conducted by having LLs describe, compare, explain, generalize and state their opinions.

In sum, the CS studies have focused primarily on the identification and classifiaction of CSs. In doing so, researchers have employed a variety of tasks as a means to elicit CSs, however, most of the tasks were experimental and highly controlled. Such highly controlled methods enabled researchers to construct theoretical frameworks in the field of CSs, but the naturalness, communicativeness, and meaningfulness of conversations were less likely to receive researchers' attention (Hmaid, 2014; Ghout, 2012; Jidong, 2011; Numata, 2009).

1.1.5.2.4. Culture and CSs Use

While language proficiency lies in the 'heart of language studies' (Standards for Foreign Langauge Learning, 2006, p. 3), it is no longer the only aim of language teaching and learning. The Standards (2006) defined language goals in terms of the 5 C's (Communication, Cultures, Connections, Comparisons, and Communities) designed to guide LLs toward becoming viable contributors and participants in a linguistically and culturally diverse society. In an EFL class, students are usually monolingual and they learn English while living in their own country (Krieger, 2005). They have little access to the target culture and therefore a limited ability to become

culturally competent (Chlopek, 2008). In order to successfully function in a culturally diverse environment, our LLs need to develop intercultural CC (Alptekin, 2002).

In fact, cultural background affects strategy choice. Cultures that encourage concrete-sequential learning styles (such as those of Korea or some Arabic-speaking countries) often produce widespread use of rote memorization, while more flexible strategies (though not always higher order thinking strategies) and a more facilitative view of teachers are often found among North Americans. Extroverted learning styles, such as those of many Hispanics and Arabic speakers, are related to the use of social strategies for learning, and many introverted Asian students display strategies for working alone (Oxford, 1996). For Gumperz (1982), 'discourse strategies' are cross-culturally variable and a potential source of intercultural miscommunication, appropriate CS use may be culturally constrained. Faucette (2001) and Dörnyei (1995) argued that communication strategy training could be used to highlight cross-cultural differences in terms of appropriateness and CS use. For example, in Rost and Ross's (1991) study of listening strategy instruction, cultural preferences were noted, such as their claim that "questions are often viewed negatively in Japanese educational settings as admissions of ignorance or inattention" (p. 255).

In addition to the threat to the students' own face, questions in class could also be seen as disrespectful to 'sensei' and hence a threat to a higher-status person's face (Brown and Levinson, 1987; Goffman, 1967). Tarone (1980) argued that although strategic competence must exist in all languages and cultures, "the particular types of strategy preferred for the use in such situations may be culture-specific or language-specific" (p. 422). Cultural differences in the use of silence, which might indicate message abandonment, is one such CS-related speech component that comes to mind (Gilmore, 1985; Hall, 1959; Tannen & Saville-Troike, 1985). Thus, effective training in culturally appropriate CS use would be beneficial to students from all languages and cultures (Faucette, 2001).

1.1.5.2.5. Context and CSs Use

The context of learning and acquiring is the context in which LLs receive language determines the specific features of their IL, and the types of CSs they will use (Benali,

2013). Therefore, research in SL/ FL teaching has been too much interested in designing syllabi that develop LLs' communicative ability by relating the LLs' needs to the teaching goals through providing contextualized material that facilitates the prectice of the TL in natural-like situations (ibid). The context or the situation in which the learner finds himself obliged to use his CSs also determines the type of CSs selected. This context includes the interlocutors, the setting (time and space), and and the concept itself (the nature of the idea to be conveyed).

The scope of context is not easy to define, and that we must consider the social and psychological would into which the learner operates at any given time to be able to understand the message (Benali, 2013, 2015). The context includes language user's beliefs and assumptions about temporal, spatial or social setting, prior, ongoing and future actions (verbal and non-verbal), the state of knowledge and attentiveness of those participating in the social interaction at hand. Therefore, CSs are usually related to both the speaker (his linguistic background, his language proficiency, and his knowledge about the topic) and the task demands (concept to be conveyed, the setting, the type of relationship between speaker and hearer). The speaker's effectiveness depends on the extent to which they suit the content as a whole (ibid).

1.1.5.2.6. Personality and CSs Use

The personality of the LLs plays an important role in communication (Tarone, 1977). Extroverted LLs seem to be more successful in the conversations (Koçoğlu, 1997), because they may to more sociable and willing to communicate than introverted ones, and they will demonstrate greater interactiveness and use more interactive strategies in communication (Zhang, 2008). However, the employment of some CSs might not be influenced by the LLs' introversion or introversion orientations (Zhang, 2008), and introversion is not necessarily a weakness in the whole process of L2 learning and using. "Research on CSs has proved that the selection of CSs varies from one learner to another depending on…personality. There is some evidence that there is a personality factor invoked (in the manipulation of communication strategies). Different learners will typically resort to their favourite strategies, some are determined risk takers, others value social factors of interaction above the

communication of ideas just how hard one tries will vary with personality" (Corder, 1983, p. 19).

1.1.5.2.7. Gender and CSs Use

There is a common belief particularly in Western cultures that females are better second language LLs than males. Nevertheless, this belief is only based on assumptions that reflect cultural and psychological assumptions (Saville-Troike, 2006). And for Jideno (2011), gender is one of the important variables involved in the CS research and some studies have indicated that CSs used by LLs different genders vary in both type and frequency. The reason may lie in that females hold more positive attitudes and stronger motivations towards language learning and culture, and tend to achieve higher marks (Catalan, 2003; Wang Limei, 2008). This may also reflect their employment expectations. The female LLs may think that a FL is of great vocational value for them (Ellis, 1994). Gender is not only a physical category but also a social category (Li, 2009). A number of researchers continue to assume female superiority in language development (Ehrman & Oxford, 1989; Oxford, 1993; Ellis, 1994). The results of the study by Ehrman & Oxford (1989) indicate that females use cognitive, compensation strategies and metacognitive strategies frequently than males (Macaro, 2006). Li (2010) found that female university students in Taiwan apply CS more often than male students. However, some findings reveal that males employ more learning strategies than females (Wharton, 2010).

In contrast, the results of Lai's study (2010) show that Chinese male and female LLs use strategies in the same way. Lai (2010) claimed this may be because both male and female Chinese LLs learn English in the same language-context. Koçoğlu (1997) reported an investigation of CSs by Turkish ESL LLs focusing on the gender influence on use of CSs when communication problems resulted from limited English proficiency. Ten Turkish ESL LLs and ten native English speakers were paired and had conversations which were recorded and transcribed: the results indicated that the gender of the NS interlocutor had an important impact on use of CSs. All Turkish ESL LLs employed more CSs with female rather than the male NSs because the female NSs of English were more cooperative and encouraging than the male ones. Wang's (2008)

study expored the gender differences in the use of CSs by Chinese EFL LLs. The participants of this study were 140 male LLs and 69 female LLs. Research instruments included CR observation, questionnaire, interview and the LLs' videotaped talks. Besides, strategy-based instruction (SBI) was conducted for a week. The results showed that female and male LLs were significantly different in the use of borrowing strategies (like literal translation from Chinese and language switching). Female LLs used this kind of CSs more frequently both before and after the SBI.

1.1.5.2.8. Learning Styles and CSs Use

The strategies that are favoured by ectenic LLs (prefer to learn by exerting conscious control over the learning process, Ellis, 2008) appear to be more communicatively effective than that are favoured by holistic (or synoptic LLs, i.e., prefer an unconscious approach, Ellis, 2008). Within each of these categories, some strategies are more effective than others. As for the strategies that are favoured by ectenic LLs, componential analysis appears to be the most effective, closely followed by descriptions of what the target item is for, what it does, and where it can be found. As for the strategies that are favoured by synoptic LLs, conventional analogical/ metaphoric comparison and literal comparison are particularly communicatively effective (Littremore, 2003). However, the strategies favoured by ectenic LLs were found to more communicatively effective than those favourite by synoptic LLs may not be universal. Oxford and Anderson (1995) have shown that people from other cultures, such as Hispanics, Native Americans and Afro-Americans are less likely to value these approaches, and are more likely to engage in contextually-dependent communication involving intuition, approximation, and body. When this is the case, the use of CSs that are more characteristics of synoptic LLs may be more appropriate. In different words, learning style mediates the extent to which CSs benefit or impede acquisition for different LLs (Ellis, 2008).

'Who is the good learner?' was the first aspect to be answered in this section. Right after, IDs' instruction was discussed. Then, the relationship between CSs and IDs was explained and illustrated. The main IDs referred to in this section were attitude, LLs' proficiency level, task-related factors and culture, contecxt, personality, gender and learning styles.

Conclusion:

The purpose of this chapter was to review the related literature that dealt with CSs. It was divided into five sections. The first was a historical overview and conceptualization about CSs. The second dealt with the approaches to defining CSs. And the third section was about the defining criteria of CSs. Moreover, CSs taxonomies were discussed in the fourth section. And the variables influencing the selection of CSs were the main focus of the fifth section.

The Impact of Implementing the Direct Approach in Teaching Conversational Strategies on the Development of EFL Learners' Intercultural Communicative Competence

Case Study of First Year and Third Year Students at Sétif 2 University

Chapter Two:

Importance of Raising Learners' Awareness about Strategy Usefulness

2021-2022

Chapter Two:

Importance of Raising Learners' Awareness about Strategy Usefulness

Introduction:

The primary aim of this chapter is to highlight the significance of raising LLs' awareness about strategy usefulness. It contains five sections. The first is for raising LLs' awareness, i.e., the neuropsychological aspect of language learning is stressed. The second section is devoted for explaining the concept of 'strategy training'. And the outcomes of ST are tackled in the third section. Moreover, the fourth section deals with the teachability of CSs. Further, the last section is dedicated for researching the types of data for studying CSs in SLA field.

Section One: Raising Learners' Awareness: Neuropsychological Aspect of Language Learning

In this section, the difference between implicit and explicit knowledge is made. Then, the key features of EK are provided. After, the theories of consciousness are discussed. And the last point to be presented in this section is the correlation between consciousness and language learning development.

1.2.1.1. Implicit vs. Explicit L2 Knowledge

A working definition of explicit knowledge is given by Ellis (2004, p. 229), "the conscious awareness of what a language or language in general consists of and/ or of the roles that it plays in human life". To put it more simply, explicit knowledge is knowledge about language and about the uses to which language can be put (ibid). The problem is, as Birdsong (1989) pointed out, that explicit knowledge is manifest in a "complex and contingent set of behaviours that defy simplistic assumptions and explanations" (p. 49). Moreover, explicit knowledge is conscious, declarative, anomalous, and inconsists (i.e., it takes the form of 'fuzzy' rules inconsistently applied) and generally only accessible through controlled processing in planned language use (Ellis, 2008). It is verbalizable, in which case it entails semi-technical or technical metalanguage. Whereas,

implicit knowledge is intuitive, procedural, systematically variable, automatic, and thus available for use in fluent, unplanned language use. It is not verbalizable. According to some theorists it is only learnable before learners reach a critical age (ibid). And explicit instruction involves particular kind of being thought about during the learning process (Dekeyser, 1995). In other words, learners are encouraged to develop metalinguistic awareness of the rule. This can be achieved deductively, as when a rule is given to the learners or inductively as when the learners are asked to work out a rule for themselves from an array of data illustrating the rule (Ellis, 2012).

1.2.1.2. Key Characteristics of Explicit Knowledge

EK is conscious in contrast to implicit knowledge, which is entirely tacit, learners know what they know; they are consciously aware of some aspect or feature of the L2 (Ellis, 2004). EK is declarative, that is, it is comprised of facts about the L2. These facts concern both rule-based knowledge and knowledge of fragments and exemplars (ibid). L2 learners' declarative rules are often imprecise and inaccurate as Clapham (2001) showed, learners may be able to recognize a specific metalingual in one sentence or one language but not in another. Moreover, the development of a learner's explicit knowledge can take place on two planes. It can grow in breadth as the learner accumulates more declarative facts about the language. It can also advance in terms of depth as the learner refines existing explicit knowledge, making it more precise and accurate and applying it more consistently across different contexts and languages (Ellis, 2004). Further, EK is generally accessible through controlled processing. This contrasts with the automatic processing that characterizes the use of implicit knowledge. One of the widely commented on uses of EK is to edit or monitor production, a process that is possible only in those types of language use that allow learners sufficient time to access the relevant declarative fact. For this reason, EK may not be readily available in spontaneous language use where there is little opportunity for careful on-line planning (ibid).

In addition, any language task that a learner finds difficult may naturally result in an attempt to exploit explicit knowledge (ibid). In terms of sociocultural theory (Lantolf, 2000), EK might be viewed a tool that learners use to achieve self-control in linguistically demanding situations. Also, EK is potentially verbalizable. Butler (2002), for example, found that the learners she studied (adult Japanese learners of English) were generally able to provide some kind of explanation for their choice of articles in a cloze task, although they had difficulty in giving specific reasons. Furthermore, EK is leanable. Implicit knowledge is also leanable, but there would appear to be relatively universal constraints on the ability of adult learners to fully learn an L2 implicitly given that only a very few learners to achieve native-speaker proficiency. In contrast, as Bialystok (1994) pointed out, "explicit knowledge can be learned at any age" (p. 566). The constraints that exist on learners' ability to learn explicit facts about a language are of a different order, probably relating to individual differences in the analytical skills needed to memorize, induce, or deduce those facts. However, with careful instruction it may be possible to teach many learners a very substantial amount of declarative information about a language, although this is also controversial (Ellis, 2004).

1.2.1.3. Theories of Consciousness

Krashen (1982, 1985) put forward a distinction between two independent processes: acquisition and learning. 'Aquisition' is a subconscious process; while 'learning' is a conscious process which results in 'knowing about' a language. Krashen (1985) stressed acquisition. He claimed that conscious knowledge cannot become unconscious linguistic knowledge. However, Schmidt (1990) suggested that the notion of consciousness is both useful and possibly necessary in second language learning. Schmidt's aim was to reveal that conscious processes are important in second language learning, but unconscious processes should not be neglected in language comprehension and production, both of which contribute to second language learning. Schmidt (1990) presented some theories of consciousness to explain noticing and its

systems, information processing theories and a global work-place theory. Noticed input becomes intake, which may be incorporated long-term into IL, and therefore involves effective processing. But a number of models in information processing theories concern with the notion of consciousness as a limited capacity memory system (McLaughlin et al., 1983).

The limitations can be described along two dimensions: the focus of attention and information-processing ability (Jin, 2011). Humans are regarded as limited capacity processors. Just as McLaughlin et al. (1983) explained, attention focus is a function of task demands, which can be focal or peripheral, while information-processing ability is a function of how the individual deals with the information based on past experience and the characteristics of the input. The concept of attention results in a distinction between two modes of information processing: automatic and controlled processing. The distinction between a controlled process and an automatic process is not based on conscious versus subconscious awareness, but instead relates to the degree to which the skills in question have been established in long-term memory (McLaughlin et al., 1983).

However, McLaughlin explained that "controlled processing is explicit and conscious, whereas automatic processing is implicit and unconscious" (1987, p. 152). Some information processing theories see consciousness as an internal programmer or executive control center. Information processing approaches generally stress the importance of awareness, not excluding mental functions (Jin, 2011). According to Schmidt (1990), theories of consciousness are similar in some sense. In these theories, consciousness has been considered as different concepts such as working memory, attention, control processing, and information exchange between different processors. Consciousness and unconsciousness have different functions in information processing, but consciousness is stated as a condition for dealing with "novel information, novice behavior, and learning" (Schmidt, 1990,p. 138). There are intermediate positions (Tomlin & Villa, 1993) which posit that acquisition is a blend of the conscious and sub-conscious.

1.2.1.4. Consciousness and Language Learning Development

Schmidt (1990) presented three issues to discuss about the role of consciousness in second language learning. The first is the subliminal learning issue – whether conscious awareness at the level of 'noticing' is necessary for language learning. He denies subliminal language learning and emphasizes the importance of noticing, which becomes intake when learners notice concsiously. The second is the incidental learning issue, that is, whether it is necessary to consciously 'pay attention' in order to learn. Schmidt argues that incidental learning is certainly possible in task-based language teaching. The last is the implicit learning issue, referring to whether learner hypotheses based on input are the result of conscious understanding or an unconscious process of abstraction.

However, Schmidt thought implicit learning is the most difficult question to resolve (Jin, 2011). Schmidt concluded that more research needs to focus on the role of consciousness in second language learning. However, McLaughlin (1987) argued that acquisition, not consciousness, is more appropriately used to study according to whether it involves controlled or automatic processing. Schmidt argues that the reason why the role of unconsciousness in language learning is overvalued is that second language learning seems to grasp an unconscious grammar and that many descriptions of consciousness and unconsciousness are not clear. Whereas, the resaon why the role of consciousness is underestimated is that little research has been done to appraise what learners notice and think during their second language learning. He suggests that more research is needed into what learners are conscious of as they learn second languages (Jin, 2011).

1.2.1.5. Incidental Learning vs. Paying Attention

'Noticing' is important and available in language learning (Schmidt, 1990). Schmidt claimed that natural orders and acquisition sequences may constrain selective attention but not eliminate its role. Formal linguistic considerations, such as expectations, frequency, perceptual salience, skill level, task demands and the others, may explain the close relationship between 'noticing' and stages of L2 development (Jin, 2011).

1.2.1.5.1. Expectations

Schmidt proposed that instruction may play an important role in priming LLS to notice features by establishing expectations about language. Skehan (1998) stated that instruction provides structured input supporting for noticing by focusing attention on and enhancing awareness of language features. Ellis (1997) argued that instruction can draw learners' attention on items that they do not expect and as a result they may not notice.

1.2.1.5.2. Frequency

Schmidt claimed that items used more frequently are more likely to be noticed. If a language feature appears more frequently in the input, because of repeating instruction, the item will be more likely to be noticed and integrated into the interlanguage system (Jin, 2011). As Skehan (1998) suggested, a form may not be noticed at times when learners' intentional resources are stretched. Therefore, the more frequent an item is repeated, the more learners notice it.

1.2.1.5.3. Skill Level

Schmidt (1990) suggested that acquisition of new features requires the routization of previously learned skills. This is concerned with learners' processing ability of noticing new forms in the input, and an individual's ability to attend to both form and meaning in L2 processing. No one has the same noticing ability. As Skehan (1998) described, some learners are better 'input processors', as they have a larger working memory capacity or they can process analytically and quickly within working memory.

1.2.1.5.4. Task Demands

According to Schmidt (1990), task demands refer to how an instructional task causes learners to notice particular features in order to carry out that task. Ellis (1997) suggested that some particular language features may be made intentionally prominent or the task may be designed to activate learners to process the language. The level of processing may determine the level of noticing. If the task demand, such as the exchange of familiar information, is slow, the level of noticing decreases, whereas if the task demand, such as the imagination decision-making, is high, the level of

noticing increases (Skehan, 1998). Schmidt suggested that incidental learning without 'paying attention' is possible, if task demands focus attention on what is to be learned. Schmidt claims that learners learn most if they notice most, and learners who pay attention most may notice most.

Schmidt argued that both intentional and incidental learning involve conscious attention to features in the input. Schmidt further claimed that intentional learning refers to attention to input, which is of importance for explicit learning and may be necessary for implicit learning. Intentional learning also involves attention to form and test, which is important in "some kinds of artificial grammar learning and probably for some features of natural language learning, but not others" (1994, p. 198-99). "Incidental learning takes place along a continuum of conscious awareness. The degree of consciousness awareness of one's learning plays an important role in the clarity of learning" (Marsick & Watkins, 1990, p. 13). Ellis (1997) praised the distinction made by Schmidt as important and helpful, which recognizes that incidental learning is different from learning without conscious attention.

Marsick & Watkins (1990) argued that incidental learning, as a by-product of some other activities, is never ontentional and seldom explicit. van Pattern argued that "it should be clear that attention is not a product as are the referents for explicit knowledge and implicit knowledge" (1994, p. 28). That is to say, attention tied to processes is a resource, not a product, which is used as a continuum between explicit knowledge and implicit konowledge. Ellis (2001) claimed that intentional learning has been proved to be more effective than incidental learning for both vocabulary and grammar. However, arguments for incidental learning are still advanced: it is impossible to learn a complete language intentionally, because there is too much to learn, intentional learning will influence learners' proficiency because it is more likely to lead to explicit than implicit knowledge (Jin, 2011).

In this section, the difference between implicit and explicit knowledge was made. Then, the key features of EK were provided. After, the theories of consciousness were discussed. And the last point presented in this section was the correlation between consciousness and language learning development.

Section Two: Strategy Training

The link between strategic awareness, explicit focusing and declarative/ procedural knowledge is established in this section. Then, we consider the importance of raising awareness of both teachers and LLs. After, the need to introduce meta-cognitive training to raise LLs' awareness of CSs is highlighted. And the types of ST are to be presented.

1.2.2.1. Strategic Awareness, Explicit Focusing and Declarative/ Procedural Knowledge

It could be argued that the OCST (Oral Communication Strategy Training) appears to have a positive impact on students' declarative knowledge 'about' strategy use. The OCST has yet to have a strong effect on the speakers' procedural knowledge of 'how to' implement strategy use (Lam, 2006). It is through repeated practice that declarative knowledge of strategy use may be automatized to become observable, procedural knowledge of strategy use. This argument is in line with Johnson's process of "proceduralising declarative knowledge" through practice (Johnhson, 1994, p. 125). Hence, while the training effect may be observable, the value of strategy training may lie in its helping students acquire declarative knowledge, which is the first step to proceduralisation on the learning continuum (Lam, 2006).

1.2.2.2. Raising Awareness of Both Teachers and Learners

In order to raise their students' awareness, the teachers should set up a mini-conference for the English staff members, probably at least once a semester, to brain-storm and discuss CSs for their awareness of how important CSs are and how CS scan enhance their students' communicative competence (Somsai et al., 2011). The teachers should recognize that different CSs may differently beneficial for students. Furthermore, they should be encouraged to introduce CSs as part of classroom lessons to their students and, in the meantime, encourage the students to use CSs for situational classroom prectice. This will provide the students opoortunities for practice in CS use (ibid). As Dörnyei (1995,P. 64) pointed out that "Providing opportunities for practice in strategy use appears to be necessary because CS scan only fulfill their function as immediate first aid devices of their use has reached an automatic stage".

For language students, a mini-seminar on CSs should be held for them in order to encourage and help them to become aware of the potentials of CSs in their oral communication in English. During the seminar, the students should be provided opportunities to use CSs, and then identify and discuss the CSs that they have used. They may be also asked to provide opinions on a certain CS classification given to them in terms of usefulness and workability. In addition, an informal talk with students about CSs should be held occasionally (Somsai et al., 2011).

1.2.2.3. Need to Introduce Meta-Cognitive Training to Raise LLs' Awareness of CSs

It is necessary to introduce explicit meta-cognitive strategy training to raise awareness of CS strategy use in order to further expand TL development. Establishing CS training with a focus on solving TL vocabulary problems could be useful for the future curriculum development. In fact, designing books with explicit strategy training in order to raise the consciousness of the LLs to CSs is a good starting point (Nakatani et al., 2012). Researchers (Tarone & Yule, 1989; Oxford, 1990; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990) supported the idea of teaching CSs to help develop EFL students' communication skills either by raising LLs' consciousness or training them. Therefore, learning CSs is undeniably useful for EFL LLs. According to Nakatani (2005), more training in strategy use and awareness raising on the use of CSs are needed among EFL LLs, and by extention of different proficiency levels.

The discrepancy between self-awareness of what the learner might potentially use and what they may actually employ in their real communication can be attributed to the lack of awareness of what the strategies are and how they should be employed. This is a call for more systematic training in communicative strategies awareness among students of different proficiency levels (Hua et al., 2012). It is suggested that L2 teachers explicitly introduce OCSs to less fluent LLs and encourage them to consciously use a greater variety of OCSs to promote their ability to cope with difficulties during listening and speaking (Mirzaei & Heidari, 2012). In this regard, Faerch & Kasper (1983, p. 56) stated that "by learning how to use communication

strategies appropriately, learners will be more able to bridge the gap between pedagogic and non-pedagogic communication situations".

Related literature has validated the beneficial effects of teaching and enhancing the awareness of OCSs (Brown, 2000; Dörnyei, 1995; Huang & van Naerssen, 1987; Maleki, 2007; Nakatani, 2005). Furthermore, L2 LLs can raise their awareness of efficient strategies by examining their performance, and thereby improving their target proficiency (Nakatani, 2005). Students need for guidance on how to make use of their limited linguistic knowledge adopting appropriate CSs. Therefore oral expression teachers should raise LLs' awareness of the communicative potential of some CSs in different communication tasks (Ghout-Khenoune, 2012).

1.2.2.4. Strategies in the Language Classroom and Strategy Training

The notion of 'learner autonomy' is a direct consequence of the preoccupation with learner-centredness in educational policies and practices (Manchón, 2000). Following Johnson and Johnson (1998), learner autonomy "is one of a number of closely related concepts within the general paradigms of leaner-centred education. It underpins the individualization of instruction, the development of patterns of self-directed learning and of methodology of self-access, as well as implying some degree of learner training" (pp. 306-7). By learner training is understood a type of instructional intervention whose basic aim is to help LLs become better language LLs/ users. As such, learner training involves developing the student's awareness of him/herself as a learner, of the process of language learning and use, and of the nature of the target language.

It also involves instructing LLs in the use of language learning and language use strategies. 'Strategy training' or 'strategy instruction' is succintly summarized by Cohen (1998) as follows, "The strategy training movement is predicated on the assumption that if learners are conscious about and become responsible for the selection, use, and evaluation of their learning strategies, they will become more successful language learners by…talking more responsability for their own language learning, and enhancing their use of the target language out of class. In other words, the ultimate goal of strategy training is to empower students by allowing them to take

control of the language process" (p. 70). As posited by Chamot & O'Malley (1994, pp. 387-8), the goal of instructing language LLs in the use of strategies is "to develop self-regulated learners who can approach new learning tasks with confidence and select the most appropriate strategies for completing the task". This means that the focus of strategy training is on 'how' to learn rather than on 'what' to learn (Manchón, 2000).

In its application to L2 situation, Manchón (1998) interpreted the what-to-learn goals as the double task faced by the L2 learner: to come up with knowledge of the L2 and to develop the ability to put acquired knowledge to use when attempting to produce or interpret messages in the L2. Manchón (1998) posited that three micro-processes are involved in establishment of L2 knowledge: integration of new knowledge into existing knowledge structures, discovering any mismatch between L2 and interlanguage rules, and automatization of L2 knowledge so that it is available and efficient retrieval and use.

Together with these what-to-learn goals, the language learning/ teaching situation also encompasses corresponding how-to-learn goals. These relate to the acquisition of the relevant knowledge to achieve the what-to-learn goals. The notion of 'strategies' is a cover term for this special type of knowledge that L2 LLs must acquire (Manchón, 1998). It is customary to distinguish two macro groups of strategies. 'Learning strategies' are related to the first component of what-to-learn goals, i.e., the expansion of L2 knowledge and the increasing of its accessibility. In contrast, the implementation of 'language-use strategies' is aimed at the acquisition of the ability to put acquired knowledge to use, this being the second dimension of what-to-learn goals (ibid). To this it should be added that when putting acquired knowledge to use, L2 LLs also learn how to make full and efficient use of their available knowledge resources, while at the same time L2 users must become skillfull at solving problems caused by lack of knowledge or how accessibility to such knowledge which is precisely the situation that triggers the use of CS (Manchón, 1998).

Strategy instruction is justified on the grounds that language teaching must help learners learn how to learn, an educational aim which is in turn based on the partially tested assumption that the L2 learner's how-to-learn procedures are amenable to

modification and change through instruction. It is further postulated that an off-shot of strategy instruction would be the development of the learner's autonomy. Three out of the five features that according to Dickinson (1992, 1993) characterized autonomous learners are related to strategy use. Dickinson contended that autonomous learners : (i) can identify what has been taught; (ii) are able to set their own learning objectives; (iii) select and implement appropriate strategies; (iv) monitor the uses of strategies by themselves; and (v) can take decisions as to continue or give up the use of strategies depending on whether or not they are working for them. In short, autonomous learners have developed knowledge about strategies and control over their use. Strategy instruction must, therefore, include those two components of knowledge (both declarative and procedural) of strategies and control of their use (ibid). According to Iwai and Gobel (2003), the terms 'instruction' and 'training' are both used and have separate connotations. The former represents the meaning of teaching for certain objectives, while the latter stands for teaching in a specific program.

1.2.2.5. Rationale for Strategy Instruction

According to McDonough (1999), the aim of strategy intervention is to bridge the gap between "what learners can do and what they will do" (p. 4). The inclusion of strategy training in instructed second and foreign language learning has rested on two main assumptions, one related to general educational matters, and another one related to L2 learning and use. From the first perspective, schools must empower people with the tools and means to become independent and successful life-long learners (Weinstein, Husman, & Dierking, 2000). This dimension of learning/ teaching processes is referred to as 'learning to learn', a construct that in its application to instructed language learning would be equated with learning to become a successful language learner/ user who has the ownership of his/ her own learing and can work independently of the teacher, "It is commonly accepted that schools must prepare autonomous, responsible citizens. In the millenium with its rapidly changing social and economic conditions, the traditional aim of education, transmission of knowledge is not enough. Schools are no longer able to predict and then equip learners with the skills they will need throughout the rest of their professional lives. What they need to do is favour the most important of skills, learning how to learn" (Harris et al., p. 18).

The same conception underlies Cohen's words (1998,p. 70), "The strategy training movement is predicated on the assumption that if learners are conscious about and become responsible for the selection, use, and evaluation of their learning strategies, they will become more successful language learners by… taking more responsibility for their own language learning, and enhancing their use of the target languages out of class. In other words, the ultimate goal of strategy training is to empower students by allowing them to take control of the language learning process". The second assumption on which the strategy instruction movement rests is the belief that there is a (causal) relationship between strategy use and L2 development. McIntyre & Noels (1996) stated that, "there appears to be little doubt that the use of learning strategies tends to facilitate language learning" (p. 374). This position is also shared by Hsiao & Oxford (2002), "strategies are the L2 learner's tool kit for active, conscious, purposeful, and attentive learning and they pave the way toward greater proficiency, learner autonomy and self-regulation" (p. 372). Along the same lines, Cohen (2003) posited that, "if learners have a well-functioning repertoire, then these strategies will facilitate the langauge learning process bt promoting successful and efficient completion of language learning tasks, as well as by allowing the learners to develop their own individualized approaches to learning" (p. 280).

In short, there seems to be a consensus among strategy researchers that strategy use is closely linked to success in language learning and that, accordingly, strategy instruction should be part of instructed language learning. The explicit teaching of strategies proved to be beneficial to language learners in terms of (i) widening their strategic repertoire; (ii) improving test scores; (iii) increasing their self-confidence and motivation; (iv) developing their autonomy; and (v) taking more responsibility for their own learning. The author concludes that these findings "seem to fit into the increasingly promising picture of the effectiveness of strategy instruction" (Rees-Miller, 1993, p. 116). Training of language learning strategies is called many things: 'strategy training', 'learner training', 'learning-to-learn training', 'learner methodology training', and 'methodological initiation lor learners' (Oxford, 1990). In addition to teaching language learning strategies, it also deals with feefings and beliefs about taking on more responsability. Stategy training can cover more general aspects of

language learning, such as the kinds of language functions used inside and outside the classroom, significance of group work and individual efforts in language learning, trade-offs between accuracy and fluency, fear of mistakes, learning vs. acquisition, and ways in which language learning differs from learning other subjects (ibid).

1.2.2.6. Types of Strategy Training

Language learners can be taught in at least three different ways: awareness-training, one-time strategy training, and long-term strategy training. (1) awareness-raising: it is also known as consciousness-raising or familiarization training. In this situation, participants become aware of and familiar with the general idea of language learning strategies and the way such strategies can help them accomplish language tasks; (2) one-time strategy training: it involves learning and practicing one or more strategies with actual language tasks, usually those found in the regular language learning program. This kind of training gives the learner information on the value of the strategy, when it can be used, how to use it, and how to evaluate the success of the strategy. It is appropriate for learners who have a need for particular, identifiable, and very targeted strategies that can be taught in one or just a few session(s); (3) long-term strategy training: like the previous type, it involves learning and practicing strategies with actual language tasks. Again, students learn the significance of particular strategies, when and how to use them, and how to monitor and evaluate their own performance. Also, it should be tied to the tasks and objectives of the language program. However, it is more prolonged and covers a greater number of strategies. It is likely to be more effective than one-time training (Oxford, 1990).

1.2.2.6.1. A Model for Strategy Training

It is suggested that strategy instruction must include different stages. First, the stategy training programme should start with an assessment of the strategies that learners currently use and how well they use them because as Wenden (1991, p. 108) stated, "the intervention should match the need". The next stage involves either deductive or inductive awareness of the strategy/ ies learners are going to be trained in. The main objective here is to raise the student's awareness of the value and benefits of

strategy use. To this end, the instructor helps the learner develop declarative knowledge about (what strategy/ ies they are learning to implement), procedural knowledge (how the strategy/ ies should be used and why) and conditional knowledge (in which contexts should the strategy/ ise be used) (Manchón, 2000). This explicit strategy instruction is predicated on the grounds that the metacognitive awareness that learners gain will help the retention and transferability of strategy use. The third stage is the practice, where learners are given practice in using the strategy in question in contextualized tasks. The final stage includes the evaluation of strategy use and the demonstration of how the strategy can be transferred to other contexts and tasks (ibid).

Oxford (1990) proposed a model for ST of eight-steps. The model focuses on the teaching of LSs themselves, rather than on the broader aspects of language learning. The steps might not always have to be done in this order, some can be performed at the same time, or in a slightly different order. The first five are planning and preparation steps, while the last three involve conducting, evaluating, and revising the training (**Table 3**).

Table3: Steps in the Strategy Training Model (Oxford, 1990)

Step's Number	Steps' Identification
1.	Determine the learners' needs and the time available.
2.	Select strategies well.
3.	Consider integration of strategy training.
4.	Consider motivational issues.
5.	Prepare materials and activities.
6.	Conduct 'completely informed training'.
7.	Evaluate the strategy training.
8.	Revise the strategy training.

In Step1, you should determine the LLs' needs and the time available. The initial step is to consider the needs of the LLs and determine the amount of time you have for the activity. You have to consider who the LLs are and what they need (children,

adolescents, college students, graduate students, adults in continuing education, refugees or immigrants, advanced language LLs/ intermediates/ beginners), their verbal abilities, their strengths, weaknesses, the used LSs, the strategies to be learned, etc (Oxford, 1990). In Step 2, you select strategies well: (a) select strategies which are related to the needs and characteristics of your LLs (cultural and other types of biases should be taken into consideration; (b) choose more than one kind of strategy to teach (by deciding the kinds of compatible, mutually supporting strategies that are important for your students); (c) choose strategies that are generally useful for most LLs and transferable to a variety of langauge situations and tasks; (d) choose some strategies that are very easy to learn, and some strategies that are very valuable but might require a bit more effort. In other words, do not include all easy strategies or all difficult strategies (ibid). And in the third step, you should consider integration of ST. Attempts to provide relatively detached, content-independent strategy training have been at best only moderately successful. LLs sometimes rebel against ST that is not sufficiently linked with their own language training. When ST is closely integrated with language learning, LLs better understand how the strategies can be used in a significant, meaningful context (ibid).

In Step 4, you consider motivational issues: decide whether to give grades or partial course credit for attainment of new strategies, or whether to assume that LLs will be motivated to learn strategies purely in order to become more effective LLs. A different type of motivational issue relates to pre-existing cultural (or other) preferences for certain types of strategies. Being sensitive to this issue does not mean, however, that you should avoid introducing new strategies. It means that you might need to phase in very new strategies gently and gradually, without whisking away students' 'security blankets' no matter how dysfunctional you might consider those old strategies to be (ibid). And in the fifth step, you should prepare materials and activities. The materials you are using for language instruction will double well for strategy training materials. In addition to some handouts, a book for LLs to use at home and in class (especially if you are planning long-term ST). Get LLs to develop a strategy handbook themselves (Oxford, 1990).

In Step 6, you conduct 'completely informed training': make a special point to inform LLS about why the strategies are important and how they can be used in new situations. Provide practice with strategies in several language tasks. Give learners the explicit opportunity to evaluate the success of their new strategies. Research shows that ST which fully informs the learner (by indicating why the strategy is useful, how it can be transferred to different tasks, and how LLs can evaluate the success of the strategy) is more successful than training that does not (ibid). In the seventh step, you evaluate the strategy training. LLs' own comments about their strategy use are part of the training itself. Possible criteria for evaluating training are task improvement, general skill improvement, maintenance of the new strategy over time, transfer of strategy to other relevant tasks, and improvement in learner attitudes (Oxford, 1990). And in step 8, you should revise the ST. The evaluation (Step 7) will suggest possible revisions for your materials. This leads right back to Step 1, a reconsideration of the characteristics and needs of the learners in light of the cycle of ST (ibid).

In addition to the eight-steps procedure proposed by Oxford (1990), Dörnyei (1995) proposed a broader interpretation of teaching that would involve the following six (interrelated) procedures, all relevant to strategy training. The first is 'raising learner awareness about the nature and communicative potential of CSs' by making LLs conscious of strategies already in their repertoire, sensitizing them to the appropriate situations where these could be useful, and making them realize that these strategies would actually work. The importance of conscious attention in the learner's internalization process is highlighted by Schmidt (1990). From a cognitive perspective, the main role of instruction is to orient the learners and focus their attention on a given topic. Faerch & Kasper (1986) also emphasized the need to increase the learners' 'metacommunicative awareness' (p. 187) with respect to strategy use. In fact, most definitions of CSs include (potential) consciousness as a major feature, as they also point out, this implies that these strategies "can be influenced by teaching" (Faerch & Kasper, 1984, p. 47).

The second is 'encouraging students to be willing to take risks and use CSs', that is, to manipulate available langauge without being afraid of making errors (Faerch & Kasper, 1986; Yule & Tarone, 1990). Willems (1987) also argued that very often we

need to make it clear to learners that for some strategies, "their innate tendency to use them in free speech activities is quite a natural urge and nothing to be frowned upon" (p. 356). The third is 'providing L2 models of the use of certain CSs' through demonstrations, listening materials and videos, and getting learners to identify, categorize, and evaluate strategies used by native speakers or other L2 speakers. Or after viewing their own recordings, students analyze their own strategy use (Faerch & Kasper, 1986). The fourth is 'highlighting cross-cultural differences in CSs use' might involve degrees of stylistic appropriateness associated with CSs (e.g., in some languages particular CSs may be seen as indications of bad style), differences in the frequency of certain CSs in the speaker's L1 and L2, as well as differences in the verbalization of particular CSs.

The fifth is 'teaching CSs directly' by presenting linguistic devices to verbalize CSs which have a finite range of surface realizations. According to McLaughlin (1990), verbal tasks are hierarchically structured and in order to realize a higher order goal, each of the component skills needs to be executed. This would imply that being familiar with a strategy in L1 might be an insufficient condition for efficient strategy use in L2 if certain lower order components are missing or not automatized properly. Tarone & Yule (1989) pointed out that 'circumlocution', for example, requires certain basic core vocabulary and sentence structures to describe properties (e.g., shape, size, colour, texture) and function. They provide examples like 'top side, bowl-shaped, triangular, on the rim, circular, sequare). Dörnyei & Thurrell (1992) considered the automatization of basic structures such as 'it's a kind of; sort of the thing you use for…; it's what/ when you…; it's something you deo/ say when…; necessary for 'circumlocution'.

They also provide a list a list of common fillers and hesitation devices which come in handy when learners wish consciously to buy time (e.g., well, actually, as a matter of fact, the thing is… how shall I put it), as well as a set of ways to appeal for help (e.g., what do you call it/ someone who…what's the word for…). The sixth step is 'providing opportunities for practice in strategy use' appears to be necessary because CSs can only fulfil their function as immediate first aid devices if their use has reached an automatic stage (Dörnyei, 1995). The latter also propose that this automatization

will not always occur without specific focused practice. Kellerman (1991) acknowledged the possible usefulness of situational classroom practice of strategies in order to help learners overcome inhibitations arising from having to operate in the L2.

1.2.2.6.2. Identification of Strategy Types for Training

In studies of human learning in general, several broad strategy types for enhancing learning effectiveness have been identified: primary strategies for text processing; support strategies for assisting the primary strategies (Dansereau, 1985; Dansereau, Brooks, Holley & Colins, 1983); strategies for specific learning skills, and strategies for developing an efficient executive controller of learning (Derry & Murphy, 1986). Results of ST have been positive in general. For example, in Dansereau's (1985) comprehension/ retention experiment, the experimental group revealed significantly greater positive precourse/ postcourse changes than did the control group on short-answer and multi-choice test measures.

One of the major problems is that there has been little consensus as to which types of strategies are more conductive to learning abd should therefore be selected for training (Ellis, 1997). There are at learst three major taxonomies. First, a tripartite system including cognitive, metacognitive and social/affective strategies (Chamot, 1993; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Wenden & Rubin, 1987); second, a diachotomy of direct and indirect strategies (Oxford, 1990); and third, a distinction between language learning strategies and language use strategies (Cohen, 1998). Based on their own categorization schemes, researchers made decisions on the types of strategies they believed were useful to language learning and hence worth teaching (Lam, 2004).

The link between strategic awareness, explicit focusing and declarative/ procedural knowledge was established in this section. Then, we considered the importance of raising awareness of both teachers and LLs. After, the need to introduce meta-cognitive training to raise LLs' awareness of CSs was highlighted. And the types of ST were presented.

Section Three: Outcome of Strategy Training

Three crucial points are to be the major concern of this section. The first is present the descriptive studies that dealt with the outcomes of ST. The second point tables the interventionist investigations about the same target. Then, ST pertaining to the speaking skill is to be the main focus of the third point.

1.2.3.1. Descriptive Studies

There have been a vast number of studies relating strategy use and learning outcome but not many are related to the speaking skill. The studies can be categorized into two types: descriptive and interventionist. The former deals with the relationship between promotion of strategy use and improvement in learning outcome and tsk performance. The latter focuses on the impact of training in the use of categories of strategies or specific strategies on strategy use and task performance (Lam, 2004). There are far more descriptive studies than interventionist studies (McDonough, 1995). One reason is that reactions to ST have been mixed and the value of ST has not been fully recognized (Cohen, 1998; McDonough, 1999). This indicated that there is insufficient work being done on ST and more empirical studies are needed to validate the effects of ST (Lam, 2004).

Wong-Fillmore (1976) reported a nine-month ethnographic study with five Mexican children in an English-speaking school in the US. During the observation period, each child was paired with an English-speaking schoolmate for an hour per week. The verbal interactions between them were audio-recorded and notes were taken by the researcher herself to investigate the speech development of the Mexican children throughout the period. Wong-Fillmore found that there were major differences in the children's development of speech to their approaches to learning a second language. She accounted for the differences as being related to "the interaction between the nature of the task of learning a new language, the strategies that needed to be applied to the task, and the personal characteristics of the individuals involved" (p. 227). The findings seem to support the argument that strategy use is related to speech development of young children in an ESL context. It also appears that strategy use should be mapped to the nature of learning tasks. The study highlights the role of strategy use in the development of L2 oral skills and the relationship between strategy use and task demands (Lam, 2004).

Saville-Troike's (1987) study also looked into the way young ESL learners developed their social speech in L2 classroom environment in Asia. The nine children were from China, Japan and Korea. None of them had any knowledge prior to enrolment. During the first six months of exposure to English, their utterances in class were collected by a wireless radio microphone system attached to their collars. Their behaviours were either video-taped or audio-taped. It was found that the children used a nunber of strategies in their 'private speech' but they remained silent most of the time. Saville-Troike (1987) reported a variety of intra-personal learning strategies including, (1) repetition of other's utterances, (2) recall and practice, (3) creation of new linguistic forms, (4) paralinguistic substitition and systagmatic expansion, and (5) rehearsal for overt social performance (p. 567). There was also evidence that by the time the children resumed communicating with English speaking people, their utterances were found to be relatively complex (Lam, 2004).

1.2.3.2. Interventionist Studies

The premise underlying most of the ST studies is that we can identify used by good language learners and then teach these strategies to learners, thereby enhancing learners' ability to use them so as to perform better in language tasks (Chamot, Barnhardt, El-Dinary & Robbins, 1996). Nontheless, the reaction to ST has been mixed and the outcome of interventionist studies is far from definitive (Ellis, 1994; McDonough, 1995, 1999; Oxford, 1996). There are few empirical studies that could be drawn on to demonstrate that such training has irrefutable benefits (Cohen, 1998; Nunan, 1999).

1.2.3.3. Strategy Training Pertaining to the Speaking Skill

In the limited number of skill-specific ST studies that aimed to improve the learning of the individual language skills by the application of strategies, more attention has been given to the learning of vocabulary, reading and writing but not to L2 oral tasks (Cohen, 1998; Ellis, 1997; Nunan, 1999). A reference list of important studies relating to skills other than speaking is as follows: teaching vocabulary (Brown & Perry, 1991); the teaching of reading (Carrell, Pharis & Liberto, 1989; Kern, 1989; Fraser, 1999; Rusciolelli, 1995); teaching of writing (Oxford, 1990); teaching of listening

comprehension (Rost & Ross, 1991; Thompson & Rubin, 1996). The number of interventionist studies on the teaching of speaking remains small and the effectiveness of training varies with qualitied success (Lam, 2004).

O'Malley et al. (1985, 1987, 1990) conducted a number of important training studies. The primary aim of O'Malley et al.'s (1985) study was to determine whether ST was effective in ESL classroom settings. Results showed that in the post-training speaking test, the first group that received meta-cognitive, cognitive and social/ affective ST improved significantly more than the control group, with the second group that had only cognitive and social/ affective ST, somewhere in between the two. The impact of strategy instruction, however, was not unequivocally clear (O'Malley et al., 1985,a, b). The studies seemed to have produced promising findings with regard to the speaking (Lam, 2004).

Based on the transactional speaking component of the O'Malley et al.,'s (1985 a/b) studies, Varela (1997) investigated the effects of strategy instruction in a middle school ESL-science classroom. It was compared with a similar classroom that received equivalent instruction without the learning strategies component. In the interventionist classroom, students were taught strategies to assist them in presenting on oral report on their science fair projects. The strategies included using graphic organizers, selective attention, self-assessment and self-talk. After two weeks of instruction, students in the strategies group not only reported using significantly more strategies than the control group students, but the videotaped performance of their science fair reports showed significant improvement over their performance prior to the strategies instruction. The finding is particularly valuable as it has cast some light on the teachability issue, i.e., strategies appeared to be teachable as reflected by students' uptake (Lam, 2004).

The effects of ST on strategy use and performance were also investigated in Dadour & Robbins' (1996) study. Their training course aimed to improve the speaking skill of prospective English teachers in Egypt. The 15-week course provided the subjects with instruction on using effective learning strategies. Each three-hour training session had a main goal related to strategies for a specific linguistic/ conversational speaking skill, and subordinate goals related to developing LLs' functional/ affective speaking skills.

Results showed that ST had a positive effect on the speaking performance of the experimental groups. There were specific differences in terms of fluency, vocabulary, and grammar but not in pronunciation. The experimental groups were also found to use more strategies of all kinds. The frequency of strategy use was measured by the SILL (Oxford, 1990), a self-report strategy questionnaire; hence, actual strategy use was not measures (Lam, 2004).

The second study reported by Dadour & Robbins (1996) used a Problem-Solving Process Model to teach learning strategies to foreign LLs in Japan. The model followed a four-step approach, i.e., planning, monitoring (regulating), problem-solving and evaluation (Chamot, Robbins & El-Dinnary, 1993). During each lesson, the teacher modelled the use of strategies and gave students an explanation for the use of these strategies with particular tasks. Six weeks in the semester, a questionnaire was administered to 46 students and findings indicated that 78% students wanted to learn more strategies for speaking. However, similar to the study in Egypt, Dabour & Robbins (1996) relied on a self-report instrument, i.e., a questionnaire to gauge strategy use. Also, a finely-tuned link between strategy type and task type is yet to be established, since the researchers, in their both studies, did not attempt to find the link between these variables (Lam, 2004).

Attempting to address the missing link between specific strategies and task types, Cohen (1998) reported on a study with intermediate learners of French and Noeweigian at the university of Minnesota who were either participants in a strategy-based instruction treatment group, or comparison students receiving the regular ten-week langauge course. Both groups filled out a pre-treatment questionnaire (SILL), performed a series of three speaking tasks (self-description, story-telling, and a city description) and responded to a strategy checklist upon the completion of these speaking tasks. 21 of the experimental and comparison group students also provided verbal report data while they filled out the posttest strategy checklists. The most significant finding was that the experimental group outperformed the control group on the city description task but not on the other two tasks. As concede by Cohen (1998), the three tasks chosen were non-participatory, i.e., involving only one participant. This apparently calls for more task types, preferably interactive in nature, to be tried out in

other empirical studies (Lam, 2004). Cohen's (1998) study relied on subjects' reported data about strategy use. In future research, strategy use needs to be examined in or at least complemented by more objective means (Cohen, 1987, 1994; Cohen & Scott, 1996).

Bejarano et al's (1997) study appeared to be relevant in establishing some kind of direct link between strategies and performance for one particular task type, i.e., group discussion and objectivity in data collection. Interaction strategies, believed to have contributed positively to interaction and subsequently to language learning, were used to train an experimental group for six weeks. Each group in the experimental and control groups was video-taped before and after the six-week period and an observation-tally form was developed to measure (1) overall observation and non-interactive participation and (2) use of interaction strategies in terms of frequency. Results indicated that the experimental group used significantly more interaction strategies than the control group and that there was a significant decrease in non-interactive participation. In this way, Bejarano et al's (1997) study could be considered to have established some link between interaction strategies and performance in group discussion (Lam, 2004). While Bejarano et al's (1997) study achieved some success in establishing a link between interaction strategies and interaction outcome, and in the use of objective data collection methods regarding strategy use, task performance was measured in terms of the overall participation of the group and the amount of interaction observed. It is reasonable that other measures, apart from observed frequency of strategy use, may be needed to paint a further picture of the impact of training (Lam, 2004).

Three crucial points are to be the major concern of this section. The first is present the descriptive studies that dealt with the outcomes of ST. The second point tables the interventionist investigations about the same target. Then, ST pertaining to the speaking skill is to be the main focus of the third point.

Section Four: Teachability of Communication Strategies

In this section, we tackle the challenging situation the language teachers are facing, i.e., formal instruction and raising EFL LLs' intercultural communicative awareness.

After, the disputing issue of CSs teachability is to be highlighted, i.e., the different views of the Pros and the Cons are to be displayed. Then, the matter of CS instruction is to be tackled from angles of research.

1.2.4.1. Language Teachers between Formal Instruction and Raising EFL LLS' Intercultural Communicative Awareness

1.2.4.1.1. Classroom Discourse

For Seedhouse (1996), classroom discourse is an institutional type of discourse, in which the interactional aspects are similar to 'institutional goals'. Seedhouse (2009) stated that the first step to describing the interactional architecture of L2 classroom interaction is to recognize the 'institutional core goal'. From this core goal, three intercational properties come to shape classroom interaction. The first property is that language functions on two levels, it is the vehicle and object of instruction. In other words, language is taught through language. The second property is that there is a reflexive relationship between pedagogy and interaction. About this property Lier (1998, p.167) claimed that CR talk '… is seen as symbolic of the institutional power that serves to maintain and reproduce the power structures that define the institution and its purposes'.Further, the third interactional property is that the learners' output is subject to teachers' feedback and evaluation. About this point, Lier (1988, pp. 32-33) argued that 'everyone involved in language teaching and learning will readily agree that evaluation and feedback are central to the process and progress of language learning. And about the holder of CR discourse, Cook (1989,p157) said that, ' a massive amount of the language of the classroom is provided by the teacher'. That is, the teacher tends to dominate CR proceedings. And about the trypical features of teacher talk, Cullen (1998) asserted that they do not match with the communicative norms found outside the institutional setting.

1.2.4.1.2. Education vs. Training

Both education and training are concerned with learning; however, each has a different perspective and purpose (Morrison et al., 2011). One of the goals of formal

education is to prepare an individual to be a contributing member of the society. The focus of education is quite broad and can range from history to English to Chemistry to physical fitness to political science to music. Formal education also occurs during a fixed time frame. In contrast, training in an organizational setting is defined by the information needed to perform a specific task or related tasks. The length of the course would be determined by the content rather than a specific time frame. The purpose of training is more narrowly focused than is education in that training centers on very specific information – only the information needed to perform the task (ibid).

1.2.4.1.3.Authentic Communication, Classroom Reality and Learners' Communicative Competence

Teachers should always bear in mind the needs of their students and plan their programmes accordingly. Indeed, when faced with low achievers, teachers may justifiably accord priority to what they consider to be the more 'pressing' areas such as grammar, vocabulary, and reading (Sze, 1995). However, one should not lose sight of one of the ultimate goals of second language instruction, which is to facilitate LLs' acquisition of 'CC' (Faerch & Kasper, 1983), the ability to speak both accuratety and appropriate (Wolfson, 1989). For Hymes (1972), "there are rules of use without which the rules of grammar would be useless" (p. 45), so that true 'communicative competence' embraces knowing what to say to whom in what circumstances and how to say it. van Lier (1996), influenced by the psychology of Vygotsky (1978), proposed the AAA (Awereness, Autonomy, Authenticity) curriculum, which views social interaction as the key to learning. 'Awareness' is described as the process of paying attention to new experiences and relating them to existing knowledge. 'Autonomy' has to do with choice and responsability, with the learner's initiative in making decisions about what is to be learnt. 'Authenticity' is related to action that is intrinsically motivated, when a learner has a genuine desire to learn, rather then being compelled to some external force to do so. In his AAA orientation, van Lier (1996) saw interactional change as promoting avenues for educational change, i.e., small changes in input can bring about fundamental changes in output.

Some methodologists have argued that given the constraints of the CR, CC is unattaintable in formal instruction (Jakobovits & Gordon, 1980). However, Harmer (1967), for example, argues that a more realistic aim for the CR was 'communicative efficiency': "Here we will expect our students to be able to express what it is they wish to say. In other words, if they wish to express disagreement we can ensure that they are able to do so and that their meaning is understood…we are not teaching our students to be model Englishmen or Americans, atc, but to use the tool of the English language to communicate" (p. 24). One major reason for second language instruction is to facilitate intercultural communication. The CR may not be an ideal place to develop sociolinguistic competence (Scarcella, Anderson & Krashen, 1990), and not all LLs are interactively motivated (Gardner & Lambert, 1972), but there are not reasons for excluding sociolinguistic competence in a language programme (Sze, 1995). In fact, the fourth component in Canale and Swain's (1980) framework, SC, is vital even to communication between non-native speakers. Scarcella (1990) highlighted specifically the negative effects on second language speakers that a lack of conversational competence produces.

The concept of communication plays rather functional appearance of a communication relationship. Communication expressed, therefore, information sharing positive events and interpersonal virtue of the fact that, even its origin (Latin, communities means share) term suggests the participation, involvement in the relationship of exchange of meaning. Communication skills defines, on the other hand, the effectiveness of this interaction, the ability to use certain relationships and dependencies deliberately to increase the magnitude and impact of interpersonal exchange (Alptekin, 2002). The teaching of communication skills reflects the growing importance of CC across the world in recent years. This is due partly to the focus of language teaching from form to function and partly to the inability of language LLs to communicate despite having learnt the language (Fatt, 1991).

CC is important in higher education because language functions to enable students to acquire knowledge and skills in the various disciplines; and to develop individuals into intellectual, social, and civic beings to the benefit of the society. Therefore, institutions of higher education must take on this vital role by designing a curriculum to achieve

CC (ibid). The ability to maintain natural conversation in real working or daily life setting is undoubtly the fundamental purpose of oral English teaching (Yang, 2010). The CR setting is an artificial context for the students to undertake certain tasks or to perform some speech acts. The consequence is to de-authenticate the language intake, and the learner's tasks will be made more difficult when they occur in real context. CSs themselves act as a bridge to the outside world rather than as a linguistic quarantine station where LLs are protected from the risks involved in having to engage in genuine communication (ibid).

1.2.4.1.4. Beyond Classroom Setting

The 21st century is the age of globalization with English as its 'Lingua Franca' which means that people use English to communicate with NSs and NNs of this language from diverse cultural backgrounds (Piasecka, 2011). In fact, the participants of such encounters (non-native speakers of English communicating in this language) have to cope with three different cultural contexts, namely their first language culture, their foreign language culture and the culture of their interlocutor. Since successful communication involves the recognition of the sociocultural context of the persons involved, these people have to be sensitive to the sociocultural aspects of communication as they participate in intercultural events which the acts of communication undoubtedly are (ibid). Successful communication definitely requires CC composed of linguistic, sociolinguistic and pragmatic competences combined with the language learner's general competences (CEFR, 2001).

These abilities are strongly connected with cultural aspects of communication and are the basis for identifying what has become to be known as intercultural communicative competence (ICC). The twenty first century, the age of globalization, the World Wide Web and the increased human mobility, has brought new challenges and demands to the FL teaching profession. Although langauge and culture teaching are inseparable, it is a common practice that language is given priority in second/ foreign language learning contexts (Piasecka, 2011). However, the challenges of the 21st century move second/ foreign language instruction towards a more cultural focus. Obviously, the language cannot be disregarded but it can also be acquired in culture-oriented contexts (ibid).

1.2.4.1.5. Native Speakership as a Myth

Speaking is often broken down into subskills, one of which is the ability to take part in a conversation in the TL (Sze, 1995). This ability is often believed to be part of a learner's CC (Faerch & Kasper, 1983), the ultimate goal of second language learning, Nunan (1991, p. 39) suggested that "to most people, mastering the art of speaking is the single most important aspect of learning a second or foreign langauge, and success is measured in terms of the ability to carry out a conversation in the language". Alptekin (2002) claimed that the native speakership is a linguistic myth and proposes that a new notion of CC is needed, one which recognizes English as a world language. The communicative appproach considers target language-based CC to be essential in order for FL LLs to participate fully in the TL culture. LLs are not only expected to acquire accurate forms of the TL, but also to learn howw to use these forms in given social situations in the TL setting to convey appropriate, coherent, and strategically, effective meanings for the NS (ibid).

Thus, learning a FL becomes a kind of enculturation, when one acquires new cultural frames of reference and a new world view, reflecting those of the TL culture and its speakers. As various communicative features underlying the sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic competencies in the TL culture are different from those in the learner's own culture, it is suggested that teachers develop TL CC in LLs by integrating language and culture (ibid). Integrating language and culture is seen by some as the fundamental purpose of language learning, because it gives LLs experience of another language, and a different way of coping with reality. It also enables them to use the language as it is used by its NSs (Alptekin, 2002). Paikeday (1985), in his book entitled 'The Native Speaker is Dead !', shows that native speakership is a linguistic myth, and argues that its true meraning is no more nor less than a proficient user of a language.

1.2.4.2. Teachability of CSs

Early studies of CS first focused on defining and classifying strategies into taxonomies. More recently, empirical studies and reviews of CS have been conducted, and researchers have turned their attention to the relationship between CS and

pedagogical issues (Kasper & Kellerman, 1997). Two fundamentally different conceptualizations of CSs have been categorized by Yule & Tarone (1997) are the 'Pros' and the 'Cons'. Essentially the Pros (Proponents/ Profligates) have proposed additional categories to the taxonomies of CSs. They often design studies that use an interlocutor and compare actual L2 learner performance to native speaker performance, finding many differences between the two. Because of such an approach, the results of their research generally lead them to advocate the teaching of CSs (Dörnyei, 1995; Dörnyei & Thurrell, 1991, 1994; Tarone, 1984). On the other hand, the 'Cons', as in 'conservative', favour a much more constrained and limited taxonomy of strategies. They are more concerned with the underlying cognitive processes than with performance.

'Cons' studies, which generally do not include an interlocutor, often compare L2 learners' performance with their own first language performance, finding many similarities between the two (Faucette, 2001). Due to this focus on cognitive processes and findings that indicate similarities between L1 and L2 CS use, as a rule, the Cons do not advocate teaching (Kellerman, 1991). Because communication strategy use is evident in L1, implying strategic transfer, why bother teaching such strategies to L2 LLs? In two oft-cited quotes, Bialystok & Kelleman, respectively, expressed their opposition to teaching CSs, "What one must teach students of a language is not strategies, but language" (Bialystok, 1990, p. 147). Kellerman wrote "Teach the learners more language, and let the strategies look after themselves" (1991, p. 158). Whether to teach CS remains a point of contention. Very few studies have evaluated CSs from a pedagogical perspective (Faucette, 2001).

Further, those who advocate teaching CSs generally make pedagogical recommendations and argue that communication ST is desirable in order to develop SC (Dörnyei & Thurrell, 1991, 1994; Faerch & Kasper, 1983a; Tarone & Yule, 1989; Willems, 1987). Faerch & Kasper (1986) recommended three specific activity types to practice CS. There are communication games with visual support, without visual support, and monologues. They also recommend increasing students' metacommunicative awareness about the factors that determine appropriate strategy

selection through certain analytic tasks, such as audio/ videotape analysis of NNS-NS discourse. Willems (1987) presented recommende CS instructional activities to prectice 'paraphrase' and 'approximation' (e.g., crossword puzzles, describe the strange object). He argues reasonably that "our first task is to train them [learners] 'not for perfection but for communication'. Correctness-errors, which learners will make anyhow, may reasonably be compensated for in interaction by skillfulness… in the use of CmS (i.e., CS) (p. 361). While Tarone & Yule (1989) advocated CS be taught in a focused and explicit way. Dörnyei & Thurrell (1991, 1994) suggested the use of both traditional CLT activities as well as consciousness-raising.

Despite many arguments and recommendations put forth in favor of teaching CS, there have been few empirical studies which assess the value of communication strategy teaching (Faucette, 2001). Yule & Tarone (1997) cited studies by Brodersen & Gibson (1992) and Dönyei, Csomay & Fischer (1992) suggesting that improvement in effective CS use can result from training. Chen (1990) concluded that LLs' strategic and therefore CC could probably be increased through recommended CS training. Brooks (1992) recommended CS instruction, especially 'circumlocution' and 'appeals foe assistance', through the use of 'jigsaw tasks'. Salomone & Marsal's (1997) study resulted in what they claim to be significant improvement of LLs' use of 'circumlocution' following training. Russell & Loschky (1998) found that many Japanese university students of EFL tend to revert to L1 or non-linguistic strategies, and thus can benefit from CS instruction. Dörnyei (1995) suggested that LLs' use of CSs should be developed through focused instruction. He advocated a 'directs approach' to teaching, and included 'awareness-raising' in this approach. Although there have been few studies of communication strategy training/ teaching, research results are still encouraging (Faucette, 2001). That is, it seems as though CS training could result in language learning. In addition, there appears to be little disconfirming evidence (Dörnyei, 1995). However, very few studies have evaluated CSs from a pedagogical perspective (Faucette, 2001). I will now consider the teaching of CSs in light of various domains of research: language LSs, listening strategies, strategy transfer, second language learning, procedural vocabulary, cultural differences in language use, learner autonomy (Faucette, 2001).

1.2.4.2.1. Language Learning Strategies

Research in learning strategy (LS) instruction indicates that communication strategy instruction may also facilitate language learning. For more than a decade, there has been a growing interest in LS, including how to integrate ST in the language classroom (Faucette, 2001). Proponents of LS instruction, such as Oxford (1990), claimed that teachers should directly teach learning strategies, including compensation strategies, and provide training on how to transfer such strategies to other learning situation (Oxford, Lavine & Crookall, 1989). Thereby, LLS can become more aware of how to use such strategies for more effective communication (Cohen, 1990; Mendelsohn, 1994; Oxford, 1990).

Research regarding 'successful' and 'unsuccessful' language LLs indicates that active, effective LLs tend to use appropriate strategies to reach their learning goals, whereas ineffective language LLs are less expert in their strategy choice and use. In addition, this research suggests that LLs can benefit from training (Naiman, Fröhlich, Stern & Todesco, 1978; Rubin, 1975; Stern, 1975; Vann & Abraham, 1990; Wenden, 1985). The above 'strategy-based' approach to language instruction is not without its skeptics (Ridgway, 2000). For example, it has been suggested that being exposed to, and even using LS does not ensure success in language learning (Skehan, 1989). Also, as with CS training, there have been few empirical studies which evaluate the effectiveness of LS training (Faucette, 2001). Despite this healthy cautiousness tpwards advocating LS instruction, Ellis (1994) said, "The study of learning strategies holds considerable promise…for language pedagogy" (p. 558). He also stated that LLs should be able to ascertain 'which' strategies to choose for 'when' and 'what' purpose (Ellis, 1994).

1.2.4.2.2. Listening Strategies

The research on developing listening skills indicates the value of ST and should inform our understanding of communication strategy instruction (Mendelsoln & Rubin, 1995; Rubin & Rubin, 1994). In an extensive review of more than 100 studies of SL listening comprehension research, Rubin (1994) noted that current researchers are primarily interested in 'which' strategies to teach and 'how' to promote more

successful listening comprehension through strategy instruction. She claims that cognitive and metacognitive skills should be taught because studies indicate that systematic instruction can result in the improvement of listening comprehension (Faucette, 2001). One study (Rost & Ross, 1991) looked at L2 LLs' use of listener feedback, particularly clarification questions. Their results indicate that prior training of LLs in specific questioning strategies can have an effect on their behaviour in interactions and can influence their comprehension. Strategies used by higher proficiency listeners for specific tasks could be taught successfully to lower proficiency listeners.

Many researchers have made recommendations for teaching listening strategies as, (1) find out what strategies your strategies your students are already using and select a few strategies that appear underused (Chamot, 1995; Mendelsohn, 1995); (2) model how to use the strategies (Chamot, 1995); (3) give students choices in strategy use (O'Malley et al., 1989; Rubin, 1994); (4) label and explain strategies in terms of why and when these strategies would be useful (Chamot, 1995; Rubin, 1994); (5) continually encourage students to try strategies with new tasks (Chamot, 1995); (6) select materials that activate strategy use, use 'real' spoken English, and not too difficult or complicated (Mendelsohn, 1995). In summary, studies of listening strategy instruction indicate that training can be effective and result in improved second language listening ability and learning. Since listening strategies are considered worthy of teaching and possibly teachable, this might hold true for receptive as well as productive CSs (Faucette, 2001).

1.2.4.2.3. Strategy Transfer

One of the major arguments posed by Cons against teaching CS sis that the strategies will somehow naturally (Kellerman, 1991, p. 158) becauce transfer is automatic. Mendelsohn (1995) justifiably cautioned us not to assume that our students do not use strategies because "often people use certain helpful listening strategies in their first language, but they fail to transfer those strategies over to their second language listening" (p. 135). Faucette (2001) also argued that this is often the case for CSs, as well. According to Najar (1992), studied of learning indicate that experience with

particular problems often yields little transfer to similar problems. This begs the question of the usefulness of instruction. However, she noted, "It seems that transfer between problems relies on individuals noticing and making use of the similarities between problems" (p. 18). For language training, she recommended pedagogic tasks that require rehearsal for real world situations as determined by a needs-analysis in a task-based language syllabus (Faucette, 2001).

Robinson (2001) also claimed that a task-based approach has the possibility of direct transfer of the abilities developed in the classroom to similar situational contexts. This issue is raised because even if LLs already have CSs in L1 or the TL, they may not use them often enough, appropriately, efficiently, and spontaneously in the L2. Thus, there is the need for training to bring LLs' attention (noticing) to these strategies and help them become more aware of a repertoire of strategies available to them, including those they may already make use of in the L1. Instruction could also help LLs develop and automatize more effective strategies to fit the appropriate situations (Faucette, 2001). Faerch & Kasper (1983a) made the point that language learning and language use involve not only language-related knowledge but also language-related abilities. Teachers can still remind students of what they already do in their L1 and encourage them to do the same in L2. Therefore, even if LLs use CSs effectively in L1, communication strategy instruction could aid strategic transfer by raising awareness of CSs; providing training in how to properly use CSs in L2, and providing opportunities for practice (Dörnyei, 1995). Such practice should help LLs develop second language communicative competence (Faucette, 2001).

1.2.4.2.4. Second Language Learning

Another benefit of teaching CSs is for reasons of SLA, hopefully the ultimate goal of our language classrooms. CSs would serve as an excellent means for less proficient LLs to have the tools to maintain the conversation, resulting in the opportunities to receive more language input and improve their language ability (Faucette, 2001). As Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991, p. 126) put it, "a NNS's ability to keep a conversation going is a very valuable skill because by maintaining the conversation, the NNS can presumably benefit from receiving additional modified input. Indeed,

conversational maintenance is a very objective for language learners who regularly invoke communicative strategies". If learners soon give up without achievement or interactive strategies at their disposal, then it is unlikely they will develop their conversational ability.

Through CS use, the channel will remain open. Hence, LLs receive more input, can stay in the conversation, and develop their ability (Faucette, 2001). CSs are the means by which LLs can act on Hatch's (1978) advice that "Finally and most important, the learner should be taught not to give up" (p. 434). Strong support exists for the beneficial effect of interactionally modified input on comprehension ans acquisition through negotiation of meaning (Doughty, 2000; Ellis, 1994; Laersen-Freeman & Long, 1991). In terms of CSs, interactional strategies, such as 'appeals for assistance' could be particularly worthwhile. If LL scan put CS to use as a way to negotiate meaning, then, not only will their comprehension improve, but also they can learn new words and have the opportunity to talk in the L2. This point is persuasively expressed by Yule & Tarone (1991, p. 167) who argued that the roles of the participants within interactions that lead to negotiation of meaning can be effectively described within a communication strategy framework which focuses upon cooperative moves by both speakers (e.g., circumlocution, appeals for assistance, etc).

1.2.4.2.5. Procedural Vocabulary

In order for second language LLs to not 'give up' in the conversation, they need some vocabulary (Faucette, 2001). Most research on CSs has focused on lexical difficulties (Kasper & Kellerman, 1997). Also, it seems as though most recommende CSs cannot be implemented in classroom instruction without the accompaning, relevant vocabulary (Dörnyei, 1995). Therefore, another value of CS instruction would be the extra benefit of vocalulary learning, specifically useful vocabulary that effectively furthers communication and learning (Faucette, 2001). Procedural vocabulary is 'core' vocabulary with 'procedural value' to LLs in that it provides them with a strategic resource to help overcome breakdowns in communication (Marco, 1999; Robinson, 1989). Such vocabulary is highly context-dependent, contains very

lexical content, but plays a very important role in negotiating the meaning of more specific technical words and in explaining concepts (Marco, 1999).

Robinson (1989) distinguished this procedural ability from the declarative konwledge of lexis assumed when attempting to memorize traditional vocabulary word lists that do not aid in the learning of these words. Therefore, this procedural ability does not simply mean knowledge of word meanings, but rather, the 'how to' necessary to use such vocabulary in order to reach a communicative goal. These lexical items are formulaic expressions often used in place of other words for definitions, paraphrasing, or explanations "through establishing relations of simple synonymy or superordinary" (Robinson, 1989, p. 530). If LLs develop this competence early on, then they can express themselves in basic ways and convey the meaning of unfamiliar vocabulary without reverting to L1 or giving up, the same goals of recommended achievement or interactive strategies. Such procedural vocabulary is useful only for low-level language LLs, but also for those of varying proficiencies, depending on their needs. Due to its obvious relevance to CSs training, procedural vocabulary will be considered a bonus benefit resulting from strategy instruction (Faucette, 2001). The CS of 'approximation' and 'paraphrasing', for example, call for ceratin procedural vocabulary. Therefore, in this sense, the teaching of procedural vocabulary as a useful way to implement CS sis not exacly contrary to Kellerman's urging that we "teach the learners more language and let the strategies look after themselves" (1991, p. 158).

1.2.4.2.6. Cultural Differences in Language Use

According to Gumperz (1982) and others (Bialystok & Hakuta, 1994; Tannen, 1984), there are numerous cultural differences in discourse style. Just as Gumperz' (1982) 'discourse strategies' are crossculturally variable and a potential source of intercultural communication, appropriate CS use may also be culturally constrained. Therefore, along with Dörnyei (1995), Faucette (2001) argued that communication strategy training could be used to highlight cross-cultural differences in terms of appropriateness of CS use. For example, in the Rost & Ross' (1991) study of listening strategy instruction, cultural preferences were noted, such as their claim that "questions are often viewed negatively in Japanese educational settings as admissions

of ignorance or inattention" (p. 255). In addition to the threat of the student's own face, questions in class could also be seen as disrespectful to 'sensei' and hence a threat to a higher-status person's face (Brown & Levinson, 1987; Goffman, 1967). Tarone (1980) argued that although SC must exist in all languages and cultures, "the particular types of strategy preferred for use in such situations may be culture-specific or language-specific" (p. 422).

Cultural differences in the use of silence, which might indicate message abondonment, is one such CS-related speech component that comes to mind (Gilmore, 1985; Hall, 1959; Tannen & Saville-troike, 1985). Dörnyei (1995) also mentioned differences in verbalizing certain strategies. For example, the Japanese 'eh?' meaning 'huh?' which could be used as a global appeal for assistance, might be seen as impolite in some cultures. Effective training in culturally appropriate CS use would be beneficial to students from all languages and cultures (Faucette, 2001).

1.2.4.2.7. Learner Autonomy

One widely accepted that the goal of teaching learning strategies is to foster learner autonomy (Wenden, 1985, 1991). Wenden (1991) defined autonomous leaner as "one who has acquired the strategies and knowledge to take some (if not yet all) responsibility for her language learning and is willing and self-confident enough to do so" (p. 163). Autonomous learning seeks to equip LLs with tools that will best serve them once they are on their own and to facilitate their self-directed learning outside the classroom. Little (1991) claimed that, "The capacity of autonomy will be displayed both in the way the learner learns and in the way he or she transfers what has been learned to wider contexts" (p. 4). In second language learning, Crabbe (1993) distinguished between the public domain (i.e., classroom activities) and the private domain (i.e., private learning activity). He suggested that it is the teacher's responsability through certain instructional practices, to think carefully about how to guide students in learning. This is accomplished by bridging these two domains in order to suggest autonomy (Faucette, 2001). Situations that encourage independence are beneficial because they lead to learning, achievement and accomplishment (Benson & Voller, 1997). Dickinson (1995) asserted that learning situations that foster

autonomy are also valuable because they enhance motivation, which in turn leads to more effective learning, "It has been shown that there is substantial evidence from cognitive motivational studies that learning success and enhanced motivation is conditional on learners…perceiving that their learning successes and failures are to be attributed to their own efforts and strategies rather than to factors outside their control" (pp. 173-74).

An underlying assumption of the research on learner autonomy is that in order to equip the learner with the tools to eventually become autonomous, training must necessarily take place (Benson & Voller, 1997; Wenden, 1991). In self-directed learning, the teacher acts more as a facilitator who provides the students with the tools to become autonomous through opportinities to learn and strategy instruction (Faucette, 2001). The connection between a learner autonomy approach and communication strategy instruction should be clear. Using the common metaphor of 'bridge', Faerch & Kasper (1983a) argued that "by learning how to use communication strategies appropriately, learners will be able to bridge the gap between pedagogic and non-pedagogic communicative situations" (p. 56). Learner autonomy can be thought of as the ability to bridge the gap. Instruction can be thought of as the means to develop that ability (Faucette, 2002). Cotterall (2000) highlighted the importance of teachers providing choices in a learner autonomy approach, and in particular "extending the choice of strategic behaviours available to learners, and to expand their conceptual understanding of the contribution which strategies can make to their learning" (p. 111). If one of the goals of teaching is to produce independent, skillful L2 strategy users, and if we think it is important for our LLs to be able to participate in real communication outside the classroom, then how can we ignore CSs in our L2 lessons? (Faucette, 2001). Perhaps learner autonomy is one of the most significant goals of communication strategy training. The two approaches go hand in hand and would develop independent, strategically competent language learners (ibid).

1.2.4.3. Related Literature

To gauge the effects of ESL oral communication strategy training on LLs' performance and on strategy use, Lam (2006) conducted an interventionist study. Two

intact classes (20 in each) in the secondary classroom participated in this investigation: one class received 16 hours of OCST and the other served as a CG. A multi-method approach was used to assess the effects of OCST was advocated. First, group work discussions were used to rate LLs' performances. And a questionnaire was designed to assess students' perceptions of their own strategy use over the interview period. Also, SR was utilized as a method to elicit data about thought processes and to go beneath the surface evidence. The instructional approach adopted for the EG was explicit strategy training. First and foremost, the EG outperformed the CG. The results therefore suggested that the OCST might have a positive effect on enhancing the self-efficacy of the LLs. The explicit focusing of strategies in the training may have a pervasive impact on students' strategic awareness. Further, it seemed that OCST had a positive impact on LLs' declarative and procedural knowledge. Also, a multi-method approach helped complement the strengths and weaknesses inherent in each and every research method.

In an attempt to study both the learning process and the learning outcome, Lam (2010) conducted a strategy interventional research. Adopting a psycholinguistic perspective on oral communication strategy use, the study targeted eight strategies that might enable LLs to overcome potential communication problems at three key stages of speech processing: (1) planning and encoding of preverbal messages, (2) monitoring the phonetic plan and articulated speech, and (3) post-articulatory monitoring stage. Two intact classes of secondary ESL LLs participated in the study. The instructional approach adopted for the EG was explicit strategy training. SR was used as an introspective data-collection method to tap into the LLs' problems and strategies in oral tasks. It was found that strategy training seemed to benefit low-proficiency students more than high- proficiency ones. Further, the method (i.e., SR) provided an avenue to gain a picture of the extent to which students are aware of their strategic behavior in action.

Moreover, Rababah (2016) examined the effect of communication strategy instruction on ESL students' oral communicative ability and their SC. In a 14-week English as a Foreign Language course based on Communicative Language Teaching approach, 80 LLs were divided into two groups. The strategy training group received

CS training based on a training programme designed for the purpose of the present study, whereas the CG received only the normal communicative course using Click On 3, with no explicit focus on CSs. The CSs targeted in the training programme included 'circumlocution, appeal for help, asking for repetition, clarification request, confirmation request, self-repair, and guessing'. Pre- and post-test procedures were used to find out the effect of strategy training on language proficiency and CS use. The effect of the training was assessed by three types of data collection: the participants' pre- and post-IELTS speaking test scores, transcription data from the speaking IELTS test, and Click On exit test scores. The EG results in the IELTS speaking test and Click ON 3 Exit test indicated that the participants' proficiency has improved more that the CG. The findings asserted that teaching CSs is pedagogically effective and interactional strategies are more effective, and that CSs are conductive to language learning. Also, it was found that CS awareness and use would facilitate meaning negotiation.

In addition, Nakatani (2005) examined to what degree OCSs can be explicitly taught, and the extent to which strategy use can lead to improvements in oral communication ability. It was 12-week experiment in which 62 female LLs of English as a FL were divided into an EG and a CG. The EG received metacognitive training focusing on OCSsn whereas the CG received only normal instruction, with no OCS instruction. Data were collected through three prrecedures: pre' and post-test course oral communication test, transcribing data from the tests, and retrospective protocol data for their task performance. The study revealed that participants in the strategy training group significantly outperformed the CG in their oral proficiency test scores. The results of the retrospective protocol also confirmed that the participants' success was partly due to an increased general awareness of OCSs and to the use of specific OCSs, such as maintenance of fluency and negotiation of meaning to solve interactional difficulties.

To investigate the impact of teaching CSs on Thai engineering undergraduate students' communication strategy use and SC, Kongsom (2016) conducted a strategy-based intervention. Fifty-seven LLs were taught ten CSs: approximation, circumlocution, use of all-purpose words, appeal for help, clarification request,

comprehension check, confirmation check, and self-repair, pause fillers, hesitation devices, and topic avoidance.An in order to elicit the students' actual use of CSs, 12 out od 57 LLs were asked to complete a set of four speaking tasks before and after the instruction: oral interview, conversation task, situation, cartoon description and topic description. Also, a self-report CS questionnaire was used. The findings showed that the instruction had a positive impact on the LLs' reports of the use of those CSs and an improvement in the students' SC was shown.

And in order to obtain empirical data on the teachability of CSs, Dörnyei (1995) conducted a strategy training course and assessed the effects of the treatment using pre- and post-tests and comparing the results with those obtained from the CG. He was interested in how strategy training affected some qualitative and quantitative aspects of strategy use as well as the rate of delivery of speech. The research focused on the training of three CSs, namely: circumlocution, fillers and hesitation devices, and offered both awareness and practice activities. In a 6-week strategy training programme, respecting a quasiexperimental design, 109 students were divided into a treatment group and two types of CG. The teaching material was based on the techniques described by Dörnyei & Thurrell (1991), supplemented with awareness-raising discussions and feedback. All the LLs took a written and an oral test before the programme and the oral test again after the training. The EG also filled out a questionnaire assessing how interesting and useful they had found the training. The written test consisted of the following: TOEIC and C-test; and the oral test consisted of: topic description, cartoon description and definition formulation. It was concluded that the CS treatment was successful and it was assumed that one educational approach LLs might potentially benefit from in developing their coping skills could be the direct teaching of CSs. And the direct approach to teaching CSs might involve the following procedures: raising learner awareness about the nature and communicative potential of CSs, encouraging LLs to be willing to take risks and use CSs, providing L2 models of the use of certain CSs, highlighting cross-cultural differences in CS use, teaching CSs directly by presenting linguistic devices to verbalize them, and providing opportunities for practice in strategy use.

Particularly, few studies on the topic, in the Algerian context, were conducted. One work was held by Hamlaoui & Haddouche (2013) entitled 'An Investigation into EFL Algerian Students' Communication Strategies' at Badji Mokhtar University, Annaba. The study investigated the use of CSs of 118 Algerian University majors in relation to gender, years of study, ability and proficiency level as variables. Strategy use was assessed via a self-reported questionnaire based mainly on Oxford's (1990) Strategy Inventory for language learning (SILL) and the level of proficiency was determined by the number of years of English study. The major outcome was that English language majors' use of CSs is at a medium scale; 'code modification strategies' were found out to be the most exercised tactics and 'physical communication strategies' were the least employed ones. It also appeared that each of the independent variables (gender, years of study, ability and proficiency level) had a significant relationship with students' use of CSs. Another article labelled 'Acquiring Communication Strategies Through Conversational Training: The Case Study of 1st Year LMD Students at Djillali Liabès University Sidi Bel Abbès Algeria' by Zouaoui & Mohamed (2014). The main concerns of this paper were firstly to scrutinize the nature of the students' communicative difficulties, and secondly to search about the types of CSs that students possessed. In the third place, the researchers wanted to investigate if awareness raising through conversational training was likely to contribute to students' progress in communication. In addition, the reseachers proposed three hypotheses. The first, students' communicative difficulties might not be of a linguistic nature, i.e, they lacked adequate awareness of communication strategies even though they were good at writing and/or reading.

The second hypothesis was that students were equipped with poor and inefficient CSs. And the third one was that if students' awareness was raised, they might make progress in communication. In fact, the reseachers concluded that awareness raising seemed to be the significant factor that contributed to students' shortcomings. Also, they added that audio-recordings might be very effective in communicating the tasks and in reassuring the learners that they could succeed in meeting expectations. Further, the researchers summed up their article by addressing classroom teachers to develop activities which promote negotiated interaction between students, thus the latter would

be able to employ strategies for avoiding and repairing breakdowns and require them to take initiative and accept responsibility for their success.

In this section, we tackled the challenging situation the language teachers are facing, i.e., formal instruction and raising EFL LLs' intercultural communicative awareness. After, the disputing issue of CSs teachability was to be highlighted, i.e., the different views of the Pros and the Cons were displayed. Then, the matter of CS instruction was tackled from angles of research.

Section Five: Types of Data for Studying CSs in SLA Research (Data Elicitation Methodology)

In this section, two central issues are to be elaborated. The first of which is to present the different data elicitation methodology; in particular, picture description, role play, questionnaire, and observation, interviewing and think-aloud protocols. And the second issue is to evalulate these mentioned elicitation tools.

1.2.5.1. Data Elicitation Methodology and Previous Research

Various research methods have been used by CS researchers for investigating strategy use and eliciting date needed to study CSs (Rababah, 2002; Lam, 2004). Some researchers have used tasks which are purposefully designed to elicit CS; some have used communicative tasks (Rababah, 2002). Their methods of elicitation are different and the major instruments include: picture description (Bialystok & Fröhlich, 1980); picture reconstruction (Bialyslok, 1983); video-taped conversation (Haastrup & Phillipson, 1983); narration (Dechert & Dechert, 1983); instruction (Wagner, 1983); interviewing (Dechert & Dechert, 1983; Abraham & Vann, 1987; Bruen, 2001; O'Malley et al, 1985a/ b; Tarone; 1978) questionnaire (Bruen, 2001; Cohen, Weaver & L-Y, 1996; Dadour & Robbins, 1996; Dörnyei, 1995; Huang & van Naerssen, 1987); observation (Bejarano et at, 1997; Chen, 1990; Chesterfield & Chesterfield, 1985; Dörnyei, 1995; Rost & Ross, 1991; Poulisse & Schils, 1989; Saville-Troike, 1987; Tarone, 1978; Varela, 1997; Wong-Fillmore, 1976), thinking-aloud (Abraham & vann, 1987; Cohen et al, 1996). All studies employed one or a combination of two of these instruments to gauge learners' strategy use (Lam, 2004).

Benali (2013) proposed three different types of data to study CSs. The first is 'interactional data' that includes CR data (ordinary CS interaction between the teacher and learners or between the learners themselves), and interviews (face-to-face interviews and phone or cyber conversations). The second type is 'textual data', that is, written data which is elicited through tasks where the subjects are required to write about a specific topic that will produce the require phenomenon. Spoken data is the third category. It has to do with the date that the researcher elicits through interviews or conversational tasks. This type of data is normally an interactional one that includes introspection where subjects are required to explain why they used certain utterances or strategies, immediately after performing the tasks, to simplify the work of the analyst.

1.2.5.1.1. Picture Description

Often language learners are used to describe uncommon or unfamiliar objects, e.g., 'hammock' (Paribakht, 1985), 'abacus' (Poulisse, 1990). The pictures were sometimes abstract shapes for which there is no name (e.g., Bongaerts & Poulisse, 1989). The learners' task in Bialystok (1983) was to describe the pictures so that the listener could pick out the matching pictures. Green (1995, p. 56) believed that "restrictions may be imposed on both the listener and the speaker". For example, "the reconstractor refrained from speaking as much as possible" (Bialystok, 1983, p. 105), "The listener was not allowed to ask the speaker for any clarification" (Yule and Tarone, 1990, p. 186). Restrictions may also be imposed on the speakers "who are asked to try to convey the items to their interlocutors without using the exact target word" (Paribakht, 1985, p. 134). Description of a related series of drawings is used by some researchers to elicit narrative-like speech (Dechert, 1983; Green, 1995; Varadi, 1983; Yarmohammadi & Seif, 1992), or learners are asked to retell a story they have already heard in L1 (Bongaerts & Poulisse, 1989). Another common task used to elicit CS sis when learners are given a series of instructions for making something, for example, constructing a house or a clay pot from lego blocks (Wagner, 1983), or assembling a christmas tree stand (Yule & Tarone, 1990). Blum-Kulka & Levenston (1983), in their study 'Universals of Lexical Simplification', which aimed to investigate CSs of lexical

simplification, used isolated sentences with single blanks for single missing words (cloze test).

1.2.5.1.2. Role play

It is another type of task used for eliciting CSs, e.g., telephoning a plumber to ask for help (Corrales & Call, 1989), or a customer and waiter role-play (Khanji, 1996), and interviews with native speakers (Poulisse, 1990; Klosek, 1982; Corrales & Call, 1989; Liskin-Gasparro, 1996). Sometimes telephone conversation tasks are used. For example, Green (1995) asked the subjects to assume the role of a German on holiday in England with three friends. The task was ta make a telaphone call to the warden of the youth hotel in York, etc, "The part of the warden was recorded on a tape, together with genuine coin box dialling noises to enhance their sense of reality" (Green, 1995, p. 78).

1.2.5.1.3. Questionnaire

Using questionnaire to assess strategy use has a long established tradition. In fact, they are among the most prevalent ways to assess frequency of language learning strategy use (Rababah, 2002). Bialystok (1981), for example, used a 12-item, structured rating scale to assess strategy use. Politzer (1983) published a four-point strategy scale, consisting of 51 items covering questions on general behaviours, classroom behaviours, and interactions outside the classroom. Politzer & McGoarty (1985) used a similar behaviour questionnaire consisting 66 items. The Learning Strategy Inventory (Chamot, O'Malley, Küpper & Impink-Hernandez, 1987) is a 4-point scale instrument consisting of 48 items and covering language skills areas such as listening, speaking, reading and writing.

Cohen (1998) reported on a study that used a Strategy Checklist following each speaking task. Patterns of strategy use specific to each task were determined through the students' self-ratings of the frequency of use of different strategies. Nakatani (2006) developed an Oral Communication Strategy Inventory. Both speaking and listening skills for interaction are essential for oral communication, thus the OCSI, which aims at assessing learners' use of OCSI, is divided into two parts. The first part examines strategies for coping with speaking problems (N=32). And the second part examines strategies for coping with listening problems (N=26). Perhaps, the most widely used strategy questionnaires that could be applied to the content of second langauge learning is the ESL/ EFL version of SILL (The Stategy Inventory of Language Learning, Oxford, 1989, 1990). Notwithstanding the wide range of questionnaires to assess strategy use, the most obvious weakness is that self-reported data elicited do not necessarily reflect actual behaviours (Rababah, 2002).

1.2.5.1.4. Observation

To observe actual behaviours, observation was therefore used in many studies in early days between the mid-70s and the mid-80s (Abraham & Vann, 1987; Chesterfielf & Chesterfield, 1985; O'Malley et al., 1985 a/ b; Rubin, 1975; Wong-Fillmore, 1976). Observations may be done in an informal way whereby the researcher simply writes down field notes intuitively about learners' behaviours (Rubin, 1975). Alternatively, more sophisticated tools may be used including audio-recorders (Wong-Fillmore, 1976; Chesterfielf & Chesterfield, 1985) or video-recorders (Rubin, 1975; Saville-Troike, 1987). Others, such as O'Malley et al., (1985a/ b), devised observation guides to assist with this research method. For the obvious reason, observational methods can be used for clearly observable learning strategies (Cohen, 1998; Oxford, 1996).

After all, external observational records may help to lend a more impartial, objective perspective to the research study. The researcher noted down observations, which are entirely independent of any input from the learners (Rababah, 2002). As Cohen (1998) pointed out, it is not uncommon that some learners may alter their strategy description when asked about strategy use according to what they think are socially desirable responses. While obsevations are useful in capturing certain kinds of observable

behaviours, it is however agreed that this method cannot be used to investigate covert strategies. Nor can it be used to capture strategies related to the affective state of the learners (Cohen, 1997, 1998; Oxford, 1996).

1.2.5.1.5. Interviewing

In the interviews, informants are asked to verbally describe their learning experiencing that have occurred some time before the interview (Cohen, 1987). Many interviews are based on the tasks that learners have just completed or reported to have completed some time in the past (Manghubai, 1991; O'Malley et al., 1985 a,b; Tarone, 1977). Oxford & Burry-Stock (1995) were with the view that interviews, whether formal or not, provide personised information on many types of strategies that would not be available through observation. Nonetheless, one major problem with interviewing is that students may report strategy use which does not always match actual behaviours (Rababah, 2002). Moreover, interviewing, as suggested by Seliger (1983), is possibly more effective as a method to investigate language learning behaviours in general than a tool for uncovering mental processes as thinking aloud does.

1.2.5.1.6. Thinking-Aloud Protocols

Thinking aloud is known as concurrent verbalisation (Ericsson & Simon, 1980), self-revelation (Cohen, 1987, 1991, 1995, 1998), simultaneous introspection (Faerch & Kasper, 1987), or introspection (Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991). Thinking aloud is a technique used to investigate the subjects' mental processes when performing a task. During the process, the subjects are instructed to verbalise their thought processes freely and normally instantly (Rababah, 2002). The think aloud protocols obtained are unedited (Cohen, 1998; Oxford & Crookall, 1989). The method has been used to investigate strategy use in language areas such as reading (Hosenfeld, 1977), vocabulary (Cohen & Aplek, 1980), listening (Young, 1996) and speaking (Cohen & Olshtain, 1993). One major criticism of using the think-aloud method is that the process of inquiring about strategies may contaminate the nature of the mental processing, thus the strategies identified may not truly reflect learners' usual mental processes (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). Last, learners' ability to articulate their

thoughts varies a lot and this may affect the reliability of the instrument in gauging strategy use across individuals (Rababah, 2002).

1.2.5.2. Evaluation of Data Elicitation Methodology

Despite the fact that all the tasks cited above are successful in eliciting strategic behaviour, many of them seem remote from real-life communication. Maybe for that reason, some researchers have tried to elicit their data by video-taping conversations with native speakers, e.g., face-to-face conversation between Danish learners at various educational levels and native speakers of English conversing about everyday topics (Faerch & Kasper, 1983a), conversation with native speakers (Haastrup & Phillipson, 1983), conversations about incidental matters between native speakers of the Cantonese dialest of Chinese (Klosek, 1982). It is difficult to say that even these conversations represent real-life communication. Even if the subjects feel relaxed, they will still have the feeling of being tested. Their performances or oral production might thus be affected (Rababah, 2002). If researchers are interested in carrying out their research in a natuaral setting, it will be "difficult to control and the results are often problematic to interpret. If a particular phenomenon is the object of study, such as the use of strategies for referential communication, one may have to wait days for any spontaneous emission of relevant data. Further, natural data are the product of a myriad of factors over most of which the researcher has no control and may of which the researcher is unaware" (Bialystok, 1990, p. 161).

Each research instrument has its strengths and weaknesses in assessin strategy use and that the studies that were reviewedemployed mostly one or two types of instuments only (Rababah, 2002). Recently, it is recommended that a triangulation of methods or an eclectic approach whereby one method can be used to offset the inadequacies of the others may be used (McDonough, 1995, 1999). All in all, it is generally believed that a synthesis of approaches to assessing strategy use may yield a fuller picture of learners' strategy use (Oxford, 1996). Notwithstanding this recommendation, there are few guidelines for an eclectic approach to investigating strategy use. One would wonder, for example, under what circumstances and on what language tasks questionnaires may best be used in conjunction with observations,

interviews or think-aloud methods. Few attempts have been made to provide a systematic rationale for the combinations of types of research methods selected to investigate strategy use. It follows that further research adopting a systematic approach to the selection of research methods is warrented (Rababah, 2002; Lam, 2004).

Two central issues were elaborated in this section. The first of which presentd the different data elicitation methodology of CSs; in particular, picture description, role play, questionnaire, and observation, interviewing and think-aloud protocols. And the second issue evalulated these mentioned elicitation tools.

Conclusion:

The primary aim of this chapter was to highlight the significance of raising LLs' awareness about strategy usefulness. It contained five sections. The first was for raising LLs' awareness, i.e., the neuropsychological aspect of language learning was stressed. The second section was devoted for explaining the concept of 'strategy training'. And the outcomes of ST were tackled in the third section. Moreover, the fourth section dealt with the teachability of CSs. Further, the last section was dedicated for researching the types of data for studying CSs in SLA field.

The Impact of Implementing the Direct Approach in Teaching Conversational Strategies on the Development of EFL Learners' Intercultural Communicative Competence

Case Study of First Year and Third Year Students at Sétif 2 University

Chapter Three:

Models of Language Proficiency and Speech Production Frameworks

2021-2022

Chapter Three: Models of Language Proficiency and Speech Production Frameworks

Introduction:

The content of the third chapter is organized in three sections. The first is mainly about models of language proficiency. And the second section is devoted to discuss the relationship between strategic competence and models of language proficiency of SC. Then, aspects of SC are to be elaborated in the third section.

Section One: Models of Language Proficiency

In the first place, the different models of language proficiency are to be introduced in this section. Furthermore, the criticism of these models is to be displayed.

1.3.1.1. Models of Language Proficiency

To have a broad view on the nature of strategic competence, it is important to survey models of langauge proficiency which do not directly refer to the concept but form the milestone endeavours done by language scholars to follow the nature of competence in general (Slęzak-Swiat, 2008). We will start by the 'the pioneering work of Hymes' (Canale, 1988) who has contributed greatly to the understanding of the nature of CC and whose work has been adapted for second language in the work of Canale & Swain (1980, 1983), and later by Bachman (1990) and Bachman & Palmer (1996).

The next model we would like to present is Oller's (1979) Unitary Competence Hypothesis which attempted to describe the construct of competence and it succeeded, as Vollmer & Sang (1983, p. 31) put it, "to force those claiming a divisible model of (foreign) language competence into serious re-consideration of their respective assumptions, thus stimulating a period of fruitful controversy and international discussion". Cummin's CALP/ BICs framework (1979, 1983) which contributed immensely to the understanding of the construct of langauge proficiency as well as Interactional Competence Theory put forward by Hall (1993, 1995); He & Young (1998); Young (1999). This theory has been the result of multi-disciplinary research on interaction and constitutes a major change to the earlier models of CC. The origins of the Interactional Competence Theory may be traced back to Vygotsky's (1978)

sociocultural theory which was also applied by Johnson (2001) to build Practical Oral Language Ability. Also, Skehan's (1998) Ability for Use is presented.

1.3.1.1.1. Communicative Competence Model

The notion of CC was Hymes' (1972) reaction to Chomsky's (1965) notion of competence, who made a fubdamental distinction between competence (the speaker-hearer's knowledge of the langauge), and performance (the actual use of the language in concrete situations). To the notion of competence, Hymes (1972) added the 'communicative' element describing it as "rules of use without which the rules of grammar would be useless. Just as rules of syntax can control aspects pf 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, p. 278).

As a matter of fact, Hymes (1972, p. 281) identified four parameters of CC, which compose a body of interacting systems: (1) grammatical (which is formally possible); (2) psycholinguistic (wgich is feasible in terms of human information processing); (3) psycho-cultural (what is the social meaning or value of a given utterance) and (4) probabilistic (what actually occurs). He argued that, "we have then to account for the fact that a normal child acquires knowledge of sentences, not only as grammatical, but also as appropriate. He or she acquires competence as to when to speak, when not and as to what to talk to about with whom, when, where, in what manner" (Hymes, 1972, p. 277).

Hymes (1972, p. 280) observed ambiguity in the way Chomsky interpreted linguistic performance. To illustrate problems in the way the term is used, he (1972, p. 280) contrasted "(underlying) competence vs. (actual) performance; and (underlying) grammatical competence vs. (underlying) models/ rules of performance". By contrasting these two meaning he (1972) differentiated between underlying model of performance (potential for use) considered a part of competence, which is termed 'ability for use' and actual instances of use (actual performance). "The specification of ability for use as part of competence allows for the role of noncognitive factors, such as motivation, as partly determining competence" (Hymes, 1972, p. 283). Hymes (1972, p. 283) also reported other "capacities in interaction such as courage, gamaness,

gallantry, composure, presence of mind, dignity, stage of confidence" which are conductive to the development of the 'ability for use' which is referred by Skehan (1998) who, however, analyzed it without reference to the above mentioned capacities which he considers to be affective factors. Hymes' (1972, p. 283) interest in "the other capacities" being conductive to the development of 'ability for use' is significan here as the qualities enumerated by him would perfectly describe an advanced user of FL whom we associate with the skilled strategist.

Undoutedly, Hymes' perception of 'ability for use' exerted enormous influence on Bachman and Palmer's (1996) componential definition of strategies competence as well as on Interactional Competence Theory (Young, 1999) and Johnson's (2001) Practical Oral Langauge Ability. We can find reminiscences of Hymes' (1972, p. 277) idea that a speaker needs to acquire "competence as to when to speak, when not and as to what to talk to about with whom, when, where, in what manner" in Wittgenstein's (2004, p. 56) claim that in communication there is "drop of grammar and the ocean of meaning" and Burling's (2005) observation that "language evolved as one part of an evolving mind but, from the start, linguistic ability was selected to help one mind communicate with another, not to help us with our private thoughts".

1.3.1.2. Criticism of Language Proficiency Models

All the above presented models have received criticism. With regard to the four constituents of CC proposed in Hymes' (1972) model, Widdowson (2001) stressed that he did not indicate what their relationship was. Taylor (1998) pointed that Hymes (1972) did not expand Chomsky's (1965) original concept of competence but only change dit in a subtle way to which we cannot agree as we presume Hymes' (1972) 'ability for use' to be a landmark in the attempts to define language proficiency as it is fiendishly difficult to indicate the relashionships between the particular components of CC due to parallel data processing (involving both cortical and subcortical regions of the brain). In Voller & Sang's (1983, p. 31) view "The Unitary Competence Hypothesis has perhaps never been explained well enough in theoretical terms" and they observe that "the evidence on which the UCH was based was not as clear-cut or as strong as was suggested". Bachman (1990, p. 673) emphasized that "the unitary trait

has been replaced, through both empirical research and theorizing by the view that language proficiency is multi-componential, consisting of a number of specific abilities as well as a general ability or set of general strategies or procedures".

Cummins' (1974, 1984) framework was criticized for the use of terms 'basic interpersonal communicative skills' and 'cognitive/ academic language proficiency' and the acronyms BICS and CALP. For Spolsky (1984), these terms are highly value-loaded and too vague. The fact that Cummins' (1984) framework was devoid of sociocultural factors brought on him very much croticism from his opponents (Canale, 1984; Troike, 1984). McNamara (1996) recognized problems with Interactional Competence Theory (Hall, 1993, 1995; He & Young, 1998; Young, 1999) and adopting a social perspective on the nature of interaction and sees the need for more research on interlocutor characteristics and behaviour. The aim of such research would be "to make us fully aware of the nature and significance of assessment as a social act" (McNamara, 1996, p. 460). Skehan's (1998) 'ability for use' lacks the reference to the affective factors underlying communication and in our opinion the 'lexical' and 'syntactic' mode resemble too much BICs and CALP of Cummins (1979, 1984) respectively (Slęzak-Swiat, 2008). Johnson's (2001) Practical Oral Language Ability marked a change in the perception of language ability and make researchers reconsider a paradigm of what second language ability is, although it does not include affective factors which are taken into consideration in Bachman (1990) and Bachman & Palmer's (1996) models of communicative language ability (Slęzak-Swiat, 2008).

In the first place, the different models of language proficiency were introduced in this section. Furthermore, the criticism of these models was displayed.

Section Two: SC and Models of Language proficiency of SC

In this section, the relationship between strategic approach and reality of language teaching is to be discussed. Then, we tackle how the different models of language proficieny recognized the importance of SC.

1.3.2.1. Strategic Approach and Reality of language Teaching

Language teaching has traditionally been aimed at developing linguistic competence and the strategic competence is the most neglected by language course books and teachers, although it is of crucial importance for foreign language LLs (Dörnyei & Thurrell, 1991; Jidong, 2011). One area of IL studies deals with the use of strategies in IL communication (Kalebic, 2007). Faerch & kasper (1983) distinguishd two types of IL use with regard to the use of strategies. The first type refers to LLs' use of ILs "without experiencing any problems in planning and executing their utterances, or in taking in their interlocutors' speech" (p. xviii). When LLs are not able to use ILs in an 'unproblematic' manner they might resort to strategies to cope with the problems.

Thus, Faerch & Kasper (1983) differentiated between strategic and non-strategic IL use. Canale & Swain (1980, p. 30) suggested that strategic competence, "verbal and non-verbal communication strategies that may be called into action to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to performance variables or insufficient competence" should be part of CC. This means that a non-native speaker should be able to cope with communication breakdowns in order to get the meaning across. Canale & Swain's discussion on SC stressed the cognitive versatility needed by the second language learner in using an imperfectly known language for efficient communication (Stern, 1992).

Canale (1983) pointed out that LLs must be encouraged to use CSs (rather than remain silent if they cannot produce grammatically accurate forms, for example) and must be given opportunity to use them. In other words, Dörnyei & Thurrell (1991) postulated that learning to deploy CSs facilitates the development of SC which is defined as one's "ability to get one's meaning across succeccfully to communicative partners, especially when problems arise in the communication process" (p. 17). The teaching of the strategic competence is particularly relevant to the FL classroom not least because the mastery of linguistic ability alone does not guarantee success in using an L2 in oral communication. Very often, L2 speakers have a shortfall in the ability to keep going when there is a communication hiccup (Lam, 2005). Dörnyei & Thurrell (1991) argued for the training of CSs in the language classroom on the grounds that the teaching strengthens learners' SC, which is part and parcel of the language ability

to overcome communication problems and to keep going. Very few teachers are aware of the value of strategy use in developing intercative skills for oral communication in the English as a second language classroom (Lam, 2004; Lam & Wong, 2000).

It appears that Strategic Instruction (SI) facilitated students' development of at least two underlying competencies: linguistic and interactional (Palmer, 1979; Canale & Swain, 1980). It is also posited that SI students' diminished use of CS indicate a hifg degree of control over the activity, as proposed by the Vygotskian paradigm (Vygotsky, 1962). There indeed seems to be a relationship between the instructional method and some learner variables that made SI students' more effective in their conversation with the interviewers (Labarca & Khanji, 1986). Thus it is apparent that significant gains were made by engaging a group of students in interactional activities of the kind used in the SI approach.

Because such activities often require performance before competence is developed, this study seems to provide at least an answer to the following question, "Would it be feasible to have learners engage in communicative situations in the classroom which require a more extensive knowledge of L2 than that which the learners can be expected to have?" (Faerch and Kasper, 1983, p. 55). For Hatch (1978, p. 404), "Language learning evolves out of learning how to carry on conversations". The impact of the instructional method on the development of the ability to carry on conversations is probably the single most important finding of Labarca & Khanji's (1986) study. As Faerch & Kasper (1983, p. xviii), "the context in which the learner has learned his interlanguage seems particularly powerful".

For Konishi & Tarone (2004), communication strategy training is an effective pedagogical tool for ESL communication language teaching. The instruction provides LLs with both communicative practice and the opportunity to learn a core set of English linguistic expressions. This way, learning to use CS has language learning potential. This study also argues that the effective employment of CS is closely associated with the development of SC. Moreover, Dörnyei & Thurrell (1991) postulated that learning to deploy CSs facilitates the development of SC. Incorporating the learner's ability to handle CSs as an integral part of his general CC has been

suggested by Canale & Swain (1980), who refer to this ability of using CSs as the learner's SC ; a strategic approach to L2 learning and communication is in perfect line with cognitivist ideas of the creative aspects of language (Faerch & Kasper, 1980). More specifically, in its focusing on the totality of the learner's communicative ability, the notion of SC is in accordance with recent attempts to rehabiliate the learner's knowledge and abilities from communication in the first language as a potentially valuable factor in L2 learning and communication (ibid).

1.3.2.2. Models of Language proficiency Recognizing the Importance of SC

Canale & Swain's (1980) framework as well as Duquette's (1998) model of CC recognize SC as an important component of CC although they neither assign it a central role nor differentiate between its components. Canale & Swain's (1980) framework constitutes valuable contribution to language teaching theory as it "dominated the field for a decade" (McNamara, 1996, p. 61). McNamara (1996) found the framework valuable due to the introduction of new sub-components within CC. Canale & Swain (1980) introduced into teaching many applications of their theoretical framework in communicative approach, such as syllabus design, teaching methodology, teacher training and the development of materials. The framework also served as the basis for Bachman (1990) in the development of Communicative Language Ability Model. Duquette et al., (1988) defined the notion of SC, basing on the premise that there is not single, precise model of CC and they suggested their own interpretation of the concept of CC dividing it into five micro-competences. Compensatory nature of SC: Canale & Swain (1980) were the first to differentiate the components of CC into grammar, discourse, sociolinguistic and strategic ones. Canale & Swain (1980) defined grammatical competence as consisting of knowledge of vocabulary, morphological rules, syntactic rules, word and sentence-level semantics, and phonology.

Sociolinguistic competence is defined by Canale & Swain (1980) as the mastery of sociocultural rules of use and rules of discourse, which emphasize the appropriateness (of meaning and form) of producing and understanding utterances in different sociocultural contexts. Rules of discourse are described in terms of cohesion

(grammatical links) and coherence (appropriate combinations of communicative functions). In their framework, Canale & Swain (1980) used the term CC in a completely different way from Hymes (1972), and limit it only to language knowledge (McNamara, 1996). Contrary to Hymes (1972), Canale & Swain (1980) considered 'ability for use' a part of communicative performance since it includes "factors such as volition, motivation, and pathology (organic or functional) that may influence the range of choices of action one has in a given domain". Later Canale (1983) distinguished between performance, which he called actual communication, and the knowledge and skills underlying it.

Canale & Swain (1980) restricted SC to operation on non-erroneous structures to compensate and improvise in case of a communication breakdown referred to as a sort of 'proceduralized resourcefulness' (Skehan, 1998) restricting its operation to compensation and improvisation. Canale & Swain (1980) were the first to include SC as a separate component in their framework of CC. They described SC as providing compensatory function when the linguistic competence of the language user sis inadequate, "Strategic competence…will be made up of verbal and nonverbal communication strategies that may be called into action to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to performance variables or to insufficient competence" (Canale & Swain, 1980, p. 30).

In 1983, Canale developed the framework by differentiating between sociolinguistic competence and discourse competence. The researcher defines discourse competence as "mastery how to combine grammatical forms and meanings to achieve a unified spoken and written texts in different genres. Unitary of text is achieved through cohesion in form and coherence and meaning" (Canale, 1983, p. 9). Canale (1983) extended this definition of SC to include the compensatory characteristic of CSs and the enhancement characteristic of production strategies, "Strategic competence: mastery of verbal and nonverbal strategies both (a) to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to insufficient competence or to performance limitation and (b) to enhance rhetorical effect of utterances" (Canale, 1983, p. 339). The function of SC,

which is indicated by Canale & Swain (1980) is of facilitative nature, yet they neither defined or described the mechanisms according to which SC operates.

This model has been criticised for not having accounted for the interactions between the components (Shohamy, 1988). And their division (Widdowson, 2001). Canale himself (1984) recognized the problems, "Although this theoretical framework is based on a broad range of research and does not serve to identify the general content and boundaries of communicative competence, it is inadequate in important ways. For example, there is little evidence for its correctness; it is not known whether certain of its components are more or less crucial than other at various stages of first and second language acquisition; and little substance can be said of the manner in which these components interact at different stages of language acquisition"(Canale, 1984, p. 112).

The extension of the first theoretical model of SC with its enhancing rhetorical effect characteristic of CSs marks a significant change in the perception of the concept. Strategising here is associated with conscious attempt made to exert impact on the interlocutor (Slęzak-Swiat, 2008). The problem with Canale & Swain (1980) understanding of the concept is that thet did not research the extent to which these attempts are conscious ones or fully automatised and applied unconsciously. The differentiation of SC from grammar, discourse, sociolinguistic competences is Canale and Swain's (1980) cutting edge enhancement. They were the first to grasp the gradability of competence and dynamic nature of SC by means of focalising CS which as the observable outcome of determining, or not, the goal of communication, assessment and planning (Slęzak-Swiat, 2008). The drawback of Canale's (1983) model is that it is limited to the application of CSs (which is considered to be the execution component) without taking into consideration other components like goal setting, assessing and planning (Slęzak-Swiat, 2008).

1.3.2.2.1. Bachman and Palmer's vs Canale and Swain's Model of Strategic Competence

Bachman (1990) developed Canale & Swain's (1980) concept of communicative competence further into Communicative Language Ability which extends earlier models in characterizing the process by which the various components interact with

one another and with the context in which language use occurs. Here the equivalent of communicative competence is language competence, which is one of the components of Communicative Language Ability. Bachman (1990) defined language ability as involving two components: language competence, 1anguage knowledge, and strategic competence. According to Bachman (1990), the notion of communicative competence, or communicative ability, has evolved in the following four ways in the past decade, taking into account, "1. Recognition of a much broader range of components; 2. Recognition that these components are not discrete, and that they interact with each other; 3. Consideration of how components of competence interact with other cognitive abilities and processes; 4. Recognition that language ability includes the capacity for interacting with the context" (Bachman & Cohen, 1998, p. 6).

Further, Skehan (1998, p. 163) pointed out that there are significant differences between the Canale & Swain's (1980) framework and the Bachman (1990) model. First of all, the Bachman model is discussed as a tree structure of components. Significant changes here are, " -the more complex layering of language competence, with its own internal organization, contrasting organizational (code) and pragmatic (contextual) competences: - the movement of textual competence (to the extent that this bears a close relationship to Canale & Swain`s discourse competence) to become part of a structurally organized and somewhat autonomous knowledge base; - a more complex account of pragmatic knowledge, embracing illocutionary competence and sociolinguistic competence, and broadly concerned with knowledge of how to use language appropriately and effectively in different contexts; - the greater status of strategic competence, since it is given some sort of equality to language competence" (Skehan, 1998, pp. 159-161).

The comparison Skehan (1998) provided does not take into consideration the amended model of strategic competence provided by Bachman & Palmer (1996). The model constitutes the most salient change to the previous ones as it includes the affective factor which had not been mentioned before and which is also avoided by Skehan (1998) who in the preface to his book declared that he would focus only on the cognitive aspect of communication whilst according to neurolinguistic theories affect constitutes an indispensable element of the cognition (Slęzak-Swiat, 2008).

1.3.2.2.1.1. Criticism of Bachman & Palmer's Model

Skehan (1998, p. 165) claimed that Bachman & Palmer's (1996) model lacks a rationale grounded in psycholinguistic mechanisms and processes (and research findings) which makes it impossible for such a model to move beyond 'check list' status and make functional statements about the nature of performance and the way it is grounded in competence. The fact emphasised by Skehan (1998) is that the processes governing communication will occur for most of the time without undue need for attention, only revealing themselves more obviously when communication problems are encountered. But they are pervasive and unavoidable. Even if what we do is formulating meanings for which we easily have the appropriate communicative resources, and then plan the details of what we want to say and execute them, we are still following the same basic set of processes (Slęzak-Swiat, 2008).

The four mentioned components (determining communicative goals, assessing communicative resources, planning communication and executing communication) have been criticised by Skehan (1998) for being just a mere check list, not revealing what happens in our cognitive system in the brain. Skehan (1998) claimed that characterizing strategic competence by means of its components begs many questions. The most central is whether constructs such as assessment, goal setting, and so on are more than programmatic labels for stages which may have a more conceptual than psycholinguistic role in actual communication. It is Skehan's (1998) criticism which immensely contributed to the onset of the idea of our research and the way we perceive strategic competence. After having conducted the research we will attempt to take a position on Skehan's (1998) criticism of the CLA model (Bachman & Palmer, 1996) and reformulate the componentially oriented definition of strategic competence which we assume to be a working one for the purpose of our study on its components (Slęzak-Swiat, 2008).

In this section, the relationship between strategic approach and reality of language teaching was discussed. Then, we tackled how the different models of language proficieny recognized the importance of SC.

Section Three: Aspects of Strategic Competence

The three aspects of SC are to be delivered in this section. The first is the goal setting and planning component, i.e., the cognitive and metacognitive aspects of SC. And the second aspect is the assessment component, i.e., the neurolinguistic aspect of SC. Then, the execution component, i.e., the correlation between CSs and SC, is to be dealt with.

1.3.3.1.Cognitive and Metacognitive Aspects of Strategic Competence: Goal Setting and Planning Component

The first two components distinguished by Bachman & Palmer (1996) were 'goal setting and planning'. Further, O'Malley & Chamot (1990) highlighted the fact that language learning can be more effective if deliberate learners' behaviours are to be taken into consideration.

1.3.3.1.1. Theories of Cognitive Development vs. Goal Setting and Planning Components

The first theory which reflects Bachman & Palmer's (1996) decision to divide SC into elements is Sternberg's (1980) theory of cognitive enhancement in which strategies operate as having three component-processes: metacognitive, performance and knowledge-acquisition. The first element is responsible for the strategic behaviour (Slęak-Swiat, 2008). It is composed of six main processes: "- decide what the problem is - select lower-order components to effect solution - select a strategy for combining lower-order components - select organization of information upon which lower-order components and strategies can act - decide on an appropriate rate for problem-solving, and - monitor progress toward solution" (Sternberg, 1980, p. 145). That is, 'strategy' in Sternberg's (1980) terms is part of the executive function of problem-solving (approaching the task) and functions at the highest level for guiding the remedy. In addition, Sternberg's (1980) theory is based on analytic processing of information and affective processes underlying decision taking are not taken into consideration. The second theory that deals with the issue of how a specific strategy is opted rather than the description of how the processes work is Siegler and his colleagues' (Siegler & Shrager, 1984; Siegler, 1988a,b) model.

In fact, Siegler & Shrager (1984) highlighted that strategy is a critical issue in problem solving and the selection of strategy is dependent on both aspects: the present state of knowledge and the kind of problem being asked. They distinguished between solutions which are more or less strategic by displaying the distinction between retrieval strategies and back-up ones. In fact, a 'back-up strategy' is understood by them 'as any strategy other than retrieval' which are more accurate and used for harder problemss while retrieval are fast to use and utilized for easy hiccups.Also, the model has three stages which are tailored by Sielger & Shrager (1984) to be three sequential processes in handling the problem: retrieval, elaboration of the representation, and the use of a back-up strategy. The development contains the move from dependence on back-up strategies to greater implementation of retrieval ones. In these strategies, Siegler & Shrager (1984) argued that we can depict similar features to both assessment component (Bachman & Palmer, 1996) – elaboration on the representation as well as to CS of compensation and juxtapose it with back-up strategies.

The third theory of cognitive development is based on Brown et al.'s research (1983) in which they stated that there is a qualitative contrast between strategic and non-strategic solutions to problems, and the strategic approaches, which can be recognized and taught. However, in their research, there is no definite standards for determining what the strategic and non-strategic behaviours are. They are only arranged as being more or less strategic in reference to problematic situations. In their investigation, Brown et al. (1983) explored the behaviour of children at different age spans when carrying out a number of tasks. They (1983, p. 95) came to conclude that it is the structuring of strategies which allow advantage to older and more proficient learners by stating that "it is the coherence, sturdiness, and resistance to counter suggestion that sets the older child apart from the very young learner". Furthermore, the constituents that Brown et al. (1983) associated as determining a child's problem solving are: (1) learning activities, including attention, rehearsal, elaboration; (2) nature of the materials, including physical and psychological structure and conceptual difficulty; (3) criterial tasks, such as recognition, recall, problem solving; and (4) characteristics of the learner, including skills, knowledge and attitudes.

1.3.3.1.2. Cognitive Theories of Language Production vs. Goal Setting and Planning

First of all, Anderson (1983) declared that the stages of language production can be recursive after the first communication goal is initiated. In other terms, once a speaker has determined what to communicate, he/ she may go back and forth between the processes of construction, transformation, and execution as the message is expanded. For, Hayes Flower (1980), in the construction stage the speaker selects communication goals and pinpoints adequate meanings. This decision is based on the targets the speaker has for language production. Once a person has named the objectives to be served through language generation, the second step is to choose the facts/ details to be delivered. This necessitates a search through declarative knowledge and identification of information fitting to the functional target highlighed. Moreover, the third step in the construction stage is to decide how to structure the information sorted out.

This is akin to both Hymes' (1972) argument that "a child acquires competence as to when to speak, when not" and Bachman & Plamer's (1996) formulation that goal setting engages the language learner/ user in identifying and selecting one or many tasks he/ she might attempt to complete, and deciding if or not to claim to finish the task(s) we can observe that they comply. In the transformation stage, language rules are used to alter intended meanings into the form of the message which again can be compared to the assessment element of SC (Bachman & Palmer, 1996). Besides, in the execution stage, the message is communicated in its audible or observable configuration. In point of fact, Anderson (1983) reported the properties of the construction and transformation phases, which demand higher-level processes, but solely connects the execution stage as involving "the mouth and the hands" (1983, p. 375).

By the same token, the subsequent model of language production similar to Anderson's (1983) has been offered by Clark & Clark (1977) and implemented to second language production by Littlewood (1979) and Ellis (1986). This is also a three-stage model that incorporates: planning, articulating the language elemnents to the plan, and the physical production of the utterance. The first two stages are

recursive, as the individual moves back and forth between planning what to say and articulating how to say it. The planning stage consists of initiating a goal for communication and developing plans at the discourse, sentence, and constituent echelons. This stage alternates with the articulatory stage, in which the speaker picks the meaning for each constituent, identifies its basic syntactic structure, chooses first the content and then the function words and affixes, and lastly picks up the phonetic realization of the constituent to be uttered. At this point the "motor program," or physical production of the utterance, takes place (Slęzak-Swiat, 2008). Hence, Ellis (1994) cut up strategies for language production into planning strategies, which encompass either semantic or linguistic simplification, and correcting strategies, which include monitoring.

The last cognitive model of language production is Levelt's (1989) model of speech production which is quite similar to the one presented by Anderson (1983). Anderson's (1983) construction stage in which the speaker chooses communication ends and specifies suitable meanings dovetails to the conceptualisation stage in Levelt's (1989) model in which it is delineated as preverbal construction of communicative intention. The other step is the formulation stage which portrays syntactic and then phonetic specification onto lemma and which is comparable to Anderson's (1983) transformation stage in which language rules are applied to modify intentional meanings into the form of a message. And the last step in both theories has to do with actual speech production monitored by the speaker. In Levelt's (1989) theory, it is mentioned to as 'articulation stage'.

In addition, Krauss, Chen & Gottesman (2000) held forth this proposed model by the nonverbal modality. Their model also contains conceptualisation stage which is based on declarative and procedural knowledge in the construction of communicative goal. The result of conceptualisation stage is a conceptual structure including a number of semantic specifications which are referred by Levelt (1989) as a preverbal message. At the formulating stage, the conceptual structure is transformed in two ways. First, a grammatical encoder maps the to-be –lexicalised concept onto a lemma (e.g. an abstract symbol representing the selected word as a semantic-syntactic entity) in the mental lexicon whose meaning matches the content of the preverbal message. Using

information contained in the lemma, the conceptual structure is altered into a surface structure and then by accessing word forms stored in lexical memory and constructing an appropriate plan, a phonological encoder transforms this surface structure into a phonetic plan. The output of the articulatory stage is overt speech, which the speaker monitors and utilizes as a reference of corrective feedback. Also, Kraus, Chen & Gottesman's (2000) model is the first which involves description of the speech-gesture production process. However, The pitfall of the previously mentioned models is that they do not have the assessment component which permits for strategising and this is what differentiates Bachman & Palmer's (1996) model of SC from the cognitive models of language production. For instance, Skehan (1998), in his cognitive stance to language processing, circumvented the affective aspect of language, contemplating it to be a distinct field of research.

1.3.3.1.3. Metacognitive Strategies and Strategic Competence

SC seen as a set of metacognitive strategies (Bachman & Palmer, 1996) was debated above from a linguistic viewpoint. In this heading, we will present it from a cognitive angle. According to O'Malley (1993), procedural knowledge is the crucial mechanism through which control over cognition is exercised in Anderson's (1985) theory. Lachman & Lachman (1979) divided between declarative knowledge and procedural knowledge by employing a computer analogy - the former looks like stored data, while the latter is the software program. In the cognitive phase, the knowledge of strategies is purely declarative and its application entails controlled processing, which needs conscious effort; in the associative stage the declarative knowledge is gradually turned into its procedural form. And procedural knowledge as defined in production systems is exercised to examine, test, and change the procedural system as well as to extend the system's range of control. Production systems by definition have a goal statement as the condition (IF) preceding an action (THEN), and therefore permit direction in planning future thoughts or behaviour (Slęzak-Swiat, 2008).

Planning is a main metacognitive strategy for SLA, involved in directing the course of reception and production. According to Anderson (1983), it is a procedure for dispute resolution among competing action statements that appeals to the conditional

clause in the production system. Planning may be guided by ends or by input characteristics that appear most useful for performing a task orexpressing an idea. The importance of targets is put forward in the difference between top-down processing, which takes advantage of known information, and bottom-up processing, which commences with qualities of the input. Learners are often regarded as topdown processors who sequentially filter higher-level ends into attainable actions. Anderson (1983) proposed that individuals may also plan opportunistically and shift between top-down and bottom-up processing, depending on the task demands. Control processes and opportunistic planning involve monitoring, because a learner will analyze task demands to decide the task hardness and the appropriateness of using top-down or bottom-up processing. Monitoring in Anderson's (1983) view, is a reaction to ambiguity in comprehending the language where an individual chooses a guess of the message's meaning based on accessible information. Inferencing skills are clearly called for in the way that Anderson employs the term monitoring.

1.3.3.2. Neurolinguistic Aspect of Strategic Competence: Assessment Component

In the previous heading, we tackled the concept of SC and its goal setting and planning elements from the perspective of cognitive science. However, the key point in Bachman & Palmer's (1996) model of competence is assigned to affect. This is the reason why we would like to investigate the assessment component from the point of view of neurolinguistic science. It is agreed by neurolinguists that language scopes are responsible for language production, reception and processing. As a matter of fact, the interaction of cortical language areas is being investigated in reliance to subcortical structures such as 'the limbic system'. The latter is responsible for assigning value to the incoming stimuli. This agrees with Bachman's (1998) claim that assessment also takes into consideration the individual's affective responses in the application of assessment. Assessment component according to Bachman & Palmer (1996) enables language users to: identify the information – including the language variety, or dialect – that is needed for realizing a particular communicative goal in a given context; determine what language competences (native language, second or foreign language) are at our disposal for most effectively bringing that information to bear in realizing the communicative target; determine the abilities and knowledge that are partaken by

our interlocutor; following the communication endeavour, assess the extent to which the communicative end has been attained. In this vein Bachman (1998) clarified that the assessment component functions in three directions. The first is referred to as assessment of the features of the language use or test task. The second is assessment of the individual's own topical and language knowledge. And the third is referred to as assessment of the correctness or appropriateness of the response to the test task.

Following Damasio's (1994) defence that not only is the mind embrained but the brain is embodied we attempt to approach the issue of strategic competence from the point of view of neurolinguistic science. According to Schumann (1997), cognition is controlled by acquired value. We cognize on value, and value is expressed in stimulus appraisals. Thus in SLA our perception, attention, memory and behaviour are based on value as expressed in our stimulus appraisals. It is the limbic system which evaluates the incoming stimuli and sends a fight or flight signals to neocortex where it is cognitively processes and rationally justified. Schumann (1997) further stated that variable success in SLA is the product of the history of one's stimulus appraisals, whose influence on second language learning is highly variable, and essentially unique for each individual the similar applies to expressing ideas. The only thing that is universal about affective impact on SLA is the neural mechanism subserving it. The biological appraisal system starts out with some innate tendencies that improve survival, but very quickly the individual starts to acquire a system of somatic value based on their experience in the universe. This value system comprises of individual preferences and aversions that cause learners to react uniquely to various communicative situations and to achieve varying levels of proficiency in the second language (Slęzak-Swiat, 2008).

1.3.3.3. Conversational Strategies and Strategic Competence: Execution Component

Bachman & Palmer (1996) viewed SC as a number of metacognitive strategies enumerating goal setting as one of the first major components and Faerch & Kasper (1983) argued that to achieve desired communicative goal a range of devices may be drawn to send the intended meaning or even to leave the original meaning and resort to a simpler and more easily achieved target. The devices Faerch & Kasper (1983) referred to as are CSs – the term which was first used by Selinker (1972) who attempted to account for how the learner makes use of existing knowledge to cope with communication difficulties as well as explains the source of errors made by foreign language learners. While generally agreeing that CSs come out from the failure to achieve a language production end. Faerch & Kasper (1983) claimed that communication strategies may require a "psycholinguistic" finding to the communication problem instead of the one which relies upon the negotiation of meaning. According to Tarone (1976), production strategies are used to accomplish communication goals; they reflect an interest in using the language system efficiently and clearly without excessive attempt which can be illustated by the use of prepatterned chuncks and discourse planning. CSs are an adaptation to the failure to realize a language production end. They therefore serve a crucial role in negotiating meaning between speakers.

The three elementss of SC were delivered in this section. The first was the goal setting and planning component, i.e., the cognitive and metacognitive aspects of SC. And the second aspect was the assessment component, i.e., the neurolinguistic aspect of SC. Then, the execution component, i.e., the correlation between CSs and SC, was dealt with.

Conclusion:

The content of the third chapter was organized in three sections. The first was mainly about models of language proficiency. And the second section was devoted to discuss the relationship between strategic competence and models of language proficiency of SC. Then, aspects of SC were elaborated in the third section.

The Impact of Implementing the Direct Approach in Teaching Conversational Strategies on the Development of EFL Learners' Intercultural Communicative Competence
Case Study of First Year and Third Year Students at Sétif 2 University

Part Two:
Empirical Study

2021-2022

Chapter Four: Empirical Study

Introduction:

The fourth chapter is dedicated to tackle a number of methodological issues. The first part presents the study's research questions and hypotheses. Then, the research design is thoroughly explained. After, the research variables are distinguished. Moreover, the setting, learners' profiles and sampling techniques are discussed. Further, data collection tools are well stated. In addition, data collection procedures are expounded. And the last part of this chapter presents the data analyses methods.

2.4.1. Research Questions and Hypotheses

The main objectives of the present investigation are to raise EFL learners' awareness about the use and usefulness of CSs and to gauge the impact of training CSs through the direct approach on the development of EFL learners' communicative competence. To achieve these goals, the subsequent research questions and hypotheses were proposed:

2.4.1.1. Research Questions

1.Do our learners use communication strategies (CSs) in their speaking tasks ?

2.Does explicit stragegy training have a direct impact on the development of learners' ICC? i.e., what are the effects of teaching CSs on learners' actual use of these strategies?

3.Are students able to identify the types of CSs they use in the speaking tasks ?

4.What are the students' attitudes towards strategy training and the usefulness of CSs through the direct approach ?

2.4.1.2. Hypotheses

2.4.1.2.1. Null Hypotheses

It is hypothesized that there will be no difference between learners' CSs use prior and after CS training.

It is hypothesized that CSs training programme will not affect the development of EFL learners' ICC.

2.4.1.2.2. Nondirectional Hypotheses

If learners receive CSs training, then their ICC will be developed.

The more EFL learners receive strategy training, the more conversational strategies will be used.

2.4.2. Research Design

A research design is the researcher's choice of the constituents of his project. It is the outlining phase of the research which dwells upon a number of elements organized logically and systematically with the purpose of visualizing its practicability. The choice of research components is done in the light of the main objectives of the research, addressing the problem under investigation. A research design consists of the following elements: research methods and strategy, sampling techniques, choice of data gathering instruments, validity and reliability concerns, and choice of statistical techniques (Singh, 2006). To put it simply, "research design is a mapping strategy. It is essentially a statement of the object of the inquiry and the strategies for collecting the evidences, analysing the evidences and reporting the findings" (ibid, p. 77).

2.4.3. Interventionist Studies and Strategy-Based Instruction (SBI)

In the field of teaching language learner strategies, McDonough (1995) divided the studies on intervention by teaching strategies into a general group and a specific group. In the general group, studies have aimed at teaching strategies for overcoming a number of learning problems encountered in several aspects of language learning. In the specific group, the studies have explored what has been learned from attempting to teach particular staregies (McDonough, 1995; Kongsom, 2009). However, McDonough suggested that both groups share the following central questions, "Can strategies be taught? Do students use the taught strategies? Do students who use the taught strategies perform better (than previously or than other students not so taught)?" (1995, p. 97). According to Rubin et al., (2006), the aim of strategy intervention or teaching language learner strategies is to explore "the extent to which it enables students to become more effective language learners" (p. 154). The concept of language learner strategies involves the teaching of learning strategies and/ or CSs in the language classroom. And the practice of implementing instruction in language learner strategies is referred to as SBI.

According to Cohen (1998), SBI is "learner centered approach to teaching that extends classroom strategy training to include both explicit and implicit integration of strategies into the course content" (p. 81). And teachers have three options, "(1) start with the established course materials and then determine which strategies to insert and where; (2) start with a set of strategies that they wish to focus on and design activities around them; and (3) insert strategies spontaneously in the lessons whenever it seems appropriate, e.g., to help students overcome problems with difficult material or to speed up the lesson" (ibid, p. 82). In the current investigation, the researcher adopted the six procedures of strategy training proposed by Dörnyei (1995): raising learner awareness about the nature and communicative potential of CSs; encouraging students to be willing to take risks and use CSs; providing L2 models of the use of certain CSs; highlighting cross-cultural differences in CS use; and teaching CSs directly; and then providing opportunities for practice in strategy use.

2.4.4. Case Study Design

Case study is a type of research design and analysis, which Gall, Gall, & Borg (2003) characterized as the "most widely used approach to qualitative research in education" (p. 433). Moreover, in case studies, investigators are allowed to examine data firmly in particular settings. That is, a case study is bound to a specific limited geographical area with a limited number of people. The education researchers Gall et al. (2003) described case study research as "the in-depth study of instances of a phenomenon in its natural context and from the perspective of the participants involved in the phenomenon" (p. 436).

In the current research, our phenomenon is the effect of teaching CSs on developing EFL learners' ICC. And this intervention was in their natural learning setting, i.e., The Department of English Language and Literature at Mohamad Lamine Debaghine (Sétif 2) University. Furthermore, the investigation dealt with two different case studies: first year and third year undergraduate students. The aim behind selecting these years was first to investigate the CSs used by students at their first year, i.e., to gauge their linguistic repertoire and strategy use they got or gained from a long educational journey in English both at the middle and high schools. Also, to scritinize the CSs used by students at their final year in the undergraduate level. In other words, the use of CSs

was a sign of learners' ICC development. Hence, the question was 'Do the Algerian educational system and then university help learners to be strategically competent?' , i.e., what does the educational system add to LLs' ICC? And what does the university do to develop LLs' CC?

2.4.5. Research Variables

The focal point of any experimental research is to examine the cause and effect relationship between two or more variables. A variable is any feature or aspect of an event function or process that, by its presence and nature, affects some other event or process, which is being studied (Singh, 2006). In other terms, a variable is a feature which influences an event, a process, or a behaviour that is being investigated (Kerlinger, 1964). In any experimental design, the variables must be precisely indicated. And the variables of the present study are of three types: independent variable, dependent variable and intervening variable.

In the current investigation, the experimental variable is the teachability of conversational strategies through the direct approach. The criterion variable or the dependent variable is the outcome that measures the effect of the independent variable. In this research, it is the development of the EFL learners' ICC. Whereas the intervening variable is to characterize a number of abstract aspects which may influence the criterion variable and which cannot necessarily be controlled or observed by the researcher. Examples of such aspects can be the learners' attitudes, motivation and learning process (Singh, 2006). In this study, a number of intervening variables can affect CSs use as motivation, learners' proficiency level, culture, tasks, context and the like.

2.4.6. Setting, Learners' Profiles and Sampling Techniques

The present research took place at Mohamed Lamine Debaghine (Sétif 2) University. The university was founded in 2011. It is a non-profit public higher education institution located in an urban setting named 'El-Hidab'. There are three faculties in the university: the faculty of Letters and Foreign Languages, the Faculty of Social and Human Sciences, and the Faculty of Law and Political Sciences. Two intact groups of freshmen and seniors were the participants of the main study. Since the entire

population could not be investigated (First Year N=651; Third Year N=447) because of time constraints and the extensive nature of the research methodology, the researcher obtained a sample size sufficient to serve the purpose of the study.

According to Cohen et al., (2007), the correct sample size depends on the purpose of the study and the nature of the population under scrutiny. Moreover, the researcher has to keep in mind that the sample size should not be too big to be manageable (Intaraprasert, 2000). First year learners, freshmen, were between 18 and 23 (2 males and 28 females). They had been learning English between 8 to10 years. They claimed that their English proficiency was ranging between fair (43.3 ‰) to good (53.3 ‰). Their good grasp of language skills was the responsible of their language profiency, as the majority of them argued (56.7 ‰). However, when they were asked about the importance of oral communication, all participants (N=30) stated that their oral skill was poor. Their level in listening (50‰) and speaking (53.3‰) was fair and their level in reading (56.6‰) and writing (46.7‰) was good, as they claimed. 'Lack of vocabulary' was the main trouble the majority (66.7‰) faced in oral communication. 80‰ of freshmen used 'skills and language components' as 'strategies' to communicate orally. 26 participants had never gone abroad and never participated in any speaking programme. Moreover, no one of them had another education or work experience.

Seniors were between 21 and 26 years (5 males and 25 females). They had been learning English between 9 to 12 years. They claimed that their English proficiency was ranging between fair (33.5 ‰) to good (60‰). The majority stated that their level both in the productive skills (speaking 40‰ and writing 36.7‰) and receptive ones (listening 46.7‰ and reading 66.7‰) was good. Only three of them (10‰) had another work/educational experience. And four (13.3‰) have been abroad. All seniors (N=30) affirmed the importance of communication as it was the first step to learn a language, as the majority (66.7‰) asserted. 'Body language' (63.3 ‰) and 'language simplification' (20‰) were the main strategies they used in oral communication. Like freshmen, seniors stated that 'lack of vocabulary' (63.3‰) was their focal challenge. 83.3‰ of them (25 students) expressed their willingness to participate in a speaking programme to enrich their language, as they claimed.

Moreover, a population is a group of potential participants to whom you want to generalize the results of a study. And a sample is a subset of that population (Salkind, 2018). Sampling is a crucial step in any social research. Research procedures cannot be carried out without the deployment of sampling. The current work relies on voluntary sampling and random assignment of participants to the experimental and control groups. "The quality of a piece of research stands or falls not only by the appropriateness of methodology and instrumentation but also by the suitability of the sampling strategy that has been adopted" (Cohen et al., 2007, p. 100). Furtheremore, in the present investigation two types of sampling were held: purposive and simple random.

2.4.6.1. Purposive Sampling

As being a feature of qualitative research, researchers handpick the cases to be included in the sample on the basis of their judgement of their typicality or possession of the particular characteristics being sought. In this way, they build up a sample that is satisfactory to their specific needs (Cohen et al., 2007). In other terms, the sample has been chosen for a specific purpose (ibid).

2.4.6.2. Simple Random Sampling

In this most common type of probability sampling procedure (Salkind, 2018), each member of the population has an equal and independent chance of being selected to be part of the sample (ibid). The process of random assignment is undertaken right after the sample selection before the beginning of the experiment. The main purpose behind the use of random assingment is to dispose of any possible threats to the external validity of the research (Fraenkel, Wallen & Hyun, 2012).

In the present study, the 60 participants were randomly assigned to both the experiment and control groups giving them equal chances of being selected to undergo the experiment. The random assignment process renders the current study more internal validity by reducing the possible factors that may influence the participants' performance after the treatment is applied.

2.4.7. Small-Scale Study (The Piloting Phase)

In 2007, Dörnyei recommended piloting the research instruments and procedures before launching any research project, "Just like theatre performances, a research study always needs a dress rehearsal to ensure the high quality (in terms of reliability and validity) of the outcomes in the specific context" (p. 75). Furthermore, he continued to claim that piloting is quite crucial in quantitative studies than in qualitative surveys, as the former relies on the psychometric properties of the research tools, "In a questionnaire survey, for example, if we have not covered a variable by sufficient questionnaire items then this variable simply cannot emerge in the results" (ibid). And about the significance of this particular stage, Sudman & Bradburn (1983, p. 283) stated that, "if you do not have the resources to pilot-test your questionnaire, don't do the study".

Again, Dörnyei (2007) explained that researchers can avoid a great deal of frustration and extra work in the coming stages of the investigation, if they are to go patiently through the piloting procedures. And if this is the reality in quantitative studies, Richards (2005) pointed out that in qualitative studies there is normally no real piloting stage in which the research tools are tested. This does not mean that there is no use in trying out certain techniques (as interviewing skills), but qualitative piloting differs from quantitative piloting in that we do not have to discard the obtained data after the 'trial runs' but can use it for final analysis. These early responses may differ from the ones coming from later stages, but differences are "food for analysis, not a problem for consistency" (ibid, p. 78).

2.4.8. Data Collection Tools: Instrumentation

2.4.8.1. Convergent Parallel Design (Convergent Mixed Methods Design)

In this type of designs, the researcher gives equal importance to both quantitative and qualitative data and regards them as approximately equal sources of information. For Creswell (2012, p. 540), "The purpose of this design is to simultaneously collect both quantitative and qualitative data, merge the data, and use the results to understand a research problem". In other terms, in the process of data collection, quantitative and qualitative data are collected simultaneously, and at the data analysis stage, the researcher compares (triangulate) the results from quantitative and qualitative analyses and determine if the two data bases produce similar or different results. The

comparison is carried out by first presenting the quantitative statistical results and then providing qualititive quotes to either confirm or disconfirm the statistical results. Correspondingly, quantitative data gathered from the questionnaire answered by the subjects provide strengths to balance the weaknesses of qualitative documents from few students. Alternatively, qualitative, in-depth observation of subjects offers strength to quantitative data that does not adequately provide detailed information about the context from which individuals provide information.

In the present investigation, three main stages were followed: a baseline data, i.e., the preliminary phase in which the research gap was proven. The research instruments that were used in this phase were 'A Needs Analysis Survey' with freshmen and senior LLs and an interview with OE teachers. Moreover, to pilot the research tools and the intervention, a small-scale study was conducted; and then the main study. In the last phase, four research instruments were used: a self-report questionnaire, a speaking battery task, think-aloud protocols (stimulated recall), and an attitudinal questionnaire. And because "Data collection methods that rely primarly on learners' reported strategy use on questionnaires may account for certain puzzling findings" (Vann & Abraham, 1990, p.178), Lam (2006) asserted that, "The triangulation of findings made feasible by a synthesis of research methods may therefore be desirable to gauge both the process and product of oral communication or language learning as a whole" (p. 154).

2.4.8.2. Rationale behind a Multi-Method Approach

Regarding the research methodology in strategy training studies, the researcher of the present investigation adopted Lam's (2006) stance, i.e., a multi-method approach was favoured. In fact, the implementation of the multi-method approach helps complement the strengths and weaknesses inherent in each and every research method. Learners' performances in a specific task reflect the effects of strategy training on task performance, but they do not give information about strategy use (ibid). And data collection methods that rely primarily on learners' reported strategy use on questionnaires may account for certain puzzling findings (Vann & Abraham, 1990). In the same vein, Lam (2006) stated that questionnaires do not necessarily reflect actual behaviours. And about observations, Lam (2006) claimed that they reflect behavioural learning outcomes but they cannot tap learners' strategic thought processes the way the

stimulated recall methodology does. As learning may or may not be observable, it is desirable to employ research instruments that can gauge both observable and unobservable changes in order to get a full picture of the impact of strategy intervention (Wigglesworth, 2005).

As each method makes a distinct contribution to our understanding of the impact of CSs instruction, findings from the eclectic approach provide us with information about: changes in ratings of students' task performance (via recording data), changes in underlying self-perceptions (via questionnaire data), changes in proceduralized strategy use (via observable data), and changes in underlying strategic thinking (via stimulated recall data) (Lam, 2006). The findings from the multi-method approach are consistent with other previous strategy research that the impact of strategy training may show up in different measures (Dansereau, 1985; Oxford, 1996). The triangulation of findings made feasible by a synthesis of research methods may therefore be desirable to gauge both the process and product of oral communication or language learning as a whole (Lam, 2006).

2.4.8.3. Questionnaires

The popularity that questionnaires gained is due to the fact that they are relatively easy to be constructed, highly versatile and particularily capable of gathering a huge amount of data quickly in a readily processible form (Dörnyei, 2007). Furthermore, questionnaires measure different types of data about the respondent. And thus three main kinds of data can be yielded: factual, behavioural, and attitudinal questions. The first type of queries are used to find out certain facts about the respondents, as demographic characteristic, residential location, marital and socio-economic status, level of education, occupation, language learning history, amount of time spent in an L2 environment, etc. And behavioural questions are used to find out what the respondents are doing or have done in the past, focusing on actions, life-styles, habits, and personal history. Whereas attitudinal questions are used to find out what people think, covering attitudes, opinions, beliefs, interests, and values. In the present study, the self-report questionnaire was developed to investigate CSs commonly employed by the students and explore students' perceptions of the usefulness of each CS.

2.4.8.3.1. How was the self-report strategy checklist of the current research designed?

Despite the attention devoted to learners' strategy use and the considerable amount of research into strategy training there are still unsolved issues (McDonough, 1995; Ellis, 1997). The first issue is related to the problem of validating the content and nature of strategies as Ellis (1997, p. 87) put it, "not enough is known about which strategies and which combinations of strategies work best for L2 acquisition". And regarding what to teach, different theoretical underpinnings have produced different classification systems which each claims to have validated by empirical data (O'Malley et al., 1985 a/b; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990; Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995; Rubin, 1981). As a result, there has been a lack of consensus on the categories of strategies that are considered to be important to language learning and subsequently to training (Lam, 2004). Perhaps as LoCastro (1995) observed, "within the qualitative tradition, a classification of learning strategies – or of anything for that matter – developed for a particular learning environment cannot be brought without question and testing into a different learning context" (1995, p. 173).

The above indicates that no existing, single classification of strategies should be taken as a straightjacket for strategy training without challenge (Lam, 2004). In fact, it is important to investigate the impact of groups of strategies rather than isolated strategies on task performance. Chamot & Rubin (1994, p. 772) stated that, "strategies are most useful when used effectively together so that success depends not only on the use of an individual one but on the effective management of a repertoire of strategies". Same idea was defended by Ellis (1994) who proposed that it may be high time to study strategies in terms of clusters instead of in isolation to investigate their relative importance in the learning outcome. Moreover, in the language learning field, there has been evidence that complexes of strategies might be differentially related to various levels of linguistic and communicative competencies (Politzer & McGroaty, 1985). Gu & Johnson (1996) also reported on identifying clusters of strategies conductive to vocabulary learning. Hence, the present study intended to address the issue of the impact of communicative strategies in broad categories and not just in isolation on the learners' strategy use and CC in general.

Moreover, Dörnyei & Kormos (1998) brought several lines of research and provided a comprehensive overview of problem management in L2 communication. Following Dörnyei & Scott (1997), Dörnyei & Kormas (1998) distinguished four main problem sources in L2 communication: (a) L2 resource deficits, (b) processing time pressure, (c) perceived deficiencies in one's own language output, and (d) perceived deficiencies in the interlocutor's performance. In order to provide a systematic analysis of the wide range of problem-solving mechanisms associated with these preblem areas, they adopted a psycholinguistic perspective based on the L2 adaptation of Levelt's (1989, 1993, 1995) model of speech production. This approach offers a theoretical framework in which problem-solving devices can be connected to the various pre- and post-articulatory phases of speech processing, thereby helping to achieve a coherent process-oriented description.

Based on Levelt's (1989) psycholinguistic model of L1 communication and speech processing which identifies potential problems at different phases of online speech production, Dörnyei & Kormos (1998) outlined a framewok of problem solving mechanisms in 2 use "focusing on how the management of the four primary problem areas in focus (resource deficits, processing time pressure, deficiencies in own output, deficiencies in other performance) is related to the various phases of speech processing" (p. 356). The phases of speech production are three in number: planning and encoding the preverbal message, monitoring the phonetic plan and the articulated speech and post-articulatory monitoring (ibid). And based on Dörnyei & Kormos's (1998) framework, seven communication strategies were selected; circumlocution, appeal for help, lexicalized pauses, self-correction, comprehension checks, asking for clarification and asking for confirmation.

As a matter of fact, only achievement/ compensatory strategies were adopted and investigated in the whole study. Willems (1987) strongly recommended that achievement strategies (to be positive) rather than reductions ones (to be negative) should be encouraged in spite of all the consequences this may have for the (in)correctness of the language, if only to diminish the learners' reduction behaviour, "Reduction behaviour is, obviously, a major obstacle to language development" (p. 354). According to Fearch & Kasper (1983), LLs use an achievement strategy when

they try to solve communication problems by expanding their communicative resources than by reducing their communicative goal(s). That is, the achievement/ compensatory stratetegies provide alternative plans for the learners to carry out their original communicative goal(s) by maniputing available language, therefore compensating in some way for their linguistic deficiencies (Dörnyei, 1995). And for these reasons (among others), CSs researchers included them in the taxonomies investigated (Dörnyei, 1995; Salamone & Marsal, 1997; Lam, 2004; Wen, 2004; Nakatani, 2005).

First and foremost, at the initial planning stage during speech production, 'resources deficit', i.e., insufficient knowledge of vocalulary items, is the fundamental problem that a language speaker is likely to encouter (Dörnyei & Kormos, 1998; Levelt, 1989). To address this problem, the present research proposed that 'circumlocution' may help LLs to solve the immediate problem of 'what to say' and 'how to say it'. Faucette (2001) concluded that 'cirmumlocution', 'paraphrase' and 'approximation', empower "students to participate in communication by helping them to not give up in conversation. We as teachers have a responsibility to provide our students with tools to communicate, such as through the development of strategic competence". Moreover, 'circumlocution' is considered as the most important achievement strategy and a major component of SC in Canale & Swain's (1980) CC framework. 'Appeal for help' becomes helpful when the learner wants to seek the interlocutor's help in solving communication problems (Kongsom, 2009), and it is recommended by Dörnyei & Scott (1997) because it helps EFL learners through negotiation of meaning and arrive at their communicative goals and lead to language learning. Furthermore, Bejarano et al., (1997) considered 'Appealing for assistance' as one of the Skilled Use of Interaction Strategies (SUIS) and a type of modified-interaction strategies that they included in their study. And about the significance of 'appealing for assistance', they claimed that, "This enables participants to recruit help from other members of the group in order to express themselves more effectively in the target language (e.g., How do you say…?). Target language deficiency underlies the need for this strategy; its use allows participants to assist each other in expressing their ideas" (p. 204).

The second problem is 'processing time pressure' and is related to the fact that L2 speech processing is far less automatic than L1 speech processing (Dörnyei & Kormos, 1998), and the retrieval may take "more time than the production system will allow" (de Bot, 1992, p. 14). But language speakers are aware that they need to appear natural and cannot take an inordinate amount of time to process speech (Lam, 2004). 'Stalling or time-gaining strategies' are not actually used to compensate for any linguistic deficiencies but rather to gain time and to keep the communication channel open at times of difficulty (Dörnyei, 1995). It must be pointed out that conversational maintenance strategies of this type have not been included in the most well-known taxonomies put forward by Tarone, Faerch & Kasper, Bialystok or the Nigmegen Group (ibid). Several other researchers, however, have highlighted the significance of using fillers and hesitation devices as a conscious means to sustain communication in the face of hiccups (Canale, 1983; Canale & Swain, 1980; Ellis, 1985; Haastrup & Phillipson, 1983; Hatch, 1978; Rost, 1994; Rubin, 1987; Savignon, 1972, 1983). Hatch (1978) claimed that learners should be told to use "whatever fillers they can to show the Native Speaker that they really are trying…The most important thing of all has to be 'don't give up'" (p.434). Canale (1983) specifically listed the "use of pause fillers" (p. 25) among the CSs making up strategic competence. Haastrup and Phillipson (1983) included in their taxonomy a set of strategies which they termed "Strategies aimed at solving retrieval problems" (p.144). Rost (1994) also mentioned using conversational fillers to keep the conversation going in his list of communication strategies. All in all, pause fillers and hesitation devices are useful since LLs can use them to fill pauses, gain time to think and maintain the conversation when they experience communication crises; as pointed out by Dörnyei & Thurrell (1991), "the knowledge and confident use of fillers are a crucial part of learner's strategic competence, since these invaluable delaying or hesitation devices can be used to carry out the conversation at times of difficulty, when language learners would otherwise end up feeling more and more desperate and would typically grind to halt" (p. 19).

The third problem occurs when "the monitor inspects the language output both before articulation and after articulation" (Dörnyei & Kormos, 1998, p. 371) and detects "deficiencies in one's own language output" (p. 371). More precisely, after the

speaker has completed lexical, grammatical and phonological processing, "the monitor inspects the language output both before articulation (pre-articulatory monitoring) and after articulation (post-articulatory monitoring) " (p. 371). Hence, the language speaker typically faces the problem of monitoring of his own phonetic plan before articulation and overt speech after articulation (Lam, 2004). To cope with the problem, 'self-correction' was recommended to students as the strategy has an obvious role of enabling the language speaker to regulate linguistic accuracy, which may facilitate pushed or forced output (Swain, 1998). That is, LLs may be taught to monitor their speech by adjusting its accuracy in terms of language use. In other words, 'self-correction' may force the learner to produce grammatically accurate and appropriate utterances, which is beneficial to IL development (Lam, 2005). Repair, like other types of conversational activity, is viewed as a joint production (Ellis, 2008). Early studies focused on repair in naturally occurring conversations (ibid). Schwarts (1980) reported a general preference for self-correction over other-correction in NNS-NNS discourse. In fact, repair is the mechanism by which interactants address and resolve trouble in speaking, hearing and understanding (Schegloff, Jefferson & Sacks, 1977).

Trouble is anything which the participants display as impeding speech production or intersubjectivity; a repairable item is one which constitutes such trouble for the participants. Any element for talk may in principle be the focus of repair, even an element which is well-formed, propositionally correct and appropriate. Another strategy that was selected to overcome perceived deficiencies in one's own speech was 'comprehension checks'. The last 'check questions' with other two types (i.e., asking for confirmation and asking for clarification) are referred to as 'modified interaction strategies'. As a matter of fact, 'seeking confirmation' and 'seeking clarification' belong to the fourth problem may arise when a language speaker experiences "perceived deficiencies in the interlocutor's performance" (Dörnyei & Kormos, 1998, p. 374). That is, problems may occur when the language speaker does not hear or have sufficient language knowledge to understand the speech of his/ her interlocutor(s) (Lam, 2005).

Besides, the rating scale of self-report strategy for this study followed 'the Likert Technique of Scale Instruction'. The Likert-type scale is the most widely used method

of scale construction due to "its relative ease of construction, its use of fewer statistical assumptions and the fact that, in contrast to other scaling techniques, no judges are required" (Doukas, 1996, p. 190). Further, the Likert scale is the most famous type of closed-ended items which consists of characteristic statements and respondents are asked to indicate the extent to which they 'agree' or 'disagree' with it by marking (for example, circling) one of the responses ranging from 'strongly agree' to 'strongly disagree' (Dörnyei, 2007). After the questionnaire has been administered, each response option is assigned a number for scoring purposes (for example, 'strongly agree'=5; and 'strongly disagree'=1) and the scores for the items addressing the same target are summed up or averaged (ibid). And in order to guard against the compliance effect in questionnaire surveys (Fowler, 1995), all the CSs named by Dörnyei & Kormos (1998) were included. In other words, the actually taught CSs were seven but the present questionnaire contained 33 items (i.e., CSs). So even the non-taught CSs consisted a part of the check-list.

2.4.8.3.2. Attitudinal Questionnaire

Attitudes involve "evaluative responses to a particular target (e.g., people, institution, situation). They are deeply embedded in the human mind and very often not the product of rational deliberation of facts" (Dörnyei, 2003, p. 8). In general, attitudinal questions are employed to discover what people think and "this is a broad category that concerns peolple's attitudes, opinions, beliefs, interests, and values" (ibid). In the current study, the attitudinal questionnaire was used to gain information concerning students' attitudes towards CSs instruction and its usefulness. To develop it, the researcher took insights from three basic resources: the first was Dörnyei's (1995) work entitled 'On the Teachability of Communication Strategies', in which the researcher gave the students in the treatment group a quesionnaire to be filled out assessing how interesting and useful they had found the training. The second was Bejarano et al's interventionist study (1997). They investigated 'The Skilled Use of Interaction Strategies' (SUIS) and aimed to create a framewok for 'improved small-group communicative interaction in the language classtoom' (p. 203). Among the research instruments, an attitude questionnaire was developed to "document the change in students' attitudes towards group-work that resulted from their training in

SUIS" (p. 209). And the third work was that of Kongsom (2009) who also investigated the learners' attitudes towards the usefulness of the instructional phase and the researcher of the present research adapted Kongsom's checklist as it serves the same objective of the present investigation (**Appendix G**). According to McDonough & McDonough (1997), many questionnaires use open-ended questions "to allow the respondents to feel that they can contribute more individual points of view and more detailed information than is elicited in closed questions"p. 176). In the present work, to guarantee the 'richness' of information and respect the 'respondent-availibility time' (Dörnyei, 2003), only six open-format items were carefully chosen to provide a greater in-depth information and permit freedom of expression than fully quantitative data (ibid).

2.4.8.4. Speaking Task Battery

Task has figured to as an important construct in SLA research, serving both as a device for instructional treatment in experimental studies and for measuring the outcomes of this treatment (Ellis, 2008). For Bygate et al., (2001), a task is defined as "a contextualised, standardised activity which requires learners to use language, with emphasis on meaning, and with a connection to the real world, to attain an objective, and which will elicit data which can be used for purposes of measurement" (p. 12). And Bialystok (1990) stated that a task is one type of elicitation methods which is important in determining the strategies that will be observed. Further, Bialystok and Swain (1978) argued that research that is conducted in entirely natural conditions is more challenging to investigate and the findingss are often hard to interpret. While "controlled laboratory study assumes the researcher that the phenomenon under investigation will be addressed and the superfluous variance owing to extraneous contextual factors will be minimized, or at least capable of being documented and controlled" (Bialystok, 1990, p. 61). However, Poulisse (1990) argued that "finding a task which was in between controlled and natural tasks was not easy" (p. 83). For Bialystok (1990), various elicitation methods have been used by previous research on CSs and "these methodological differences may influence a language learner's selection of a specific communication strategy" (p. 50).

In the present investigation, 'focused tasks' rather that 'unfocused tasks' were chosen. For Ellis (2008, p. 819), focused tasks aim to "induce learners to process, receptively and productively, some particular linguistic feature(s)" but unfocused tasks "may dispose learners to choose from a range of forms but they are not designed with the use of a specific form in mind". And the relationship between task features and language use comes in three main types according to descriptive research: "(1) tasks and the negotiation of meaning, (2) tasks and learner production, and (3) the co-construction of tasks through interaction" (ibid). When we come to discuss the link between tasks and negotiation of meaning, we have to consider Long's 'Interaction Hypothesis' (1983b, 1996). The underlying assumption of research from this perspective is that it has to be viable to construct a multidimensional framework, orchestrating tasks in terms of their promise for second/ FL language learning on the basis of psycholinguistically originated connotations. First of all, Pica & Doughty (1985 a,b) found that small-group work in language classrooms only resulted in more negotiation work than teacher-fronted lessons when the task was of the required information type. Newton (1995) found almost double the quantity of negotiation in tasks where the information was shared. And Foster (1998) reported that required information exchange tasks consistently elicited more negotiation and more modified output. In addition, Nakahama, Tyler & van Lier (2001) came to conclude that conversational activity offered "a larger range of opportunities for language use" (p. 401). Comparing NNs-NNs interactions, Gass & Varonis (1985) found that more indicators of non-understanding occurred in the one-way task.

And about tasks and L2 production, Ellis (2008), among other studies (Foster & Skehan, 1996; Skehan & Foster, 1997, 1999), postulated how tasks and the way they are performed influence the fluency, complexity, and accuracy of learners' L2 production. And these studies investigated a number of variables as 'familiarity of information', the 'degree of structure' and the 'complexity of outcome'. They also investigated implementational variables such as pre- and within-task planning and task rehearsal (Ellis, 2008). Whereas interactionist and cognitive theories view tasks as devices that predispose learners to engage in interactions which are, therefore, to some extent predictable on the basis of the design features of the tasks and the

methodological procedures for implementing them, 'sociocultural theory' emphasizes that the activity that derives from a task is unstable, varying in accordance with the specific goals and motives of the participants (ibid). In different words, from a sociocultural perspective, there is no straightforward relationship between task-as-workplan and task-in-process. Such an approach acknowledges that the interaction that results from a task is "dynamic, fluid, and locally managed on a turn-by-turn basis to a considerable extent" (Seedhouse, 2005, p. 556). The view of 'learning' that underlies this perspective is that of a competence that is co-constructed and embedded in interaction (Ellis, 2008).

Further, Mori (2002) stated that pre-task planning inhibited learners from attention to moment-by-moment development of the talk. In other words, pre-task planning had a nugatory rather than beneficial effect on the way the task was performed as it denied learners the opportunity to engage in authentic conversation (Ellis, 2008). Platt and Brooks (2002) investigated 'task engagement' (i.e., the attainment of intersubjectivity and control of a task) from a sociocultural perspective. The researchers concluded that performing a task is a 'struggle' that can only be successfully managed when learners achieve control over the task. In sum, task performances are always constructed rather than determined by task design features and methodological procedures, and it is also the case that the task-as-workplan will predispose learners to behave in ceratin ways (Ellis, 2008). The relationship between tasks and interaction can benefit from both an etic and an emic approach, which should be then seen as complementary rather than oppositional (ibid). And this complementary view was adapted in the present research. Thus, in the current investigation, two main definitions of CSs were adhered. The first in which CSs are conceived as devices used by speakers to improve the level of communication; as they form an important part of a speaker's linguistic ability as it was shown in Swain's Model of CC. According to Swain (1984), strategic competence involves the "mastery of CSs that may be called into action either to enhance the effectiveness of communication or to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to limiting factors in actual communication or to insufficient competence in one or more of the other components of communicative competence" (p. 189). And the second definition is that of Tarone (1981) which focuses less on a speaker's inability

to convey meaning while emphasizing that both speaker and hearer contribute to comprehension. She provided a broad explanation that characterizes a CS as "mutual attempt of two interlocutors to agree on a meaning in situations where requisite meaning structures do not seem to be shared" (p. 288).

Tasks, in language teaching, are seen as important vehicles providing learners with the means to develop communicative competence by experiencing language as it is used outside the class (Slimani-Rolls, 2005). Tasks appear to be an ideal construct to link the fields of SLA and language pedagogy (Pica, 1997; Ellis, 2003). There is a general consensus among researchers such as Long (1988, 1989); Varonis & Gass (1985), Doughty & Pica (1986); Pica (1987), Pica et al., (1993) that the use of two-way information tasks in group work and pair work, involving learners in sharing essential information initially distributed only partially to each member (Slimani-Rolls, 2005), provides favourable settings for learners to negotiate meaning, via the conversational adjustments they make in interaction. This consensus in favour of two-way tasks for language classrooms is challenged by other studies (Duff, 1986; Nakahama et al., 2001), suggesting that the two-way task cannot pretend any general supremacy over the one-way task. Varonis & Gass (1985) and Bejarano et al., (1997) found that it was, in fact, the one-way task that generated more meaning negotiation. Thus, if the aim of negotiation studies is to isolate the most effective task type to impact on language acquisition in the classroom, "they have done little but suggest that a commonsense use of a balanced diet of one-way and two-way tasks is currently the safest way for teachers" (Slimani-Rolls, 2005, p. 196). Thus, in the present study, three main tasks were selected that range between one-way information exchange task and two-way information exchange task.

Demands for successfully accomplishing these tasks can be classified within four categories: engagement, risk-taking, knowledge and control (Vann & Abraham, 1990). All tasks in this study required 'engagement', a factor identified by Jakobovits (1970) as critical to language learning. Here engagement meant spending sufficient time on the assignment, clarifying and verifying the task demands where necessary, and providing evidence of attentiveness (Vann & Abraham, 1990). All learners in both groups were engaged in all tasks they performed in the two phases (pre- and post) of

the work. The tasks also required what Beebe (1983) called 'risk-taking'. One can argue that all second/ foreign language learning requires learners to take risks (Vann & Abraham, 1990). Learners in this study took substantial risks as they struggled to find measures/ techniques/ words to bridge between their linguistic deficiencies and their communicative goal(s). Different types of knowledge are asked into play here. Declarative and procedural knowledge take the prime position. The relationship between these two is seen as a continuum rather than a dichotomy, with declarative knowledge (knowing WHAT) evolving into procedural knowledge (knowing HOW) through practice (Ellis, 2008). Also, background (or schemata) knowledge is to enable learners to fit the new information presented in the task into their already established framework of knowledge (Vann & Abraham, 1990). Moreover, the tasks demanded varying levels of cognitive 'control', processes that manage selection and coordination of knowledge (Vann & Abraham, 1990). As Bialystok & Ryan (1985) noted, control in coordinating information becomes increasingly important where monitoring procedures are needed to oversee several aspects of a problem, for example, form and meaning, or meaning and context. Further, following the work of Vann & Abraham (1990), the tasks of this investigation were arranged so that they progressed from least to most demanding along the dimensions of engagement, risk taking, knowledge, and control. However, it should be noted that these factors sometimes intersect; for example, insufficient knowledge for a task may cause a learner not to engage.

In addition, this study gave the learners the opportunity of using two different kinds of task planning: pre-task planning and planning as rehearsal. Though the results of many studies are contradictory but after visiting a number of such researches, Ellis (2008) came to conclude that when learners plan strategically they give more attention to drawing up a conceptual plan of what they want to say rather than to formulating detailed linguistic plans. Even when asked to engage in form-focused planning they may not do so, preferring to use the time given to them to sequence ideas and to work out the semantic linkages among propositions. Alternatively, it is possible that even when learners do attend to form when planning, "they find it difficult to carry over the forms they have planned into performance of the task" (p.498). Ellis (2008) continued to claim that when learners plan they have to choose what aspect of production to

focus on; focusing on fluency and complexity is at the expense of accuracy and vice-versa. And this is exactly what happened to the learners of the present study in both groups and phases. The second type of planning that was given to learners was 'planning as rehearsal'. About its advantages, Bygate (1996) found that rehearsal enhanced complexity, with the learner using more lexical verbs, more regular past tense forms, a wide range of vocabulary and cohesive devices, and fewer inappropriate collocations on the second occasion. Also, Bygate & Samuda (2005) suggested that repeating a task serves as a kind of 'integrative planning' which can lead to qualitative improvements. And about rehearsing the same type of task, Bygate (2001) involved her learners in narrative and interview tasks and sought to investigate the effects practising these tasks on both a second performance of the same task and on performance of the same task of the same type. She showed that the second performance manifested greater fluency and complexity and also that the opportunity to practise that particular type of task helped. However, the practice did not appear to assist performance of a new task of the same type. In other words, there was no transfer of practice effect (Ellis, 2008). And this is what was concluded by Ellis (2008, p. 495) saying that the, "research on rehearsal suggests that it has a beneficial effect on learners' subsequent performance of the same task but that there is no transferance of the rehearsal effect to a different task". And this is exacly, disappointingly, what happened in the present study and even more unexpected results, as performing better in the first performance rather than the second.

2.4.8.4.1. One-way Information Exchange Task: 'Topic Description Task'

For Slimani-Rolls (2005, p. 199), one way tasks "are tasks not requiring information exchange and are therefore referred to as 'optional exchange' tasks". In other words, while the speakers provided information, their classmates were not requested to supply any. In this study, the learners both in the EG and CG, and in both pre- and post-phases, were asked to choose to discuss/ share their ideas about one of these topics (vegetarianism, marriage, peace). These themes were selected as they proved their

effectiveness in the works of Dörnyei (1995) and Kongsom (2009). And this task was found useful in Dörnyei's (1995) study and Kongsom's (2009) work in eliciting some CSs as circumlocution, pause fillers, hesitation devices and avoidance strategies.

2.4.8.4.2. Two-way Information Exchange Task: 'Interview Task' and 'Conversation Task'

In these tasks, "each person holds information the other must acquire to be able to carry out the task successfully" (Slimani-Rolls, 2005, p. 199-200). Two-way information-gap tasks provide optimal conditions for active participation by all students and thereby generate conversational modification (Bejarano et al., 1997). According to Long (1981), this is crucial for promoting language acquisition. In the 'Interview Task', the learners were interviewed by the researcher. The themes selected for this task were taken from 'Conversation in Activity: Let's Talk' by Edward R Rosset (1997). A number of topics were given to learners to choose what they like more to discuss about. The overall consensus was about the subsequent themes: studying or working, travelling and driving. Each student was free to choose one of these topics and then answer the researcher's questions or comment on the statements supplied (**Appendix H**). For the 'Conversation Task', as done with the previous task, learners were displayed with a set of themes selected from Rosset's (1997) book, and a general agreement was on these three topics: success in life, learning a foreign language and reading. In pairs or in small-groups of no more than four members, the students were asked to develop one of these themes in less than five minutes. Oral interview was found to be appropriate for eliciting CSs in previous studies (Raupach, 1983; Poulisse, 1990; Weerarak, 2003; Nakatani, 2005). This task activated various types of communication strategies such as modification devices, L1-/ L2-based strategies, non-linguistic strategies and avoidance strategies (Kongsom, 2009). And about the conversation task, it had proven its effectiveness and workability in many researches (Haastrup & Phillipson, 1983; Weerarak, 2003; Lam, 2004; Nakatani, 2005; Kongsom, 2009).

When Doughty & Pica (1986) compared two-way information learning tasks and one-way tasks, they found that one-way tasks are the ones prevalently used in

language classrooms as they are usually more readily available to language teachers. It would, therefore, be necessary to ensure that learners develop effective interaction strategies which will enable them to participate interactively in one-way tasks as well as in two-way tasks. In this way, the commonly used one-way tasks can also become fully interactive activities in which conversational modification can be generated (Bejarano et al., 1997; Duff, 1986; Nakahama et al., 2001). The same idea was shared by Slimani-Rolls (2005) who revealed that one-way tasks offer more scope for "meaningful negotiation and prompt learners to produce more complex input modification" (p. 204). And in all the tasks chosen, even though roles and desired ends had been fixed by the task, the "ensuring interaction would be real" (Kasper & Dahl, 1991, p. 228). Furthermore, the current study assumed that in order to encourage effective interaction, in both two-way and one-way tasks, students need to learn (a) how to negotiate for meaning and (b) how to engage in cohesive and coherent sequences of interaction. In other terms, this combination of tasks in which various degrees of control were established ranging from strictly controlling to resembling natural conversation was fairly balanced. Moreover, all the tasks given to learners in both groups, in the pre-/ post-phase, were videotaped or audiotaped, according to the learners' consensus. It is a shared fact among the researchers who rely on the video-recordings for the analytic purposes that the videotape is not data itself (Erickson, 2006). In fact, it is a resource for data construction, "an information source containing potential data out of which actual data must be defined and searched for" (ibid, p.178). Thus, for the sake of future analysis, the data that was video-/ audiotaped was later transcribed according to the transcription conventions supplied by Dresing et al., (2015) which is a useful reference that gives practical hints for qualitative researches in particular (**Appendix I**).

2.4.8.5. Retrospective Verbal Protocol

Ellis (2008) provided three major types of learner production data: naturally occurring samples, clinically elicited samples and experimentally elicited samples. The last type consists of other categories: verbal reports, self-report, self-revelation, self-assessment and self-observation. The latter is described by Cohen (1987) as "the inspection of specific behaviour, either while the information is still in short-term

memory, i.e., introspectively, or after the event, i.e., retrospectively" (p. 84). The retrospection can be relatively immediate (i.e., within a day) or delayed (Ellis, 2008). For Nunan (1986), retrospective data are collected some time after the event under investigation has been taken. What distinguishes self-observation from self-report is the specificity of the events under consideration. The two main methods of collecting self-observation data are diary studies and stimulated recall (Ellis, 2008). Stimulated recall is an introspective method used to prompt learners to comment on the thoughts and feelings they had while participating in a specific learning event (ibid). A common method is to replay a video or audio recording of learners as they engaged in a teaching-learning event, stopping it at particular points to ask the learners to comment (ibid). Mackey, Gass & McDonough (2000) used video playbacks to obtain comments from learners on what they noticed about the feedback they had received.

Lam (2007) stated that there is value in studying the kinds of problems that students encounter during interactive oral communication and the strategic steps they might take to resolve these problems. However, speaking is performed in real time and this poses considerable challenges to teachers trying to understand some insight into students' problems as they cope with L2 oral tasks. Lam (2007) continued to claim that while we can gain some insight into students' writing through the drafting process, it is more difficult to find out what the problems are when they are speaking because what goes on in the learners' minds is hidden in the 'black box'. Thus, Stimulated Recall (SR) was proposed as a viable way of getting closer to the 'black box' of the student's mind and an appropriate method for research on the teaching of speaking in EFL/ ESL contexts. Gass & Mackey (2000, p. 1) defined SR as "one subset of a range of introspective methods that represent a means of eliciting data about thought processes involved in carrying out a task or activity". SR can be characterized as a retrospective technique based on retrieval cues, which may entail audio- and/ or visual- prompts (for example, video play-back). With the help of such prompts, the participants are expected to be able to recall thoughts they had while performing a task (Lam, 2007). The use of SR methodology in understanding learners' problems in L2 oral interactions is gaining importance, as learners' utterances during L2 oral tasks are often the outcome of complex decision processes in which the speakers have to

determine what words to use and what syntactic patterns to employ (Kormos, 2006). And Bloom (1954) described SR as a method of reviving memories immediately after an event.

Verbalization methods (introspection and retrospection) were first employed in psychological research. Basic assumptions of SR are of particular relevance to the purposes of this study. First, it is possible to observe internal processes (including strategic processing) in a similar fashion as we observe surface behaviours. Second, we can access and understand our thought processes and articulate them explicitly. Ericsson & Simon (1980, 1984, 1993) examined numerous studies involving the use of verbal reports as data in an effort to determine under what conditions verbal reports are valid and trustworthy. In doing this, they developed an information processing model and a taxonomy of verbalization procedures. As cognitive psychologists, Ericsson & Simon (1987) argued that such methods of concurrent introspection are indispensable in probing many human thought processes that would otherwise be inaccessible. In the framework of information processing model, it is assumed that information recently acquired (attended to or heeded) by the central processor is kept in short-term memory (STM), and is directly accessible for explicit reporting (i.e., verbal reports), whereas information from long-term memory (LTM) must first be retrieved and then transferred to STM before it can be reported. To obtain verbal reports, "as new information (thoughts) enters attention, the subjects should verbalize the corresponding thought or thoughts…the new incoming information is maintained in attention until the corresponding verbalization is completed" (ibid, p. 32).

Further, Cohen (1998) suggested that verbal reports provide "a more viable -perhaps the most viable- means of obtaining empirical evidence as to strategy use than other means" (p. 34). Ericsson & Simon (1987) divided two forms of verbal reports: concurrent verbal reports and retrospective reports. In the former, people verbalize the thoughts that come up in their minds as they are completing a task. In the latter, peolpe report thoughts regarding the task immediately after a task has been completed. Retrospective protocols may draw from STM and LTM depending on time between the end of the task and the beginning of the verbal reports. Moreover, Faerch & Kasper (1987) proposed three types of verbal reports: simultaneous introspection, immediate

retrospection and delayed retrospection. The first type is the think-aloud technique which is difficult to employ for eliciting speaking strategies. Immediate retrospection can be employed on the completion of a speaking task. And for delayed retrospection, data are retrieved from LTM. In the same vein, Ericsson & Simon (1980, 1984, 1993) argued that verbal reporting is feasible under one of the following conditions: (1) while information is heeded (talk/ think aloud); (2) while information is still in STM (immediate, concurrent probing for information during the task); and (3) after the completion of a task (retrospective probing, verbalizing after the task).

As a matter of fact, the investigation of learner learning processes (i.e., covert strategic thinking) are keys to L2 acquisition (Wigglesworth, 2005). And the SR methodology has been used in oral interactions in SLA (Cohen & Olshtain, 1993, 1994; Dörnyei & Kormos, 1998; Gass & Mackey, 2000; Hawkins, 1985; Kormos, 1998; Lennon, 1989; Mackey, Gass & McDonough, 2000; Poulisse, Bongaerts & Kellerman, 1987). A common procedure shared by these studies is that tapes of task-based activities were played back to participants and that either they or the researchers could pause the tapes at any time the participants wished to describe their thoughts at any particular point when the original interaction was going on. These studies generally support the argument that "SR methodology can yield valuable data that is otherwise unavailable about the learner's thought in action" (Lam, 2007, p. 58). The participants' comments often yielded valuable information about covert thoughts during the tasks. Using verbal reports to assess learners' strategies is particularly effective in understanding learners' strategies because strategy use of L2 learners is still part of their declarative knowledge, which is not yet internalized and routinized (Gass & Mackey, 2000), and amenable to reporting (Cohen, 1994, 1998; Faerch & Kasper, 1987; Gass & Mackey, 2000; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). Activities that the learners are not in full control are slow and involve controlled processing. Such kind of tasks provide an ideal avenue for the researchers to tap students' thought processes because declarative knowledge is called into place in new tasks, kept in STM and is available for verbal reporting. For Lam (2007, p. 58), "L2 learners are normally conscious of the strategies they deploy to help them as they struggle their way along the language learning process". To put it differently, declarative knowledge becomes

automatic and routinized through repeated practice and enters the LTM to form part of the procedural knowledge, which can no longer be available for verbal reporting (Ericssion & Simon, 1993; Lam, 2007). And apart from pre-existing strategies, which are likely to have become automatic, the strategies the learners use are mostly not yet automatized and are therefore probably available for reporting in the SR methodology (Lam, 2007).

In the current study, to tap the learners' thoughts in action when they performed the three tasks and investigate their learning processes (i.e., covert thoughts), the SR was employed as a research method. However, Gass & Mackey (2000, p. 89) contended that "given that the goal of stimulated recall is to tap learners' thought processes while they were performing a particular task, the method itself will have no validity unless one can be reasonably sure that accurate recall in fact is taking place". Based on this fundamental premise, accurate memory structures must be brought into focus (Lam, 2004, 2005, 2007). Thus, the timing of data collection is the essence. The data should be collected as soon as possible after the event which is the focus of the recall. About this fact, Lam (2007, p. 59) stated, "To minimise memory loss and to enhance the validity of the SR data, both groups of students…were individually interviewed soon after the…task". Each student in the experimental groups, and both in the pre-task and post-task, was interviewed by the researcher. During the SR interviews, the video-taped tasks were played back to the students, who were asked to watch and to report on what they could remember about their thoughts during specific episodes while the task was in action (ibid). Occasionally, the researcher paused the videotape and asked "What was at the back of your mind at that moment?" (Lam, 2007, pp. 59-60). This recall question aimed to remind the students that the task was the focus of the recall, thus minimizing the possibility that they would report thoughts that came up during the SR interviews. In other terms, all the recall questions have to focus on the 'there and then' processing during the event itself but not on the SR session. Again, about the issue of validity, Vann & Abraham (1990) claimed that SR when combined with other methods, they may provide us with "convergent validity for certain findings, or force us to reexamine assumptions about the role of strategies in language learning" (p. 179). And this is exacly what was done in the present investigation. That is, a multi-

method approach to assessing the effect of the teachability of CSs on the development of EFL LLs' CC was advocated. In this approach, the study investigated CSs instruction from both the product (i.e., overt strategy use) and process (i.e., covert strategic thinking) points of view.

2.4.8.6. Use of Tape Analysis

Dörnyei (2007) stated that research methodology is often a balancing act between goals and resources and in certain situations tape analysis can be justified as a good compromise because the particular data may not deserve the huge investment of a full transcript. Another possible compromise is to prepare a partial transcription of the sections that seem important. In order to conduct a fully-fledged qualitative investigation we need to have full transcripts of the recordings that we want to analyze (ibid). Tape analysis simply means taking notes while listening to the recordings, possibly marking parts of the data that warrant more elaborate subsequent analysis (ibid).

2.4.8.7. Data Collection Procedures

2.4.8.7.1. Preliminary Data Collection Tools: Baseline Data

To prove the research gap, i.e., the learners' non-awareness of CSs, to gain some evidence of students' use of CSs and the lack of CSs teachability, the researcher prepared a set of research instruments. Three main tools were selected: (1) A Needs Analysis Survey with EFL freshmen and senior LLs; (2) interviews with OE teachers; and (3) Classroom observation using COLT checklist.

2.4.8.7.1.1. Needs Analysis Survey

To stand at the learners' linguistic/ communicative needs and their language proficiency, the researcher adopted a 'Needs Analysis Survey' by Gutiérrez (2005). The survey consists of two parts. The first part is about 'Background Information' and includes 8 items. And the second past is entitled 'Learners' Communication Needs' and has eleven items (**Appendix B**). The items range between open-ended to get in-depth information from the learners and close-ended items in which only one answer is targeted.

2.4.8.7.1.2. Interviews

With teachers, a semi-structured interview was conducted. To ask OE teachers of first and third year about the teachability of CSs, fourteen (14) items were proposed by the researcher and piloted with other teachers at the university.

2.4.8.7.1.3. Classroom Observation

To depict any presence of CSs use from the part of teachers or students, classroom observation was held. The researcher used the Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching (COLT) Observation Scheme (Fröhlich, Spada & Allen, 1985; Spada & Fröhlich, 1995) to determine the type of activities in which the students were typically engaged (**Appendix D**). Although the literature witnesses a number of classroom observation checklists (Moskowitz, 1970, 1971; Naiman, Fröhlich, Stern & Todesco, 1978; Bialystok, Fröhlich & Howard, Ullmann & Geva, 1982) but the researcher opted for that proposed by (Fröhlich, Spada & Allen, 1985). The rationale behind this choice was that this observation instrument was designed to examine the relationship between actual classroom practices and the development of communicative competence. And this is the true essence and significance of the current investigation.

2.4.8.7.2. Small-scale Study: Piloting Phase

To refine the research tools and data collection procedures, this phase was established. All the materials were field tested and revised on the basis of the feedback of the teachers and students in the pilot study. Dörnyei (2007) gave a piece of advice "always pilot your research instruments and procedures before launching your project" (p. 75). And he symbolized the piloting phase "like theatre performances, a research study always needs a dress rehearsal to ensure the high quality (in terms of reliability and validity) of the outcomes in the specific context" (ibid). Dörnyei (2007) continued to claim that piloting is more important in quantitative studies than in qualitative ones, because quantitative studies rely on the psychometric properties of the research instruments.

In a questionnaire survey, for example, if we have not covered a variable by sufficient questionnaire items then this variable simply cannot emerge in the results, no matter how important it may be in the particular context (Dörnyei, 2007). Sudman and Bradburn (1983, p. 283) went further to state "if you do not have the resources to pilot-test your questionnaire, don't do the study". Thus, piloting is an essential part of quantitative research and any attempt to shortcut the piloting stage will seriously "jeopardize the psychometric quality of the study" (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 75). And by patiently going through the piloting procedures, we can avoid a great deal of frustration and possible extra work later on (ibid).

In qualitative studies, as Richards (2005) pointed out, there is normally no real piloting stage in which the research tools are tested. This does not mean that there is no use in trying out certain techniques, but qualitative piloting differs from quantitative piloting in that we do not have to discard the obtained data after the 'trial runs' but can use it for the final analysis these early responses may differ from the ones coming from later stages, but differences are "food for analysis, not a problem for consistency" (ibid, p. 78).

2.4.8.7.3. Description of the Conversational Strategy Instruction Programme

2.4.8.7.3.1. Implementing the Experimental Design

The experiment consisted of a 16-week strategy training programme, it was conducted at Mohamed Lamine Debaghine (Sétif 2) University and embedded in the learners' official courses for both cases (i. e, first and third year). First year respondents were the researcher's learners of OE. And third year students were of another colleague. The class of first year was the only class of OE that the researcher taught in the academic year 2017-2018, but third class were selected according to the researcher's available time. First year class consisted of 30 students. And third year class were 36, six of them withdrew from the study. Randomly, each level was divided to an experimental group (N=15) and a control group (N=15). All groups in both levels

were taught and investigated by the researcher herself. The mean scores of the two classes in a 2-part Quick Placement Test (Version 2) were 62.52 and 60.80 and the one-way ANOVA test showed that the scores showed no statistically differences (ANOVA,P= .1350). The teaching materials for both groups and levels were designed by the researcher on the basis of available resources and well-researched strategies-based instructional materials (Klippel, 1984; Cohen & Weaver, 2006). And the full set of materials was field-tested and revised in the light of feedback from teachers and students in the pilot study.

2.4.8.7.3.2. Treatment Lessons

The interventionist study involved a total of nine lessons spread over six months. Each lesson lasted one hour and 30 minutes. The two groups (EG and CG) in both levels did similar activities in the oral lessons. Nonetheless, the EGs received additional instruction in the use of the seven communication strategies whereas the CGs did not. The instructional approach adopted for the EGs was explicit strategy training (Chamot, 2004, 2005; Chamot & O'Malley, 1994; Cohen & Weaver, 2006; Oxford, 1990; Rossiter, 2003a). To implement this approach, Dörnyei's (1995) CS training programme was adopted. Six porcedures in the programme were followed.

The first step dealt with 'raising learner awareness about the nature and communicative potential of CSs' in which the learners are made conscious of strategies already in their repertoire, "sensitizing them to the appropriate situations where these could be useful, and making them realize that these strategies could actually work" (Dörnyei, 1995, p. 63). The second step was 'encouraging students to be willing to take risks and use CSs'. It had to do with manipulating available language without being afraid of making errors (Faerch & Kasper, 1986; Yule & Tarone, 1990). Willems (1987) also argued that very often we need to make it clear to learners that for some strategies, "their innate tendency to use them in free speech activities is quite a natural urge and nothing to be frowned upon" (p. 356). The third was 'providing L2 models of the use of certain CSs' through demonstrations, listening materials and videos, and "getting learners to identify, categorize, and evaluate strategies used by native speakers or other L2 speakers" (Dörnyei, 1995, p. 63). And

the fourth step was about 'highlighting cross-cultural differences in CS use'. This might involve various degrees of stylistic appropriateness associated with CSs, differences in the frequency of certain CSs in the learners' L1 and the target language, as well as differences in the verbalization of particular CSs (ibid). 'Teaching CSs directly' was the fifth step of Dörnyei's (1995) strategy training programme. This structured inductive approach presents linguistic devices to verbalize CSs which have a finite range of surface structure realizations.

For McLaughlin (1990), verbal tasks are hierarchically structured and in order to realize a higher goal, each of the component skills needs to be executed. This would imply that "being familiar with a strategy in L1 might be an insufficient condition for efficient strategy use in L2 if certain lower order components are missing or not automatized properly" (Dörnyei, 1995, p. 64). 'Providing opportunities for practice in strategy use' was the last step in this instructional programme. This stage of practice "appears to be necessary because CSs can only fulfil their function as immediate first aid devices if their use has reached an automatic stage" (ibid). This automatization will not always occur without specific focused practice (Dörnyei, 1995; Willems, 1987). In the same vein, Kellerman (1991) acknowledged the possible usefulness of situational classroom practice of strategies in order to help learners overcome inhibitions arising from having to operate in the L2. All in all, the training included (a) raising learners' awareness of the potential usefulness of strategies, (b) modeling strategies, (c) providing explicit instruction, and (d) presenting opportunities for practice.

For the treatment condition, the researcher of the current study designed nine lessons (**Appendix E**). For the preparation of the treatment lessons, at the theoretical level, the researcher was helped by the works of Dörnyei's (1995) article 'On the Teachability of Communication Strategies'; 'Applied Linguistics for BA Students in English' by Sárosdy et al., (2006) and 'The Practice of English Language Teaching' (3rd Ed) by Harmer (2001). At the practical level, the researcher built the activities and topics of the lessons on many sources: 'The Effects of Teaching Communication Strategies to Thai Learners of English' by Kongsom (2009); 'Teaching Strategy Use for Oral Communication Tasks to ESL Learners' by Lam (2004) ; 'Conversation in Action: Let's Talk' (1st Ed.) by Rosset (1997); 'Communication Strategies: Learning and

Teaching How to Manage Oral Interaction' by Mariani (2010); 'Speaking' by Bygate (1987);'Strategic Competence and How to Teach it' by Dörnyei & Thurrell (1991); and 'Communication Strategies and Their Significance in Foreign Language Teaching' by Willems (1987). The first lesson was an 'Introductory Session'. For Dörnyei & Thurrell (1992), the first step in the cycle of teaching CSs is to raise learners' awareness. This stage is similar to the first step that Manchón (2000) mentioned in her training instruction procedure and has to do with the necessity to start with an assessment of the strategies that learners currently use and how well they use them because as Wenden (1991, p. 108) stated "the intervention should match the need". Three main tasks consisted this introductory session. The first task was a group of queries to ask learners about their communicative ends and linguistic means and their possible linguistic deficiencies in the target language. The second task presented to learners five different scenes about possible communication breakdowns that NNSs face when talking to NSs and how they manage to overcome these communicative handicups. Then in the third task, learners were given a set of definitions of CSs by various scholars and were asked to find the features that these definitions seem to share as well as the differences were tapped. The teacher, the researcher of the present study, ended up this session with comments and general conclusions about the problem-solving behaviour of CSs.

After, and from lesson 1 to lesson 7, the researcher taught successively these CSs: circumlocution, appeal for help, fillers, self-correction, comprehension-checks, clarification requests and confirmation checks. The main objective here was "to raise the student's awareness of the value and benefits of strategy use" (Manchón, 2000, p. 17). To this end, the instructor helped the learner develop declarative knowledge about the strategy (what strategy/ies they are learning to implement), procedural knowledge (how the strategy should be used and why) and conditional knowledge (in which contexts should the strategy be used) (Jones et al., 1987).

This explicit strategy instruction was predicated on the grounds that the metacognitive awareness that learners gain will help the retention and transferability of strategy use (Manchón, 2000). And the practice stage was devoted for using the strategy in question in contextualized tasks (ibid). The pre- and post-test speaking

tasks differed from the practice tasks in the instructional phase of the study, but they provided opportunity for learners to apply the communication strategies that they had been taught. And this was the aim of the last session which was a wrap-up one. The latter contained three tasks: the first two were a general review about the seven taught CSs where the learners gave their own auto-input about these communicative devices. And the last task in the wrap-up session was a free practice in which learners use these CSs in the main tasks of the study: topic description, oral interview and conversation task (as they did in the pre-test).

Each week, the instructor taught and reinforced one strategy lesson to the experimental groups of both levels. In order to avoid prejudicial reaction to the lessons (especially with third year), the strategy instruction was scheduled, delivered, and reinforced by the regular classroom teacher (with third year by the teacher of WE and with first year by the researcher of the current study as they were her learners of OE) and embedded within the curriculum (Rossiter, 2003). Throughout the communication strategy instruction period, the researcher kept a log indicating the length and date of every lesson, and any problems that may have been encountered. Every step in the research was either video-taped or audio-taped: the treatment phase was video-taped by one of the students and all production tasks with both levels in the pre- and post-tests were video-taped or audio-taped by the researcher.

All students of both levels, in both tests (pre- and post-) and in the three main tasks of the study were video-taped or audio-taped. The task that took much time in video-taping was 'Topic Description' as learners were video-taped individually only by the researcher. The treatment lessons were held in one place: the university classes. However, the videotaping took place in many available scenes (the classes, amphitheatres, staff room, and the green spaces inside the university) and according to the students' free time too.

2.4.8.8. Data Analysis Methods

As stated earlier, the present study investigated the teachability issue of CSs from both the product (i.e., overt strategy use) and process (i.e., covert strategic thinking) points of view. Learners' oral productions in the pre- and post-tests and in the three

tasks were video-/ audio-taped then transcribed according to the transcription guidelines supplied by Dresing et al., (2015). After the transcription phase, the researcher coded and counted the frequency of CSs that had been taught to learners in the treatment condition (circumlocution, appeal for help, fillers, self-correction, comprehension-checks, clarification requests and confirmation checks). 16 ٪ of the data reported here were double-coded (Rossiter, 2003). And inter-rater reliability was high (Pearson r = .80 for the topic description; Pearson r =. 88 in oral interview and Pearson r =. 99 in conversation task).

2.4.8.8.1. Procedures for the Analysis of the Self-report Questionnaire

In the current investigation, the self-report questionnaire was used to search CSs commonly employed by students and to explore their perceptions of the usefulness of each CS before and after the CS instruction. Thus, the data gathered from the self-report strategy questionnaire were analyzed to find out students' reported use and usefulness of CSs. To test the validity of the questionnaire and the correlation between its items, the Correlation Coefficient (Spearman) was calculated. The spearman (Rho) correlation is "appropriate for both rank-order data and interval data with the strength of ranks" (Hatch & Lazaraton, 1991, p. 451). Rho (p) tells us how the rankings of data from two variables are related (ibid).

And to test the difference between the two groups (experimental and control) and in-group differences (pre- and post-), Wilcoxon Matched-Pairs Signed-Ranks Test was used. According to Hatch & Lazaraton (1991), "The sign test uses information about the existence and direction of change in paired data" (p. 297). If we want to consider the degree of change as well as the direction of the differences, a more powerful nonparametric procedure can be used and "The Wilcoxon Matched-pairs signed-ranks test does this by giving more weight to a pair which shows a large difference between the two groups than a pair which shows a small difference" (ibid). Moreover, the Wilcoxon Matched-pairs test assumes that the researcher can tell which member of a pair is greater (a better) than the other. Also this test "assumes that the differences between pairs can be rank-ordered for absolute size. That is, the researcher can make a judgment of 'greater' for one of any pair's two performances and can also scale pairs

as to degree of difference. This ability to give information not only about the difference within each pair but also the differences between pairs is sometimes called measuring an ordered metric scale" (ibid).

2.4.8.8.2. Procedures for the Analysis of the Speaking Tasks (Speaking Task Battery)

In this study, three speaking tasks were used as an instrument to elicit students' actual employment of CSs. All students (N= 60), in both levels, and in both groups (EG and CG) were asked to complete these three tasks in the pre- and post-tests. To start with, the recorded data elicited from the three different speaking tasks were transcribed by the researcher. To code and categorize CSs used by the students in the study, the researcher followed 'Typological Analysis' by LeCompte and Preissle (1993) and Hatch (2002). According to LeCompte & Preissle (1993), 'Typological Analysis' "involves dividing everything observed into groups or categories on the basis of some canon for disagreeing the whole phenomenon under study. Such typologies may be devised from a theoretical framework or set of propositions or from common-sense or mundane perceptions of reality" (p. 257). Hatch (2002) further explained that "Data analysis starts by deviding the overall data set into categories or groups based on pretermined typologies. Typologies are generated from theory, common sense and/ or research objectives and initial data processing happens within those typological groupings" (p. 152).

That is, in 'Typological Analysis', an early step is to read through the data set and divide it into elements based on predetermined categories (Hatch, 2002). To analyze and identify what CSs the students used in the study, the researcher, therefore, followed the nine steps of basic typological analysis suggested by Hatch (2002):

1.Identify typologies to be analysed.

2.Read the data, marking entries related to your typologies.

3.Read entries by typology, recording the main ideas in entries on a summary sheet.

4.Look for patterns, relationships, themes within typologies.

5.Read data, coding entries according to patterns identified and keeping a record of what entries go within which elements of your patterns.

6.Decide if your patterns are supported by the data, and search the data for non-examples of your patterns.

7.Look for relationships among the patterns identified.

8.Write your patterns as one-sentence generalisations.

9.Select data experts that support your generalisations (p. 153).

The students' CC and in particular their strategic performance was the focus of the present research. Therefore, the data from the speaking tasks were analyzed to identify what CSs the students used, based on the CSs taxonomy suggested by Dörnyei & Kormos (1998) (**Appendix F**) and their corresponding input (i.e., linguistic structures) were supplied by Dörnyei & Thurrell (1992). To identify and code CSs in the speaking tasks, the number of CSs was not restricted to the number of utterances. That is, many utterances may contain just one strategy and/ or one utterance may contain examples of many strategies. The identification and evaluation of students' performance of the speaking tasks were evaluated by the researcher.

After the researcher finished identifying and coding data from the speaking tasks, then the inter-coder reliability in coding speaking tasks was rechecked to increase the reliability of the coding procedure. The researcher asked one permanent teacher at the same university (doing her PhD in nearly the same field of this research: investigating metacognitive strategies in the listening skill) to code 20% of the transcribed data. The researcher first explained the coding scheme to the other rater. Then the researcher compared her coding with that of the second rated. To calculate the inter-coder reliability coefficients, the researcher used the formula suggested by Miles & Huberman (1994) (reliability = number of agreements/total number of agreements and disagreements). In general, inter-coder reliability was calculated to find out the extent to which two or more coders agreed on the coding of content variables. According to Miles & Huberman (1994), the inter-coder agreements should be from 0.70 to 0.90, depending on the size and range of the coding scheme. In the present investigation, the

inter-coder reliability was 0.89 indicating a high agreement among the coders as the coding scheme was thoroughly prepared and followed.

2.4.8.8.2.1. Transcribing Videotapes

According to Dörnyei (2007), the use of video recordings has been increasingly advocated to supplement written corpora. Lapadat (2000) emphasized that a transcript is an interpretive 'retelling' of the original communication. Further, Roberts (1997, p. 168) put it "transcribers bring their own language ideology to the task. In other words, all transcription is representation, and there is no natural or objective way in which talk can be written". Roberts then highlighted the 'retelling' aspect of transcription by emphasizing that every decision about how to transcribe tells a story. And about the transcription convention, Dörnyei (2007) claimed that there is no 'perfect' transcription convention that we could adopt automatically. And Roberts (1997) suggested that transcribers have to use or develop a transcription system and follow a transcription protocol that can best represent the interaction they have recorded. The advantage of video recording is that it can capture information that would get lost by audio recording. And because transcribing spoken language can carry too many subjective elements, Arskey & Knight (1999) recommended the transcription of videotapes in exceptional cases and with a specific focus.

2.4.8.8.2.2. Coding Procedure

Qualitative data analysis invariably starts with 'coding'. Yet, this statement is only partially true, because usually a considerable amount of analysis has already taken place when we begin the actual coding process. 'Pre-coding reflections' shape our thinking about the data and influence the way we will go about coding it. Pre-coding deliberation needs to give way to a more formal and structured coding process, Dörnyei (2007). A 'code' is simply a label attached to a chunk of text intended to make the particular piece of information manageable and malleable (ibid). In actual practice, 'coding' involves highlighting extracts of the transcribed data and labelling these in a way that they can be easily identified, retrieved, or grouped, Dörnyei (2007). The latter proposed a recipe to be followed in making 'initial coding': "first, choose a text and read it through several times to obtain a general sense of the data. Then take a

highlighter (if you are working with hard copy) and start reading the text from the beginning. When you come to a passage that is relevant to your topic, simply highlight it and add an informative label on the margin" (p. 251).

2.4.8.8.3. Procedures for the Analysis of the Retrospective Protocols

To gain in-depth data on students' CSs use and tap their thoughts in action when they were trying to cope with the three research speaking tasks, the retrospective reports/ protocols were conducted immediately after each speaking task with all students of the experimental groups in both levels (N= 30) before and after the instructional phase. To minimize memory loss and to enhance the validity of the Stimulated Recall, the experimental group members were individually interviewed soon after the task performances. Each of the 30 students was interviewed by the researcher. During the SR interviews, the video-tape of each task was played back to the students, who were then asked to watch and to report on what they could remember about their thoughts during specific episodes while the task was in action (Lam, 2007). At the beginning of each SR, the researcher asked each learner 'What was at the back of your mind at that moment?' as she paused at any moment of the video. This recall question aimed to remind the students that the particular task in hand was the focus of the recall, thus minimizing the possibility that they would report thoughts that came up while the SR interviewed (ibid). And as recommended by Gass & Mackey (2000), the recall questions and the interview procedure were field-tested in the pilot study. Each SR interview was conducted in English and lasted between 5 to 15 minutes. Altogether there were 180 individual SR interviews (of both levels and in the pre-/ post-tests).

The 180 SR interviews were transcribed by the researcher for future analysis. The first step in analyzing protocol data was to identify a unit of analysis in each interview (Green, 1998). Each time the video was stopped, the student gave a report, which constituted an episode and was taken as the unit for analysis. As the SR interviews aimed to elicit baseline data about strategic thoughts (if any) when the students were engaging in the research tasks, every SR in an episode was segmented, marked and bounded by a pair of slashes whenever a mention of a strategy type was identified

(Green, 1998; Gass & Mackey, 2000). Each recall segment was then assigned a strategy name. And it was possible that no strategies were identified (Lam, 2007).

The three steps recommended by Green (1998) for analyzing verbal protocol data were employed for the present study. They are (1) developing a coding scheme, (2) identifying the unit for analysis, and (3) segmenting the protocols for coding. The first step is to draw up an initial coding scheme. All the target strategies that were introduced to the students during the strategy training sessions form the 'priori list' of categories for coding reported strategy use. The intention is to assess whether students reported using the seven target strategies (Lam, 2004, 2007). The second step is to identify the unit of analysis in the SRI transcripts. Every time when the video was stopped and when the students did the reporting constitutes an episode. So an episode comprises the video-play back of a related clip, the prompt (if any) by the researcher and the prompted or unprompted reporting of a student. The third step is to segment the 'Recall' for coding. The 'Recall' in each episode is segmented into unit(s) in which each mention of the strategy type is categorized and coded (Gass & Mackey, 2000). To ensure the reliability of coding, the same rater used in coding the speaking tasks was given 20٪ of the SR data to be rechecked. The SR context and procedure was thoroughly explained to the other rater and then was asked to code the segmented 'Recalls'. In other terms, the other rater was asked to re-analyze all the 'Recalls' (20 per cent of the SRs that were randomly selected) which have been segmented and coded by the researcher beforehand, using the researcher's coding scheme. Regarding reliability checks, the same formula used for the performance data (in the three speaking tasks) was applied again to SRs data. The reliability coefficient was r= 0.78 which indicated that the segments coded by the researcher matched the other rater's, and that the researcher's coding scheme was understandable and usable by other raters.

The main disagreements that affected the reliability of the codings can be summarized in the subsequent reasons. The first was that it was at times difficult to discern the meaning of the 'Recalls' alone without the performance data, i.e., the recordings of the speaking tasks. And the second dealt with the different interpretations that were given to certain learners' 'Recalls', i.e., some strategies seemed to serve more than one function and that it was difficult to assign one code

(i.e., strategy) as with the example of some fillers as 'uh' or 'um' as they were considered as 'hesitation devices' by the researcher but the other rater considered them as just answers to the students' prompts. Thus, it might be necessary to assign two codes to the one segment. Also, it should be clearly mentioned that the second reason was also influenced by the first. Furthermore, for each SR, the Recalls are devided into segments in which each mention of a strategy type is categorized and coded. The number of recall segments coded at a given strategy was then equivalent to the frequency count of the reported use of the strategy. In cases where a recall segment could not be considered 'strategic', it was coded as (X). They were also counted with the total number of the recall segments reported. In each SR, the proportional frequency of the reported use of target strategies (T) was expressed in terms of a percentage and calculated as follows (Lam, 2004, 2007):

(total number of recall segments coded as T)/ (total number of recall segments coded (T+NT+X)) x 100.

2.4.8.8.4. Procedures for the Analysis of the Attitudinal Questionnaire

To investigate the students' attitudes towards the teaching of the seven CSs and the usefulness of the instructional phase, the data from the attitudinal questionnaire were analyzed and summarized by the researcher. The attitudinal questionnaire consisted of six open-ended (Kongsom, 2009). According to Dörnyei (2007), the qualitative categories used in 'content analysis' are not predetermined but are derived inductively from the data analyzed. He claimed that "Another way of distinguishing quantitative and qualitative content analysis is by referring to the former as 'manifest level analysis', because it is an objective and descriptive account of the surface meaning of the data, and the latter as 'latent level analysis', because it concerns a second level, interpretive analysis of the underlying deeper meaning of the data" (2007, pp. 245-246). According to Dörnyei (2003), in clarification questions, sentence completion tasks, and short-answer questions, the categorization process involves more potentially subjective elements on the part of the coder. And in order to avoid the harmful effects of such rater subjectivity, these items are to be processed by means of some systematic

'content analysis', whereby the pool of diverse responses is reduced to be handful of key issues in a reliable manner. To achieve this reliability, two broad phases were followed, "(1) Taking each person's response in turn and marking in the many distinct content elements, substansive statements, or key points; (2) Based on the ideas and concepts highlighted in the text, forming broader categories to describe the content of the response in a way that allows for comparisons with other responses" (p. 117). In fact, the categories obtained in Phase2 can be numerically coded and then entered the data file to be treated as quantitative data. And some of the key points highlighted in Phase1 can also be "quoted verbatim for the purpose of illustration and exemplification, or to retain some of the original flavor of the response" (ibid). 16 ٪ of the data reported here were double-coded (Rossiter, 2003) (Pearson r =.80).

Conclusion:

The fourth chapter was dedicated to tackle a number of methodological issues. The first part presented the study's research questions and hypotheses. Then, the research design was thoroughly explained. After, the research variables were distinguished. Moreover, the setting, learners' profiles and sampling techniques were discussed. Further, data collection tools were well stated. In addition, data collection procedures were expounded (preliminary data collection tools: baseline data, small-scale study: piloting phase, and description of the communication strategy instruction programme). And the last part of this chapter presented the data analyses methods.

The Impact of Implementing the Direct Approach in Teaching Conversational Strategies on the Development of EFL Learners' Intercultural Communicative Competence
Case Study of First Year and Third Year Students at Sétif 2 University

Chapter Five:

Analyses and Findings

Chapter Five: Analyses and Findings

Introduction:

The fifth chapter deals with the analyses and findings of the current investigation. The latter was conducted in three phases. Thus, the results are to be displayed following the chronological and systematic order that the study respected. First of all, the results and interpretations of the research tools (Needs Analysis Survey, Teachers' Interviews and Classroom Observation (COLT)) that were used in the preliminary phase are to be presented. Secondly, the findings of the second phase, i.e., the Small-Scale Study (Piloting Phase), are to be displayed. And lastly, only the findings of the third phase, i.e., the main study, are to be unveiled as the interpretation of them will be the focus of the subsequent chapter (Chapter Six).

2.5.1. First Phase: Baseline Data (Preliminary Phase)

2.5.1.1. Needs Analysis Survey: Results and Interpretations of the Main Questions

The most remarkable results to emerge from the survey are: the importance of vocabulary and speaking skill to LLs, and their need to be trained in the TL.

About the first, Schmidt (2000) emphasized that lexical knowledge is central to communicative competence and to the acquisition of a second language. And if learners lack vocabulary knowledge, they soon discover that their ability to comprehend or express themselves clearly is limited (Decarrico, 200; Nation, 2001). And for the second, Ur (1996) claimed that knowing a language is usually perceived as speaking that language effectively.

Moreover, learner training involves developing the student's awareness of him/ herself as a learner, of the process of language learning and use, and of the nature of the target language (Dickinson, 1988). And this type of training should expose learners to a range of strategies that allow them to handle different task types and learning situations effectively and with confidence (Victori & Lockhart, 1995). For Manchón (2000), learner training also involves instructing learners in the use of language learning and language use strategies.

2.5.1.2. Teachers' Inreviews: Results and Interpretations of the Main Questions

Again, the significance of the lexical repertoire and speaking are emphasized. Besides, the findings reinforce the existing communication gaps that LLs face. Further, the results offer compelling evidence for the absence of a unified syllabus for teaching the oral skill. In fact, second/ foreign language learners' speaking ability is sometimes interrupted by a gap in their linguistic knowledge (Rababah, 2016) and this gap may cause frustration for both speaker and listener as a result of communication breakdown.

And, in the CANVA, the teachability of OE or written expression is linked to " Renforcer les capacités de compréhension d'expression à l'écrit et à l'oral" (**Appendix A**). However, reinforcing or empowering the learners' oral and written capacities of comprehension are not given in a detailed way: what to teach and what not to tackle. And by examining the syllabi of all years, the researcher did not find any sign of teaching any type of CSs which the literature review overwhelmingly proves to be effective in language teaching (Rababah, 2016).

2.5.1.3. Classroom Observation: Results and Interpretations

First of all, the findings extend our knowledge that the activities given to first year and third year LLs are non-authentic. In other terms, the activities held in the EFL class do not replicate those found in authentic settings. As put forward by Herrington, Reeves and Oliver (2010), many formal education systems orient towards abstract and decontextualized forms of teaching, rather than exploring knowledge as a tool. Also, Willis (1996) argued that while LLs are acquiring another language, they naturally focus on meaning; however, "in classrooms, many speaking activities involve students in producing a given form or pattern, or expressing a given function, rather than saying what they feel or want to say" (p.7).

In addition, the results provide considerable insight into CR discourse that was characterized by the supremacy of 'teacher talk'. About controlling classroom talk, Woods (2006) claimed that "teaching is talking" (p. 157) and it is more or less to find a silent teacher. And language classroom displays many of the features of asymmetrical speech encounters as "an interrogation-like structure to the discourse;

the use of closed-ended questions calling for minimal responses; instances of controlling speech, such commands; and differently distributed patterns of intrusion and interruption" (ibid, p. 158). In other terms, teachers have been perceived as the 'holders' of knowledge, and teaching as the 'transmission' of this knowledge to students or pupils, "The transmission-based model of teaching is based on a particular conception of knowledge as a body of discrete, disconnected and correct 'facts' that can be passed on from teachers to students" (ibid). And students' knowledge is primarily assessed by linguistic means: answering teachers' questions, constructing written coursework, sitting examinations, and so forth.

2.5.2. Second Phase: A Small-Scale Study (Piloting Phase)

2.5.2.1. Description of the Piloting Study

Before starting the main study, the researcher carried out a small-scale study to refine the research instruments, the instruction phase as well as data collection procedures. In other terms, the feasibility of the research was verified. The piloting phase was conducted two months before the main research. It was with 28 participants: 14 students of first year and 14 of third year. They were randomly chosen to form two experimental groups and two control groups (seven students in each). The piloting stydy took place at Mohamed Lamine Debaghine -Sétif2- University. All of these students were asked to fill out a self-report strategy questionnaire in the pre- and post-phase (**Appendix F**).

For the strategy training, 14 students (seven of each year) attended a four-lesson strategy training class that lasted 90 minutes per session. All students (28 participants) of both levels and both groups (CG and EG) completed two speaking tasks (Topic Description and Interview Task) in the pre- and post-phase. The students in the experimental groups, of both levels, were asked to report back their use of strategies, if any; then they filled out an 'Attitudinal Questionnaire' (**Appendix G**). SPSS version 22 was utilized to compute the validity and reliability of the research instruments used.

The self-report strategy questionnaire consisted of 39 communication strategy statements (for four CSs). The reliability of the questionnaire, estimated by Cronbach's Alpha, was 0.80 which was rather high and clearly demonstrated that all

the items in the questionnaire could measure the students' use of CSs with enough consistency. According to Pallant (2005), if Cronbach's Alpha coefficient is above .7, "the scale can be consisdered reliable with out sample" (p. 87). With respect to the speaking task battery, the two tasks were tried out with the 28 students of both levels before and after the CS instruction. The recorded data were transcribed and coded by the researcher. In the post-phase, the Cronbach's Alpha was .77. And SPSS version 22 was used to count the frequency and Mean in the pre- and post-tests. Then, the retrospective reports were piloted with 14 learners of the experimental groups (seven of first year and seven of third year). The audio-/video-tape recordings were played back and learners were asked to listen to their performances of both tasks in the both tests. Their thoughts, communication problems and reasons for their choices of strategy use were recorded.

Data from the stimulated recalls were analyzed and summarized by the researcher. To test the internal validity of the stimulated recalls, Pearson, the correlation coefficient, was 0.78 and the reports' reliability was tested by Cronbach's Alpha (=0.81). After the post-test, the attitudinal questionnaire was filled out by the learners of the experimental group members of both levels (14 in number). Guttman Split-Half Coefficient was .78 for the attitudinal questionnaire. This coefficient was used rather than Cronbach's Alpha because the questions ranged between close-ended and open-ended. Thus it would be better to split the questions according to their length to give more appropriate results.

2.5.2.2. Discussion and Results of the Pilot Study

As a matter of fact, three main conclusions are drawn from the present small-scale study. The first is about the importance of raising learners'awareness about the effective role of CSs. It could be argued that the OCST appears to have a positive impact on students' declarative knowledge 'about' strategy use. The OCST has yet to have a strong effect on the speakers' procedural knowledge of 'how to' implement strategy use (Lam, 2006). It is through repeated practice that declarative knowledge of strategy use may be automatized to become observable, procedural knowledge of strategy use. This argument is in line with Johnson's process of "proceduralising declarative knowledge" through practice (Johnhson, 1994, p. 125). Hence, while the

training effect may be observable, the value of strategy training may lie in its helping students acquire declarative knowledge, which is the first step to proceduralisation on the learning continuum (Lam, 2006).

The second is about the teachability of CSs. Dörnyei & Thurrell (1991) argued that the teaching of SC is particularly relevant to the foreign language classroom not least because students who possess a wide repertoire of linguistic knowledge may still fail in oral language examinations because they often lack the ability to keep going when there is a communication breakdown. Hence, according to Dörnyei & Thurrell (1991), the mastery of linguistic ability alone does not guarantee success in using an L2/ FL in oral communication.

And the last conclusion is in favor for the direct approach to teaching CSs. It is necessary to introduce explicit meta-cognitive strategy training to raise awareness of CS strategy use in order to further expand TL development. Establishing CS training with a focus on solving TL vocabulary problems could be useful for the future curriculum development. In fact, designing books with explicit strategy training in order to raise the consciousness of the LLs to CSs is a good starting point (Nakatani et al., 2012).

2.5.3. Third Phase: The Main Study

2.5.3.1. Results of Self-Report Strategy Questionnaire on the Use and Usefulness of CSs

2.5.3.1.1. Homogeneity between the CG and EG Groups before and after the Instructional Phase

2.5.3.1.1.1. First Year: Before the Instructional Phase

To test the validity of the study's hypotheses, the Mann-Whitney U test was used to find out the significance of the differences between the mean ranks of the experimental and control groups.

Table 4: Homogeneity between the CG and EG Groups before the Instructional Phase (First Year)

	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Mann-Whitney U	Z	Sig
Control Group	15	17.80	267	78	1.43	0.150
Experimental Group	15	13 .20	198			

Table 1 demonstrates the responses of the participants of both groups in the (Pre – Test) measurement in the study tool (Questionnaire). The value of Mann-Whitney (U= 78) and the value of z is estimated at 1.43 at the level of significance specified in the study (0.05). And by comparing it with (Sig) or P = (0.15), we find that its value is greater than that specified in the study, and therefore there are no differences between the two groups.

2.5.3.1.1.2. First Year: After the Instructional Phase

To test the validity of the hypotheses, the Mann-Whitney U test was used to identify the significance of the differences between the average ranks of the experimental and control group.

Table 5: Homogeneity between the CG and EG Groups after the Instructional Phase (First Year)

Group	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Mann-Whitney U	Z	Sig
Control Group	15	8	120	120	4.68	0.000
Experimental Group	15	23	345			

Table 5 illustrates the answers of the studentss of both groups in the post-test in the research tool (Questionnaire). The value of Mann-Whitney is (U= 120) and the value of z is estimated at 4.68 at the level of significance specified in the study (0.05). And by comparing it with (Sig) or P = (0.000), we find that its value is less than that specified in the study, and thus there are differences between the two groups. More importantly, the null hypothesis (H0) is rejected, and the alternative hypothesis (H1) is accepted hypothesis.

2.5.3.1.1.3. Third Year: Before the Instructional Phase

To test the validity of the study's hypotheses, the Mann-Whitney U test was used to find out the significance of the differences between the mean ranks of the experimental and control groups.

Table 6: Homogeneity between the CG and EG Groups before the Instructional Phase (Third Year)

Group	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Mann-Whitney U	Z	Sig
Control Group	15	18.5	277.5	67.5	1.87	0.061
Experimental Group	15	12.5	187.5			

Table 6 displays the responses of the individuals of the two groups in the (Pre – Test) measurement in the study instrument (Questionnaire). The value of Mann-Whitney (U=67.5) and the value of z is estimated at 1.87 at the level of significance specified in the study (0.05). And by comparing it with (Sig) or P = (0.15), we find that its value is greater than that specified in the study, and consequently there are no differences between the EG and the CG before the instructional phase.

2.5.3.1.1.4. Third Year: After the Instructional Phase

To test the validity of the hypotheses, the Mann-Whitney U test was used to identify the significance of the differences between the average ranks of the experimental and control groups.

Table 7: Homogeneity between the CG and EG Groups after the Instructional Phase (Third Year)

Group	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Mann-Whitney U	Z	Sig
Control Group	15	8	120	120	4.67	0.000
Experimental Group	15	23	345			

Table 7 reports the responses (answers) of the students of the CG and the EG in the post-test as related to the research tool (Questionnaire). The value of Mann-Whitney (U=120) and the value of z is estimated at value of 4.67 at the level of significance specified in the study (0.05). And by comparing it with (Sig) or P = (0.000), we find

that its value is less than that specified in the study, and therefore there are differences between the two groups. Again, the alternative hypothesis (H1) is accepted.

2.5.3.2. Students' Reports of Strategy Usefulness from the Self-Report Strategy Questionnaire

The purpose is to display the effects of CS instruction on students' reports of the use of each CS. Wilcoxon Rank Sums test was used to compare the two groups on the basis of their ranks above and below the median.

Table 8: Reports of EG Students of CS Use Before and After CS Instruction (Both Levels)

Pre- Post-Test U	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Rank	Z	P
Negative Ranks	0	0	0	3.41	0.001
Positive Ranks	15	8	120		
Equal	0				
Total	15				

Table 8 represents the responses of the experimental group (EG) members on the scale of the part (U) in the pre-test and the post-test. The value of Z is (= 3.41) at the value of P = 0.001. By comparing it with the level of 'Significance' in the study (=0.05), we conclude that there are differences within the group (EG) in favour of the post-test. And as the value of 'Mean Rank' is (=8), this means that the number of individuals who benefited from the traitment) was positively estimated (i.e. the development affected all members of the group.

Table 9: Reports of CG Students of CS Use Before and After CS Instruction (First Year)

Pre- Post-Test U	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Rank	Z	P
Negative Ranks	6	6.25	37	0.35	0.721
Positive Ranks	5	5.80	29		
Equal	4				
Total	15				

Table 9 summarizes the responses of members of the CG on the scale of part (U) in both tests. The value of Z is (= 0.35) at the value of P = 0.721. By comparing it to the level of 'Significance' in the study (0.05), we conclude that there are no differences

within the CG as it reached a value of (Positive Ranks) five individuals. While (Negative Ranks) was a value of six individuals, and they are the individuals who were negatively reflected on the teaching method in the normal way, while not 4 individuals developed, meaning that there was no development in the group.

Table 10: Reports of CG Students of CS Usefulness Before and After CS Instruction (Third Year)

CG -Pre – Post-Test	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Rank	Z	P
Negative Ranks	4	4.50	18	2.17	0.029
Positive Ranks	10	8.70	87		
Equal	1				
Total	15				

Table 10 lists the responses of the CG members on the scale as a whole in both tests. The value of Z is (= 2.17) when the value of P is (= 0.02). By comparing it to the level of significance in the study (0.05), we conclude that there are differences within the group (CG), as it reached a value of (Positive Ranks =10 individuals). Negative Ranks was taking a value of four individuals, and they are the individuals who were negatively reflected on the teaching method in the normal way.

Table 11: Reports of EG Students of Strategy Frequency from the Self-Report Strategy Questionnaire (Both Levels)

Pre- Post-Test F	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Rank	Z	P
Negative Ranks	0	0	0	3.41	0.001
Positive Ranks	15	8	120		
Equal	0				
Total	15				

Table 11indicates the responses of the experimental group members on the scale of the part (F) in both tests. The value of Z is (= 3.41) at the value of P = 0.001. By comparing it with the level of 'Significance' in the study (0.05), we conclude that there are differences within the EG in favour of the post-test, as the value of (Mean Rank) was 8, meaning that the number of individuals who benefited from the experience (Traitment) was estimated as (Positive Ranks = 15 individuals). That is, the development affected all members of the group.

Table 12: Reports of CG Students of Strategy Frequency from the Self-Report Strategy Questionnaire (First Year)

Pre- Post-Test F	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Rank	Z	P
Negative Ranks	2	6.25	12.5	2.70	0.007
Positive Ranks	13	8.27	107.5		
Equal	0				
Total	15				

Table12 shows the responses of the CG on the scale of part (F) in both tests. The value of Z is (= 2.70) when the value of P is (= 0.007). And by comparing it to the level of 'Significance' in the study (0.05), we conclude that there are differences within the group (CG), as it reached a value of (Positive Ranks = 13 individuals). Negative Ranks was having a value of 2 individuals, who are the individuals who negatively reflected on the teaching method in the normal way. That is, an intruder variable was found and influenced the results.

Table 13: Reports of CG Students of Strategy Frequency from the Self-Report Strategy Questionnaire (Third Year)

Pre- Post-Test F	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Rank	Z	P
Negative Ranks	1	5.50	5.50	2.96	0.003
Positive Ranks	13	7.65	99.50		
Equal	1				
Total	15				

Table13 details the responses of the control group on the scale of the part (F) in the pre-test and post-test. The value of Z is (= 2.96) when the value of P is (= 0.003). By comparing it with the level of 'Significance' in the study (0.05), we conclude that there are differences within the CG, as it reached a value of (Positive Ranks =13 individuals), while 'Negative Ranks' was taking a value of 1 individual.

2.5.3.2.1. Summary of the Findings of Self-Report Strategy Questionnaire

CSs instruction appeared to cause some changes and positively influenced students' reports on the use and usefulness of the seven CSs taught. In fact, the experimental groups in both levels outperformed their counterparts in the control groups. The treatment groups, in the post phase, showed an apparent awareness of the use and

usefulness of CSs: where the Z=3.41 and P=0.00. However, the control groups displayed no difference between the pre- and post-test: Z=0.35 and P=721 for first year; and Z=2.17 and P=0.02 for third year.

2.5.3.3. Results of the Speaking Task Battery

This section investigates changes in students' use of CSs in task performance. In other terms, the focus is on the effects of strategy instruction on students' actual use of CSs. We start by testing the 'homogeneity' and 'normality' of the research hypotheses. 'Levene Statistic' was used to test the former and 'Kolmogorov-Smirnov' and 'Shapiro-Wilk' tests were used to test the latter. Then, independent T-Test of the pre-tests and post-tests of the CG and EG was calculated. In different terms, we counted the actual use (i.e., frequency) of CSs before and after CS instruction in both groups. Moreover, the T value was calculated when paired samples T-Test of the performance of the experimental group on the pre-test and the post-test were conducted.

2.5.3.3.1. Test of Homogeneity of First Year Learners

Table 14: Test of Homogeneity in Speaking Task Battery (First Year)

CG_EG_Pre – Test			
Levene Statistic	**df1**	**df2**	**Sig.**
1.430	**1**	**28**	**0.242**

H0 : S1 = S2 ; H1 : S1 ≠ S2

Through the results of Table14 on the homogeneity of the sample, and by comparing the calculated level of 'Significance' which was estimated at 0.242, the level of significance specified in the study, we accept the hypothesis (H0), meaning that the data are homogeneous.

2.5.3.3.2. Test of Normality for First Year Learners

Table 15: Test of Normality in Speaking Task Battery (First Year)

Tests of Normality						
	Kolmogorov-Smirnov			**Shapiro-Wilk**		
	Statistic	**df**	**Sig.**	**Statistic**	**Df**	**Sig.**
Pre – Test CG	**0.140**	**15**	**0.200**	**0.943**	**15**	**0.420**
Pre – Test EG	**0.149**	**15**	**0.200**	**0.945**	**15**	**0.445**

H0: The data follow a normal distribution; H1: The data do not follow a normal distribution.

2.5.3.3.3. Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test

Table15 highlights the results of moderate distribution and by comparing the level of 'Significance' in the study, estimated at (0.05), with the calculated level of Significance (Sig) in both groups, which is estimated at (CG = 0.200) (EG = 0.200), which is a value greater than the level of Significance, we accept the zero hypothesis. (H0), meaning that the data follow a normal distribution.

2.5.3.3.4. Shapiro-Wilk Test

Table15 presents the results of moderate distribution. By comparing the level of Significance in the study, estimated at (0.05), with the calculated level of Significance (Sig) in both groups, which is estimated at (CG = 0.420) (EG = 0.445), which is a value greater than the level of significance, we accept the zero hypothesis (H0) that is, the data follow a normal distribution.

2.5.3.3.5. Test of Homogeneity of Third Year Learners

Table 16: Test of Homogeneity in Speaking Task Battery (Third Year)

CG_EG_Pre – Test			
Levene Statistic	**df1**	**df2**	**Sig.**
2.362	**1**	**28**	**0.136**

H0 : S1 = S2 ; H1 : S1 ≠ S2

Through the results of Table16 on the homogeneity of the sample, and by comparing the calculated level of 'Significance', which is estimated at 0.136, the level of Significance specified in the study, we accept the hypothesis (H0), meaning that the data are homogeneous.

2.5.3.3.6. Test of Normality for Third Year Learners

Table 17: Test of Normality in Speaking Task Battery (Third Year)

Tests of Normality						
	Kolmogorov-Smirnov			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	Df	Sig.
Pre – Test CG	0.165	15	0.200	0.875	15	0.069
Pre – Test EG	0.183	15	0.191	0.895	15	0.081

H0: The data follow a normal distribution; H1: The data does not follow a normal distribution

2.5.3.3.7. Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test

Table17 shows the results of moderate distribution and by comparing the level of Significance in the study, estimated at (0.05), with the calculated level of Significance (Sig) in both groups, which is estimated at (CG = 0.200) (0.191 = EG), which is a value greater than the level of Significance, we accept the zero hypothesis. (H0), meaning that the data follow a normal distribution.

2.5.3.3.8. Shapiro-Wilk Test

Table17 reports the results of moderate distribution and by comparing the level of Significance in the study, estimated at (0.05), with the calculated level of Significance (Sig) in both groups, which is estimated at (CG = 0.069) (0.081 = EG), which is a value greater than the level of Significance, we accept the zero hypothesis (H0) that is, the data follow a normal distribution.

2.5.3.3.9. Independent T-Test of the Pre-Tests and Post-Tests of the Control and the Experimental Groups

2.5.3.3.9.1. CSs Use in Topic Description Task with First Year Learners

Table 18: Independent T-Test of the Pre-Test in CSs Use in Topic Description Task (First Year)

Pre – test		Description			
Communication strategies		Control group		Experimental Group	
		Frequency	Percent (%)	Frequency	Percent (%)
1	Circumlocution	0	0	0	0
2	Appeal for help	0	0	0	0
3	Fillers	128	99.22	139	85.27
4	Self – correction	16	12.5	24	14.72
5	Comprehension checks	0	0	0	0

6	**Clarification request**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**
7	**Asking for confirmation**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**

Table 18 demonstrates that the main communication strategies used in the pre-test phase by both groups were 'fillers' and 'self-correction'. The control group members used 'fillers' 128 times (99.22 per cent) and used 'self-correction' 16 times (12.5). And the experimental group utilized 139 (85.27per cent) 'fillers' and 24 (14.72 per cent) 'self-correction'.

Table 19: Independent T-Test of the Post-Test in CSs Use in Topic Description Task (First Year)

Post – test		**Description**			
Communication strategies		**Control group**		**Experimental Group**	
		Frequency	**Percent (%)**	**Frequency**	**Percent (%)**
1	**Circumlocution**	**0**	**0**	**3**	**0.89**
2	**Appeal for help**	**0**	**0**	**1**	**0.29**
3	**Fillers**	**116**	**77.85**	**281**	**83.88**
4	**Self – correction**	**33**	**22.14**	**50**	**14.92**
5	**Comprehension checks**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**
6	**Clarification request**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**
7	**Asking for confirmation**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**

In the post-test, for topic description, the control group kept using just two strategies: fillers (77.85 per cent) and self-correction (22.14 per cent) as they did in the pre-test phase. However, the experimental group used more two CSs: 'circumlocution (0.89 per cent) and 'appeal for help (0.29 per cent), in addition to the previousely utilized strategies in the pre-phase, i.e., 'fillers (83.88 per cent) and 'self-correction' (14.92 per cent), as shown in Table 19.

2.5.3.3.9.2. CSs Use in Topic Description with Third Year Learners

Table 20: Independent T-Test of the Pre-Test in CSs Use in Topic Description Task (Third Year)

Pre – test		Description			
Communication strategies		Control group		Experimental Group	
		Frequency	Percent (%)	Frequency	Percent (%)
1	Circumlocution	0	0	0	0
2	Appeal for help	0	0	0	0
3	Fillers	149	100	113	96.58
4	Self – correction	0	0	4	3.41
5	Comprehension checks	0	0	0	0
6	Clarification request	0	0	0	0
7	Asking for confirmation	0	0	0	0

For third year, in the pre-test, learners (in both levels) used just one communication strategy, fillers (100 per cent). And the experimental group used two types of CSs: 'fillers' (96.58 per cent) and 'self-correction (3.41 per cent), as explained in Table 20.

Table 21: Independent T-Test of the Post-Test in CSs Use in Topic Description Task (Third Year)

Post – test		Topic Description			
Communication strategies		Control group		Experimental Group	
		Frequency	Percent (%)	Frequency	Percent (%)
1	Circumlocution	0	0	0	0
2	Appeal for help	0	0	0	0
3	Fillers	133	100	274	94.15
4	Self – correction	0	0	14	4.81
5	Comprehension checks	0	0	3	1.03
6	Clarification request	0	0	0	0
7	Asking for confirmation	0	0	0	0

In the 'Topic Description' task, the control group and the experimental group used different CSs in the post-test phase. On the one hand, the control group utilized only fillers (100 per cent). On the other hand, three CSs were applied by the instruction group: 'fillers' (94.15 per cent); 'self-correction' (4.81per cent) and 'comprehension checks' (1.03 per cent), as clarified in Table 21.

2.5.3.3.9.3. Examples of Students' Use of CSs in the Pre-Test/ Post-Test in the 'Topic Description' Task

First Year Student (Female) in the Pre-test (Topic Description)

Peace is a very need (inc.) for both development and people living in society that is because it's a paved way **er** for development **er** it leads people think and think to develop society and to move forward. However, absence of peace as we/ as is it can be seen in Syria for example **er** (…) it leads people leaving their their country just because they seek peace **er**. They prefer to live in [poverty?] they need just to find peace in order to live.

First Year Student (Female) in the Post-test (Topic Description)

Marriage is a new step in life. When you thought **er** think about marriage you should know that **er** you should know that (..) **er** you will live a new step with a new process **er** with a new pace **er alright**? **Er em I see I mean** they will responsible of a family and one day will be a mom and and how can you **er** be responsible **er** can you educate your children well.

Third Year Student (Male) in the Pre-test (Topic Description)

Peace is a state of non-violent environment in **er**/ in a certain place or time (…) it can be achieved through communication and (inc.) between nations not engaging in wars and **er** (…) resolving to peaceful solutions. (…) **Er** I don't think that it is necessarity beneficial since it leads to globalisation and mixture of voices.

Third Year Student (Male) in the Post-test (Topic Description)

Peace is **er** people want to **er how to say it er** stay **let me correct myself** when citizens want to stay out of war and **er** they don't want to **er** there are ways to invade them **er do you get me** ? I can explain in simple words **er I actually** meant that war **er** is a very bad thing **er** for other nations. So that's why people are **er** always looking for peace. **Er** (..) peace something cannot be achieved **if you get me** ? **Well actually I think** it can be achieved if we use some kind of methods that **er** help us achieve peace eventually.

2.5.3.3.9.4. CSs Use in Oral Interview with First Year Learners

Table 22: Independent T-Test of the Pre-Test in CSs Use in Oral Interview Task (First Year)

Pre – test		Oral interview			
Communication strategies		Control group		Experimental Group	
		Frequency	Percent (%)	Frequency	Percent (%)
1	Circumlocution	0	0	0	0
2	Appeal for help	0	0	0	0
3	Fillers	185	95.36	154	82.79
4	Self – correction	6	3.09	32	17.20
5	Comprehension checks	0	0	0	0
6	Clarification request	0	0	0	0
7	Asking for confirmation	0	0	0	0

As in the first task (Topic Description), learners of both groups in the second task (Oral Interview) used only two kinds of communication strategies: 'fillers' and 'self-correction'. Different percentages were represented. In other terms, 'Fillers' was used 185 times (95.36 per cent) by the CG and 154 times by the EG (82.79 per cent) by the EG. And about 'self-correction', it was utilized 6 times (3.09 per cent) and 32 times (17.20 per cent) by the EG, as can be seen in Table 22.

Table 23: Independent T-Test of the Post-Test in CSs Use in Oral Interview Task (First Year)

Post – test		Oral Interview			
Communication strategies		Control group		Experimental Group	
		Frequency	Percent (%)	Frequency	Percent (%)
1	Circumlocution	0	0	0	0
2	Appeal for help	0	0	0	0
3	Fillers	155	93.37	170	94.97
4	Self – correction	6	3.35	10	6.02
5	Comprehension checks	0	0	0	0
6	Clarification request	1	0.60	2	1.11
7	Asking for confirmation	0	0	1	0.55

In 'Oral Interview' task, in the post-test, the control group used three CSs and the experimental group utilized four. The common used CSs by both groups were: 'fillers'; 'self-correction' and 'clarification request'. And 'asking for confirmation' was used only by the experimental participants. And even in the shared used CSs, learners of the instruction group outperformed those in the comparison group. 170 (94.97 per cent) of 'fillers' were used by EG but the CG used 155 (93.37 per cent). And 'self-correction' was used 10 times (6.02 per cent) by the EG and only six times (3.35 per cent) by the CG. About 'clarification request', the EG used it twice (1.11 per cent) and once by the CG (0.60 per cent). 'Asking for confirmation' was used just one time (0.55 peer cent) by the EG, as shown in Table 23.

2.5.3.3.9.5. CSs Use in Oral Interview Task with Third Year Learners

Table 24: Independent T-Test of the Pre-Test in CSs Use in Oral Interview Task (Third Year)

Pre – test		Oral Interview			
Communication strategies		Control group		Experimental Group	
		Frequency	Percent (%)	Frequency	Percent (%)
1	Circumlocution	0	0	0	0
2	Appeal for help	0	0	0	0
3	Fillers	222	94.46	170	94.97
4	Self – correction	2	0.85	6	31.57
5	Comprehension checks	4	1.70	0	0
6	Clarification request	7	2.97	2	1.11
7	Asking for confirmation	0	0	1	0.55

Third year learners used different and many CSs in the pretest. The control group used fillers (94.46 per cent); 'self-correction' (0.85 per cent); 'comprehension checks' (1.70 per cent); and 'clarification request' (2.97 per cent). And the experimental group did not use 'comprehension checks' but they utilized 'asking for confirmation' once (0.55 per cent). The other CSs were used with different percentages : 94.97‰ ; 31.57‰ ; 1.11‰ and 0.55‰ for 'fillers', 'self-correction', 'clarification request' and 'asking for confirmation' respectively, as explained in Table 24.

Table 25: Independent T-Test of the Post-Test in CSs Use in Oral Interview Task (Third Year)

Post – test		Oral interview			
Communication strategies		Control group		Experimental Group	
		Frequency	Percent (%)	Frequency	Percent (%)
1	Circumlocution	0	0	1	0.22
2	Appeal for help	0	0	4	0.91
3	Fillers	179	92.26	409	93.80
4	Self – correction	8	4.12	14	3.21
5	Comprehension checks	3	1.54	4	0.91
6	Clarification request	3	1.54	3	0.68
7	Asking for confirmation	1	0.51	1	0.22

In the post-test, five CSs were performed by the CG but the EG used all the seven taught CSs. The CG did not used 'circumlocution' and 'appeal for help' but 0.22‰ and 0.91‰ were the percentages used respectively by the EG. 179 fillers (92.26‰) were used by the CG but 409 were used by the EG with a percentage of 93.80. 4.12 was the percentage of 'self-correction' used by CG (8 times) and the EG used it 14 times (3.21‰). Three times of 'comprehension checks' use (1.54‰) were performed

by the CG and 0.91‰ was the percentage of this communication strategy that was utilized by the EG, i.e., they used it 4 times. And one time use of 'asking for confirmation' was performed by both groups with different percentages: 0.51‰ and 0.22‰ for the CG and EG respectively, as illustrated in Table 25.

2.5.3.3.9.6. Examples of Students' Use of CSs in the Post-Test in the 'Oral Interview' Task

First Year Student (Female) in the Post-test (Interview Task)

Interviewer (I): Good morning (First name).

Respondent (R): Good morning madam.

I: They said that studying is better than working because you will get some qualifications for a better job, what do you think?

R: **Well** madam. I will think about it if someone asks me to choose between studying and work, I would **actually er I mean** I won't eliminate either because both of the two I mean studying and work are so important in this life **em it's kind of em I mean em** they they complete each other **er er** in other words **er er** (cough) the studying is the the grain that gives birth to **er** to work which is **er** the fruit of that grain **er**. So **er** well **er** what we say is that both studying and work they are **er** they are interrelate to each other. So we can't separate them they are unseparable.

I: Good er (First name) also on the other hand, they said that working is better than studying because you will get some money. What do you think?

R: **Em** I totally disagree with that (..) perception **er** this idea because **er em** (cough) I think that if you if you study hard if you if you **er** if you get your diploma if you **er** if you have a high degree you would you would or you will **I mean** you will **er** get a better job and get a better positions **er** in this life.

I : Very good em if it comes to you (First name), are going to choose between your best job if you have an offer between the best job that you dream of and to continue your studies. What are you going to choose?

R : **Er actually em you know** if **er** if it is if it is related to my study I will I will choose it because **er** it will be easier i twill be easier for me to work because **er** it's in my domain.

I: Em very good. (First name) as a university student, do you need or do you think that you should be paid?

R : Of course madam because it's a kind of motivation er if **er** if I'll pass if if I will be paid **er er** I I think that I think that will be motivated for me because **er** I don't know (laughter).

I: (Laughter) They said also (First name) that to get a better job er you should learn foreign languages. What do you think?

R: Yes madam it depends on the job that you you er gonna choose er if it's em for example em translation if you wanna be a translator you er you really need to master many languages so that you er your your job will be easier.

I: Very good. They said also that housewives should be paid. What do you think?

R: I don't find that it's not a good idea because **er er** there are many woman there are many women that that suffer from this **er** kind of **er** poverty etc so they really need that **er** salary that **er** amount of money.

I: Thank you very much (First name).

Third Year Student (Male) in the Post-test (Interview Task)

I: Good afternoon (First name).

R: Good afternoon.

I: They said that women are bad drivers. What do you think?

R: **Er em actually** I think that they are **er** not that bad if they can get the proper **er what do you call it**? The thing that **er** people go er to attend to learn something (…) sessions I think **er** (cough) and if they can get that much sessions they can be **er** as good as drivers as men **do you get it** ?

I: Yes er I do. Er they said also (First name) that er 16 is a good age to drive. What do you think?

R: I don't think it is **er** because **er** some people are still teenagers at 16 er so they are **er** (cough) they can commit more **er** accidents **er** are **are you following me, am I making sense**?

I: Yes. I am with you.

R: Yes. (cough) They can (..) make **er** accidents than **er** adult people that's **what I'm trying to say** (…).

I: Em good. By the way do you drive (First name)?

R: Yes.

I: Do you find driving dangerous?

R: **Er** sometimes I find it (cough) dangerous especially in **er** when I go **er** another city in the turns **what do you call it**? **What do you call those turns (…) roads that turn**? **Er** (virage in French) (laughter).

I: (Laughter) Ok.

R: I didn't find the word.

I: Good er (First name). They said that before we get normally the driving licence, we should know some mechanics (..). Do you agree?

R: Yes, I do because **er** the car can **er how to say it**? can **er** when the car **er** stops or break down in the **er** side of the road we can **er** go back and fix it **if you understand me** //if not I can explain in some other words//

I: //Yes, I do// No it's clear. Em (First name) er how do you think about er speed limit in Algeria? Should speed be limited in Algeria and for which purposes?

R : **Er** I think it should because **er** (cough) when people drive **er** faster **em** they can **er** hit other peolpe [CRASH] I want to say and **er** if we limit the speed **er** we can er avoid more **er** less less accidents //**do you get me** ?//

I: //Thank you very much//. Yes, I do.

2.5.3.3.9.7. CSs Use in Conversation Task with First Year Learners

Table 26: Independent T-Test of the Pre-Test in CSs Use in Conversation Task (First Year)

Pre – test		Conversation			
Communication strategies		Control group		Experimental Group	
		Frequency	Percent (%)	Frequency	Percent (%)
1	Circumlocution	0	0	0	0
2	Appeal for help	0	0	0	0
3	Fillers	83	91.20	56	75.67
4	Self – correction	6	6.59	16	21.62
5	Comprehension checks	0	0	0	0
6	Clarification request	2	2.19	2	2.70
7	Asking for confirmation	0	0	0	0

In the 'Conversation' task, both CG and EG used three different communication strategies with different uses. For 'fillers', the CG outperformed the EG: 83 uses (91.20 ‰) and 56 uses (75.67‰) respectively. Whereas the EG outperformed the CG in the use of 'self-correction': 16 uses (21.62‰) and 6 uses (6.59‰) respectively. But 'clarification request' was used twice by both groups with the subsequent percentages 2.19 and 2.70 the the CG and EG respectively, as shown in Table 26.

Table 27: Independent T-Test of the Post-Test in CSs Use in Conversation Task (First Year)

Post – test	Conversation			
Communication strategies	Control group		Experimental Group	
	Frequency	Percent (%)	Frequency	Percent (%)

1	Circumlocution	0	0	2	1.88
2	Appeal for help	0	0	3	1.41
3	Fillers	85	94.44	166	78.30
4	Self – correction	4	4.44	22	10.37
5	Comprehension checks	0	0	7	3.30
6	Clarification request	1	1.11	10	4.71
7	Asking for confirmation	0	0	2	0.94

First year learners in the post-test, and particularly the EG, showed a significant change in their use of CSs. They utilized 'circumlocution', 'appeal for help', 'comprehension checks' and 'asking for confirmation' that were not utilized in the pre-test. In addition, the EG outperformed the CG in the use of 'fillers', 'self-correction', and 'clarification request', as explained in Table 27.

2.5.3.3.9.8. CSs Use in Conversation Task with Third Year Learners

Table 28: Independent T-Test of the Pre-Test in CSs Use in Conversation Task (Third Year)

Pre – test		Conversation			
Communication strategies		Control group		Experimental Group	
		Frequency	Percent (%)	Frequency	Percent (%)
1	Circumlocution	0	0	1	1.02
2	Appeal for help	2	2.40	0	0
3	Fillers	84	85.71	34	34.69
4	Self – correction	7	7.14	2	2.40
5	Comprehension checks	2	2.40	0	0
6	Clarification request	3	3.06	3	3.06
7	Asking for confirmation	0	0	1	1.02

As highlighted in Table 28, the main CSs used by third year LLs in the pre-test were 'appeal for help', 'fillers', 'self-correction', 'comprehension checks' and 'clarification request'. The mentioned strategies were perfomed with different percentages : 2.40, 85.71, 7.14, 2.40, 3.06 respectively. In the post-test, the main strategy used was 'fillers'.

Table 29: Independent T-Test of the Post-Test in CSs Use in Conversation Task (Third Year)

Post – test	Conversation	
Communication strategies	Control group	Experimental Group

		Frequency	Percent (%)	Frequency	Percent (%)
1	Circumlocution	0	0	1	0.78
2	Appeal for help	3	3.22	4	3.12
3	Fillers	82	88.17	100	100
4	Self - correction	5	5.37	13	10.15
5	Comprehension checks	3	3.22	1	0.78
6	Clarification request	0	0	7	5.46
7	Asking for confirmation	0	0	2	1.56

Table 29 explains the CSs used by third year LLs in the post-test. The common utilized strategies between the CG and the EG were: 'appeal for help', 'fillers', 'self – correction' and 'comprehension checks'. However, the EG outperformed the CG in most of them (at the level of frequency). Besides, the EG used other CSs that the CG did not, namely: 'circumlocution', 'clarification request' and 'asking for confirmation'.

2.5.3.3.9.9. Examples of Students' Use of CSs in the Post-Test in the 'Conversation Task'

First Year Students

S1: Hi (S2). How are you?

S2: I'm fine. How are guys?

S1: Fine. Thank you. **Er** may I ask you a question?

S2: Yes, of course. You may.

S1: **Em em** what is your goal in life?

S2: My goal in life is successful to be successful.

S1: That's what everybody wants in life.

S2: **What do you mean**?

S1: **Well er** I want to said **er** to say we all have things in common **er** (…)

S3: **Pardon**?

S1: We all have things in common. It doesn't matter what is the colour of your skin, your gender, your place in the society, we all want one thing, to be successful in life.

S2: Oh **er** I understand you.

S1: But **er** but **er** but there is a thing that makes us different from each other that is effort efforts. **Do you get me**?

S2: Yes yes. I mean we all heard stories like **er** Thomas Adisson who who defeated their problems to reach their goals. **In fact to be honest** I I **er** met **er** millions of peoples who know their stories their their problems and how **er** they defeat all that to **er** reach their goals. **Er** what I mean is **er** in other words everybody **er** do one thing in life which is complaining.

Third Year Students

S1: Hi (First name). Where have you been?

S2: Hello (First name). I will I was taking **er** a class.

S1: A class? A class of what?

S2: German class. I mean Deutch.

S1: **Ah em** that **er** sounds cool. **Er** how do we say good morning in Deutch?

S2: Guten tag.

S1: It sounds cool. **In fact er actually you know** I really would like to **er** learn foreign languages.

S2: **Er** it's very interesting **er** you **er** I mean **er** when you **er** learn a language you feel **er** that you open yourself for a new discover, **are you with me**?

S1: Yes. I totally agree with you **er** but **er** I want to learn **er** Italian language **er** no no I mean Spanish. But I don't know where **er** can I find **er** those **er** classes to take these courses?

S2: **Well er** it's very easy. You can check the internet or you can you can come with me.

S1: Really? **Er** I will come to **er** with in **I mean** the school, yes I will come.

S2: Yes of course, you're welcome.

2.5.3.3.10. Paired Samples T-Test of the Performance of the Experimental Group on the Pre-Test and the Post-Test (General Impact of the Treatment on Learners' Use of CSs (Both Levels))

Table 30: Paired Samples T-Test of the Performance of the Experimental Group on the Pre-Test and the Post-Test in the Use of CSs (Both Levels)

Groups	N	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	T	df	Sig.
Control group	**15**	**35.80**	**11.21**	**3.19**	**28**	**0.003**
Experimental Group	**15**					

Table 30 displays the difference between the experimental and control group in the post-test measurement through the calculated t value (3.19) and its degree of freedom

(28). We note that the calculated level of significance (p value) (Sig) (0.003) is less from the level of Significance specified in the study and estimated at (α = 0.05). Therefore, we reject the null hypotheses and accept the alternative hypotheses, where the difference was in favour of the experimental group with an arithmetic mean of (64.67). That is, the method used in teaching had an effect on their development/ use of CSs.

2.5.3.3.10.1. CSs Used in Topic Description Task by First Year Learners

Table 31: Paired Samples T-Test of CSs Use in Topic Description Task (First Year Learners)

Pre & Post – test (EG)		Description			
Communication strategies		Pre test -EG		Post test - EG	
		Frequency	Percent (%)	Frequency	Percent (%)
1	Circumlocution	0	0	3	0.89
2	Appeal for help	0	0	1	0.29
3	Fillers	139	85.27	281	83.88
4	Self - correction	24	14.72	50	14.92
5	Comprehension checks	0	0	0	0
6	Clarification request	0	0	0	0
7	Asking for confirmation	0	0	0	0

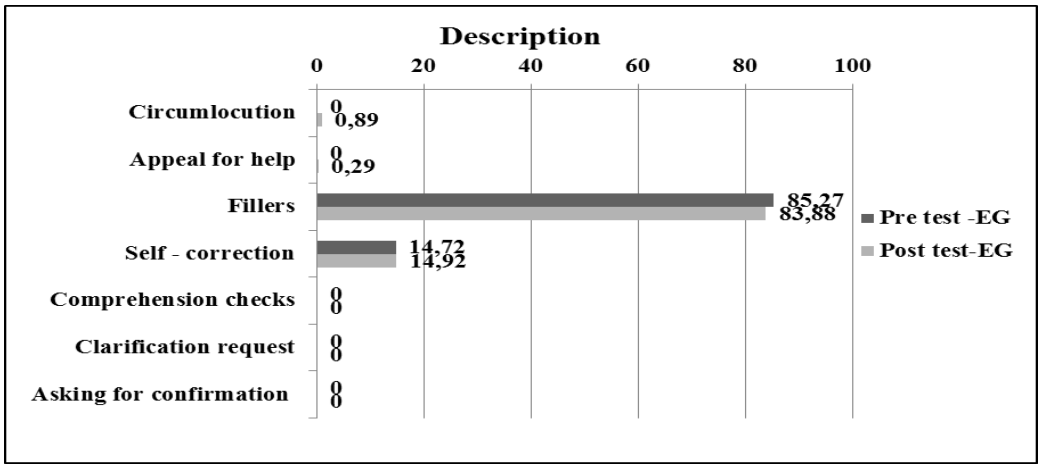


Fig.1: Paired Samples T-Test of CSs Use in Topic Description Task (First Year Learners)

As shown in Table 31 and Fig. 1, the common CSs used by first year LLs in both tests were 'fillers' and 'self – correction'. However, the EG members showed an

increase in the use of the previously mentioned strategies after the intervention. 'Circumlocution' and 'appeal for help' were only used in the post-test.

2.5.3.3.10.2. CSs Used in Topic Description Task by Third Year Learners

Table 32: Paired Samples T-Test of CSs Use in Topic Description Task (Third Year Learners)

Pre & Post – test (EG)		Description			
Communication strategies		Pre test -EG		Post test – EG	
		Frequency	Percent (%)	Frequency	Percent (%)
1	Circumlocution	0	0	0	0
2	Appeal for help	0	0	0	0
3	Fillers	113	96.58	274	94.15
4	Self - correction	4	3.41	14	4.81
5	Comprehension checks	0	0	3	1.03
6	Clarification request	0	0	0	0
7	Asking for confirmation	0	0	0	0

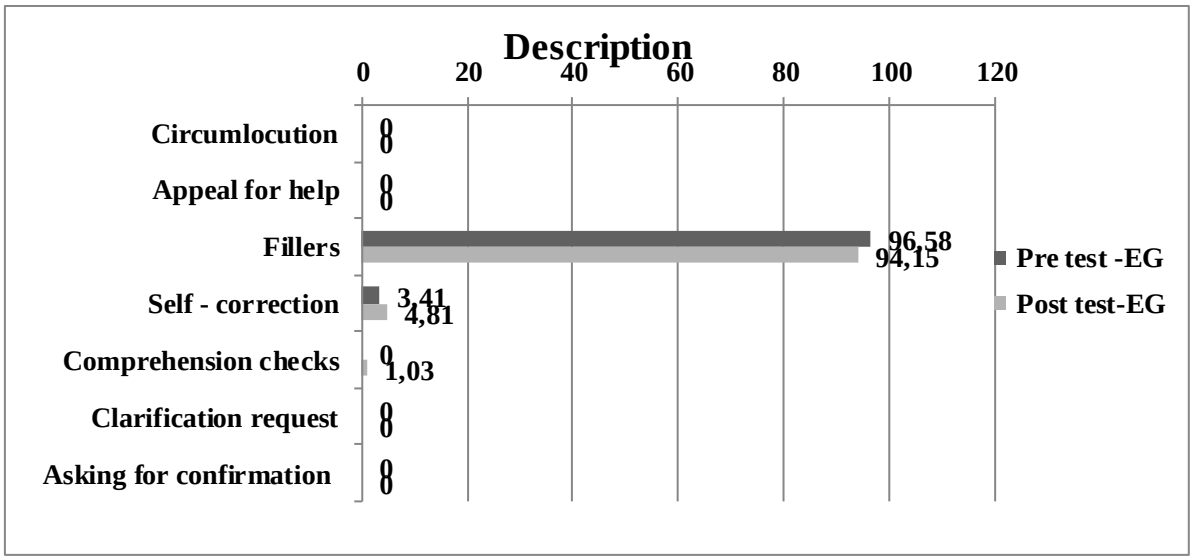


Fig. 2: Paired Samples T-Test of CSs Use in Topic Description Task (Third Year Learners)

As pinpointed in Table 32 and Fig. 2, the EG increased its use of 'fillers' and 'self – correction' in the post-test. 'Comprehension checks' was used only after the treatment.

2.5.3.3.10.3. CSs Used in Oral Interview Task by First Year Learners

Table 33: Paired Samples T-Test of CSs Use in Oral Interview Task (First Year Learners)

Pre & Post – test (EG)		Oral interview			
Communication strategies		Pre test -EG		Post test - EG	
		Frequency	Percent (%)	Frequency	Percent (%)
1	Circumlocution	0	0	0	0
2	Appeal for help	0	0	0	0
3	Fillers	170	94.97	154	82.79
4	Self - correction	6	3.35	32	17.20
5	Comprehension checks	0	0	0	0
6	Clarification request	2	1.11	0	0
7	Asking for confirmation	1	0.55	0	0

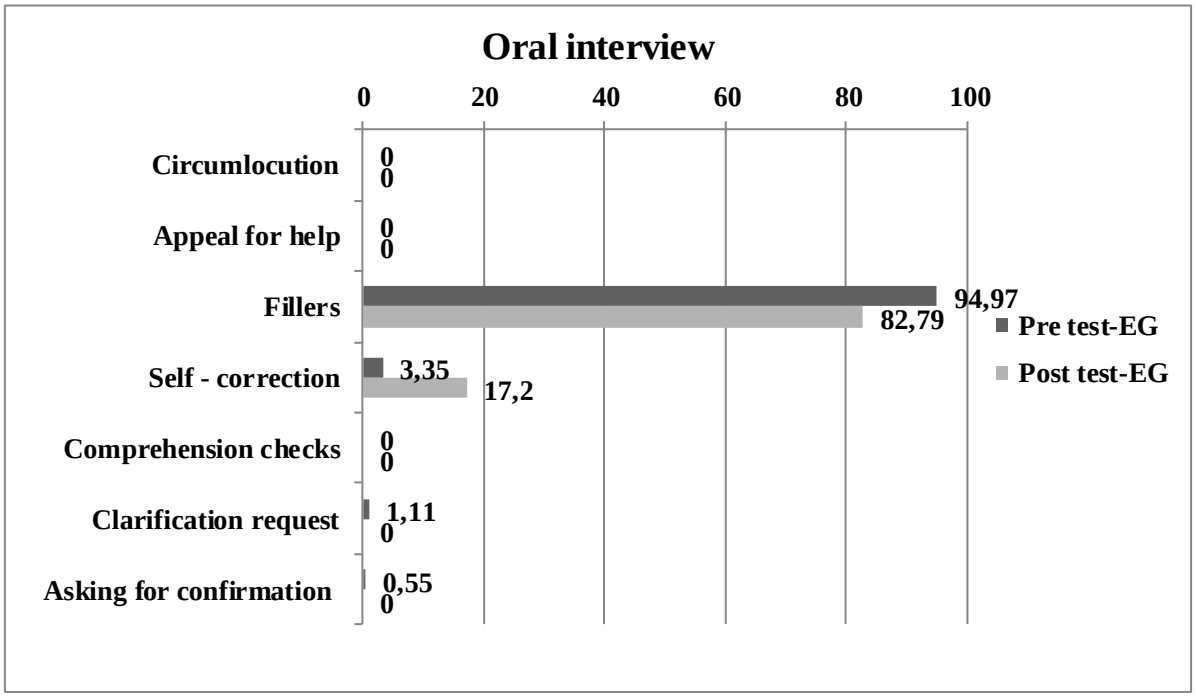


Fig. 3: Paired Samples T-Test of CSs Use in Oral Interview Task (First Year Learners)

The main strategies used in both tests were 'fillers' and 'self – correction'. However, their use increased in the post-test: 94.97 per cent and 17.20 per cent respectively. 'Clarification request' and 'asking for confirmation' were utilized in the pre-test but with restricted frequencies: twice for the former and once for the latter, as shown in Table 33 and Fig. 3.

2.5.3.3.10.4. CSs Used in Oral Interview Task by Third Year Learners

Table 34: Paired Samples T-Test of CSs Use in Oral Interview Task (Third Year Learners)

Pre & Post – test (EG)	Oral interview

Communication strategies		Pre test -EG		Post test - EG	
		Frequency	Percent (%)	Frequency	Percent (%)
1	Circumlocution	0	0	1	0.22
2	Appeal for help	0	0	4	0.91
3	Fillers	170	94.97	409	93.80
4	Self - correction	6	31.57	14	3.21
5	Comprehension checks	0	0	4	0.91
6	Clarification request	2	1.11	3	0.68
7	Asking for confirmation	1	0.55	1	0.22

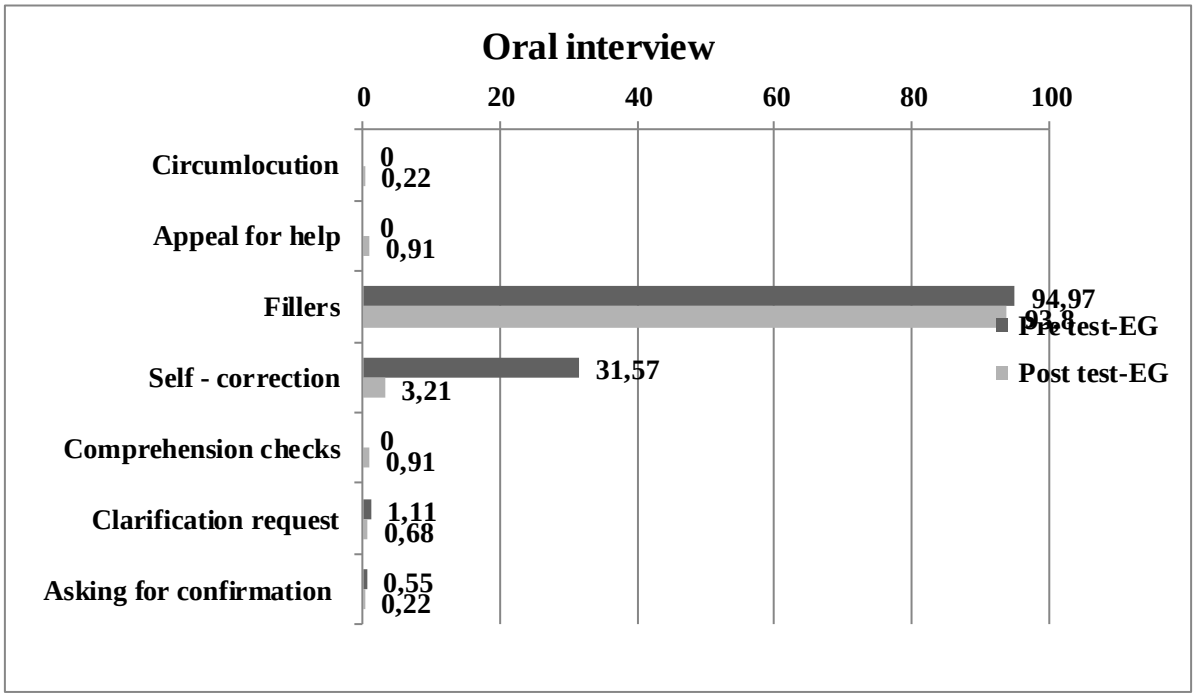


Fig. 4: Paired Samples T-Test of CSs Use in Oral Interview Task (Third Year Learners)

Table 34 and Fig. 4 detailed the CSs used in both tests of the EG. The use of CSs increased in the post-test both in its quantity as well as its quality. The common strategies used in both tests were: 'fillers', 'self-correction', 'clarification request' and 'asking for confirmation'. 'Circumlocution', 'appeal for help' and 'comprehension checks' with different percentages: 0.22, 0.91 and 0.91 respectively. In other terms, the EG members used all the seven taught strategies in the post-test.

2.5.3.3.10.5. CSs Used in Conversation Task by First Year Learners

Table 35: Paired Samples T-Test of CSs Use in Conversation Task (First Year Learners)

Pre & Post – test (EG)		Conversation			
Communication strategies		Pre test -EG		Post test - EG	
		Frequency	Percent (%)	Frequency	Percent (%)
1	Circumlocution	0	0	2	1.88
2	Appeal for help	0	0	3	1.41
3	Fillers	56	75.67	166	78.30
4	Self - correction	16	21.62	22	10.37
5	Comprehension checks	0	0	7	3.30
6	Clarification request	2	2.70	10	4.71
7	Asking for confirmation	0	0	2	0.94

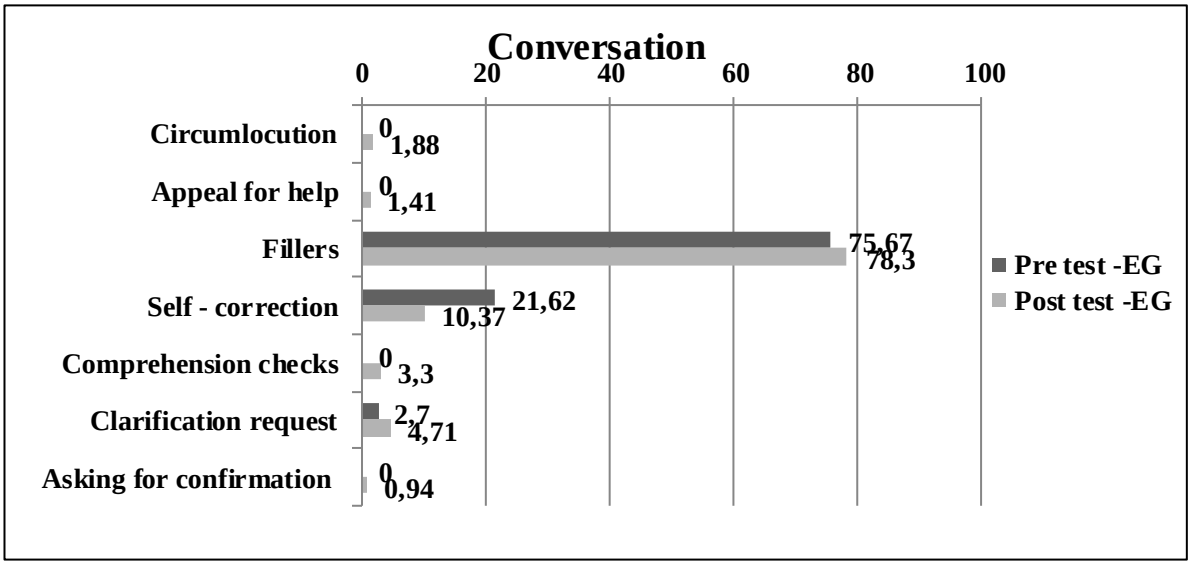


Fig. 5: Paired Samples T-Test of CSs Use in Conversation Task (First Year Learners)

In the conversation task, all CSs that were taught in the intervention were used by the EG in the post-test. The most used strategies were 'fillers', 'self-correction', 'clarification request' and then 'comprehension checks'. In the pre-test, the EG utilized only three strategies: 'fillers', 'self-correction' and 'clarification request' with contrasting frequencies, as clarified in Table 35 and Fig. 5.

2.5.3.3.10.6. CSs Used in Conversation Task by Third Year Learners

Table 36: Paired Samples T-Test of CSs Use in Conversation Task (Third Year Learners)

Pre & Post – test (EG)	Conversation			
Communication strategies	Pre test -EG		Post test - EG	
	Frequency	Percent (%)	Frequency	Percent (%)

1	Circumlocution	1	1.02	1	0.78
2	Appeal for help	0	0	4	3.12
3	Fillers	34	34.69	100	100
4	Self - correction	2	2.40	13	10.15
5	Comprehension checks	0	0	1	0.78
6	Clarification request	3	3.06	7	5.46
7	Asking for confirmation	1	1.02	2	1.56

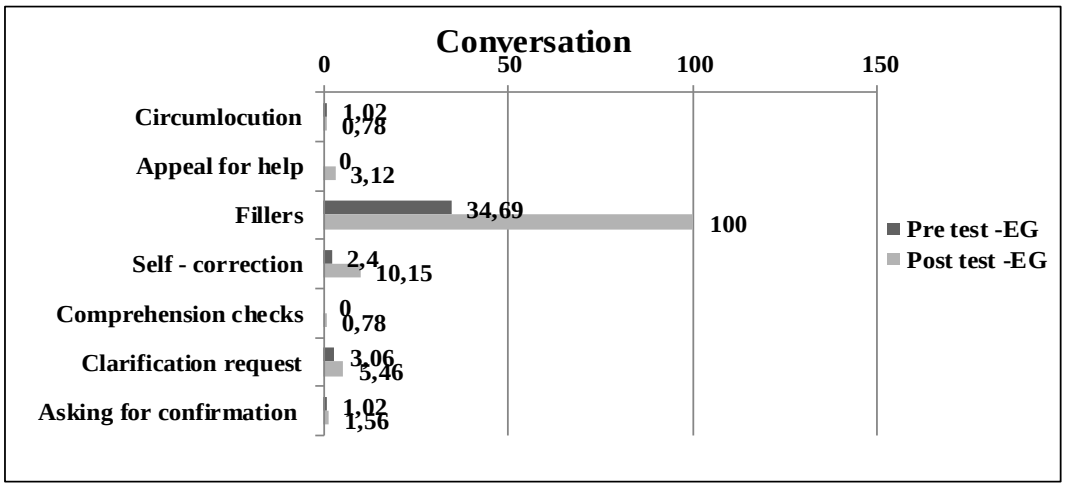


Fig. 6: Paired Samples T-Test of CSs Use in Conversation Task (Third Year Learners)

Third year LLs made reference to all CSs taught in their performances in the post-test. The main strategy utilized was 'fillers' (100 per cent) and the least used CSs were 'circumlocution' and 'comprehension checks' with the same frequency: once for each (0.78 per cent). In the pre-test, they resorted to all CSs but 'appeal for help' and 'comprehension checks'. However, the use of CSs increased after the treatment in all the shared strategies but in 'circumlocution' which appreared once in each test, as highlighted in Table 36 and Fig. 6.

2.5.3.3.10.7. Effect Size (Eta) for Independent – Samples T-Test

Table 37: Effect Size (Eta) for Independent – Samples T-Test for First Year Learners

	Effect Size
Eta for Independent – Samples T-Test	0.85

Interpretation

Relative size	Effect size
Small effect	**0.01**
Medium effect	**0.06**
Large effect	**0.14**

Table 37 explains the size of the effect (Eta) of first year students. Through the results obtained, we conclude that the size of the effect is large (Large effect) with its value (0.85).

Table 38: Effect Size (Eta) for Independent – Samples T-Test for Third Year Learners

	Effect Size
Eta for Independent – Samples T-Test	**0.93**

Interpretation

Relative size	Effect size
Small effect	**0.01**
Medium effect	**0.06**
Large effect	**0.14**

Table 38 presents the size of the effect (Eta) of third year participants. And through the results gained, we conclude that the size of the effect is large, with its value reaching (0.93).

2.5.3.4. Results of Retrospective Protocols

Table 39: CSs Used in Topic Description Task by First Year Learners in Pre- and Post-Tests (Retrospective Protocol)

Strategies used				Topic Description					Strategies used			
ASs		CSs		Pre-test		Experimental	Post-test		ASs		CSs	
F	%	F	%	F	%		F	%	F	%	F	%
13	86.7	2	13.3	11	33.3	Lack of vocab	10	37	0	0	15	100
				6	18.2	Lack of ideas	9	33.3				
				6	18.2	Grammar	1	3.7				
				10	30.3	Stress	7	26				
				33	100	Total	27	100				

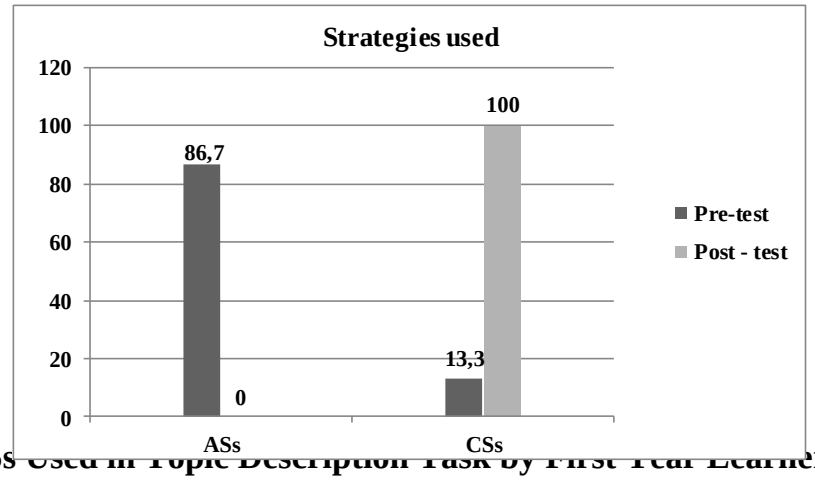


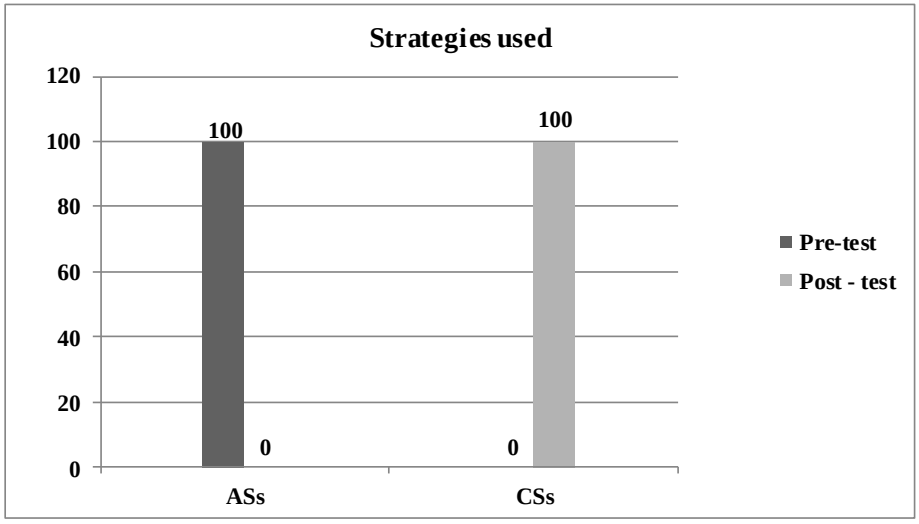
Fig. 7: CSs Used in Topic Description Task by First Year Learners in Pre- and Post-Tests (Retrospective Protocol)

Table 39 and Fig. 7 highlight the main linguistic/ communicative problems met by the EG members in both tests. In the pre-test, they claimed that their main problem was in finding 'vocabulary' (33.3 per cent) and then 'stress' was the second problematic aspect that hinders LLs' learning (30.3 per cent). In addition, they stated that they resort too much to avoidance strategies (ASs) (86.7 per cent). In the posttest phase, the main challenges to LLs' performance were 'lack of vocabulary' and ' lack of ideas' (37 per cent and 33.3 per cent respectively). However, all members (15) claimed that they excercised CSs to overcome their hiccups.

Table 40: CSs Used in Topic Description by Third Year Learners at Pre- and Post-Tests (Retrospective Protocol)

Strategies used				Topic Description					Strategies used			
ASs		CSs		Pre-test		Experimental	Post-test		ASs		CSs	
F	%	F	%	F	%		F	%	F	%	F	%
15	100	0	0	8	33.3	Lack of vocab	7	30.4	0	0	15	100
				11	45.8	Lack of ideas	12	52.2				
				3	12.5	Grammar	0	0				
				1	4.2	Pronunciation	0	0				
				1	4.2	Stress	4	17.4				
				1	4.2	No problem	1	4.4				
				24	100	Total	23	100				

Fig. 8: CSs Used in Topic Description by Third Year Learners at Pre- and Post-Tests



(Retrospective Protocol)

'Lack of ideas', 'lack of vocabulary' and 'grammar' were the main stressful issues faced by third year LLs in the pre-test with dissimilar percentages: 45.8, 33.3 and 12.5 respectively. All members used ASs whenever they are put in a problematic situation. In the post-test, the central difficulty for LLs was finding ideas (52.2 per cent), and finding vocabulary (30.4 per cent). Moreover, 'stress' was really a crucial matter (17.4 per cent) to LLs in the post-test. This time, all members utilized CSs to circumvent any trouble, as presented in Table 40 and Fig. 8.

Table 41: CSs Used in Oral Interview Task by First Year Learners in Pre- and Post-Tests (Retrospective Protocol)

Strategies used				Oral Interview					Strategies used			
ASs		CSs		Pre-test		Experimental	Post-test		ASs		CSs	
F	%	F	%	F	%		F	%	F	%	F	%
12	80	3	20	14	52	Lack of vocab	14	52	0	0	15	100
				5	18.5	Lack of ideas	6	22.2				
				2	7.4	Grammar	0	0				
				6	22.2	Anxiety/ Stress	7	25.9				
				27	100	Total	27	100				

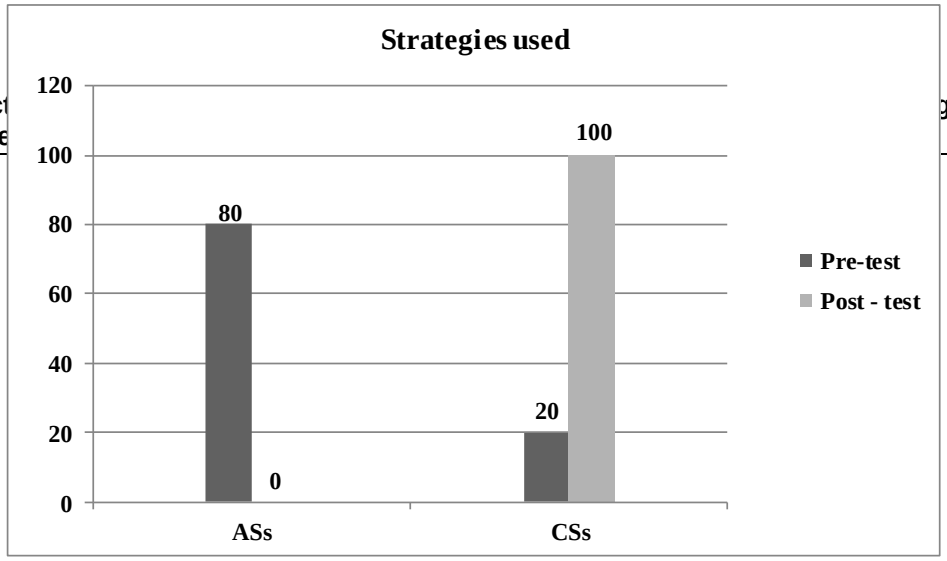


Fig. 9: ... CSs Used ... in Oral

Interview Task by First Year Learners in Pre- and Post-Tests (Retrospective Protocol)

In the OI task, First year EG members claimed that they suffer from different difficulties when they come to communicate. 'Lack of vocabulary' (52 per cent) was their primary concern and 'anxiety/ stress' was their second complication (22.2 per cent). In addition, 'lack of ideas' (18.5 per cent) was also a challenge that LLs suffered from. The named difficulties were shared in the posttest phase but 'lack of ideas' and 'anxiety' took rather elevated percentages: 22.2 and 25.9 respectively. And if 'grammar' was an issue in the pretest (7.4 per cent), it was not a problem raised after the training. In the latter, LLs used only CSs and in the pretest phase they used three CSs (basically 'fillers') but the majority of strategies employed were ASs (80 per cent), as reported in Table 41 and Fig. 9.

Table 42 : CSs Used in Oral Interview Task by Third Year Learners in Pre- and Post-Tests (Retrospective Protocol)

Strategies used				Oral Interview					Strategies used			
ASs		CSs		Pre-test		Experimental	Post-test		ASs		CSs	
F	%	F	%	F	%		F	%	F	%	F	%
14	93.3	1	6.7	7	24.1	Lack of vocab	11	42.3	0	0	15	100
				14	48.3	Lack of ideas	10	38.6				
				1	3.5	Grammar	2	7.6				
				1	3.5	Pronunciation	2	7.6				
				6	20.6	Stress	1	3.9				
				1	3.5	No problem	1	3.9				
				29	100	Total	26	100				

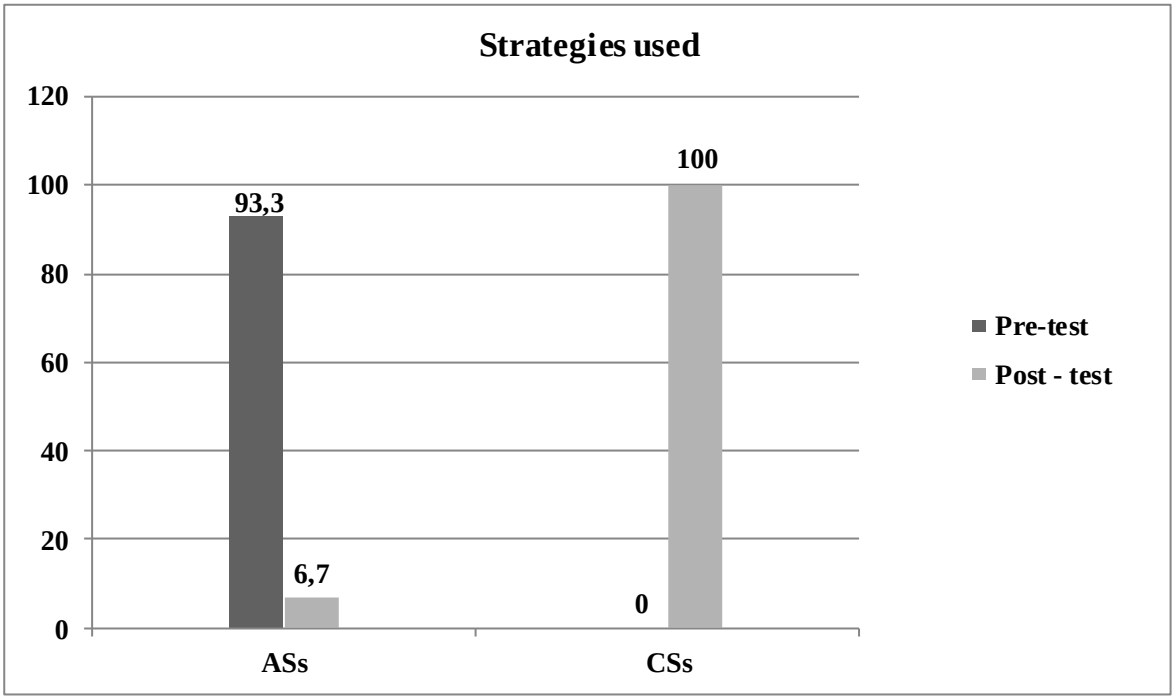


Fig. 10: CSs Used in Oral Interview Task by Third Year Learners in Pre- and Post-Tests (Retrospective Protocol)

In the SI of OI task, third year students, in the pretest phase, argued that their main hiccup was 'lack of ideas' (48.3 per cent). 'Lack of vocabulary' came in the second position (24.1 per cent) and 'stress' was in the third (20.6 per cent). 'Grammar' and 'pronunciation' took the least similar percentages (3.5 per cent). Further, only one student utilized CSs and 93.3 per cent of LLs used ASs. In the post-test, the elevated percentage was 42.3, and it was attributed to the 'lack of vocabulary'. 'Lack of ideas' (38.6 per cent) was the second problem that LLs faced. However, LLs stated that they used CSs to overcome all types types of linguistic and communicative difficulties, as illustrated in Table 42 and Fig. 10.

Table 43: CSs Used in Conversation Task by First Year Learners in Pre- and Post-Tests (Retrospective Protocol)

Strategies used				Conversation Task					Strategies used			
ASs		CSs		Pre-test		Experimental	Post-test		ASs		CSs	
F	%	F	%	F	%		F	%	F	%	F	%
3	60	2	40	5	45.5	Lack of vocab	4	33.3	0	0	5	100
				1	9	Lack of ideas	3	25				
				1	9	Grammar	1	8.33				
				4	36.5	Stress	4	33.3				
				11	100	Total	12	100				

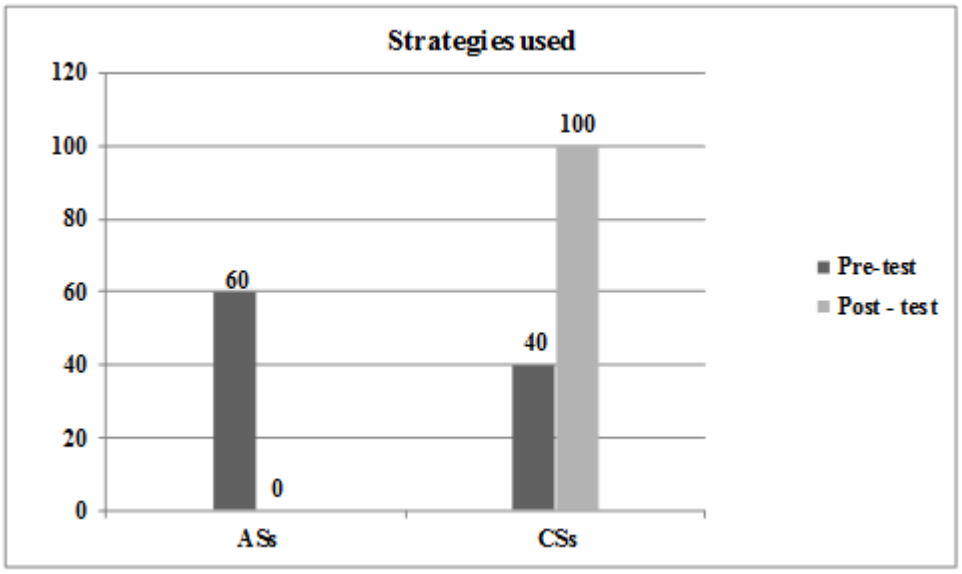


Fig. 11: CSs Used in Conversation Task by First Year Learners in Pre- and Post-Tests (Retrospective Protocol)

First year students, in the third task (CT), used many ASs (60 per cent) in the pre-test but all members utilized CSs (100 per cent) after the treatment. In both tests, 'lack of vocabulary' was the main difficulty that LLs encountered. 'Stress' was the second elevated problem they faced in the pre-test and post-test: 36.5 per cent and 33.3 per cent respectively, as listed in Table 43 and Fig. 11.

Table 44: CSs Used in Conversation Task by Third Year Learners in Pre- and Post-Tests (Retrospective Protocol)

Strategies used				Conversation Task					Strategies used			
Ass		CSs		Pre-test		Experimental	Post-test		ASs		CSs	
F	%	F	%	F	%		F	%	F	%	F	%
6	100	0	0	4	33.3	Lack of vocab	4	30.8	0	0	5	100
				5	41.7	Lack of ideas	6	46.2				
				1	8.3	Grammar	1	7.7				
				2	16.7	Pronunciation	0	0				
				1	8.3	Stress	2	15.3				
				12	100	Total	13	100				

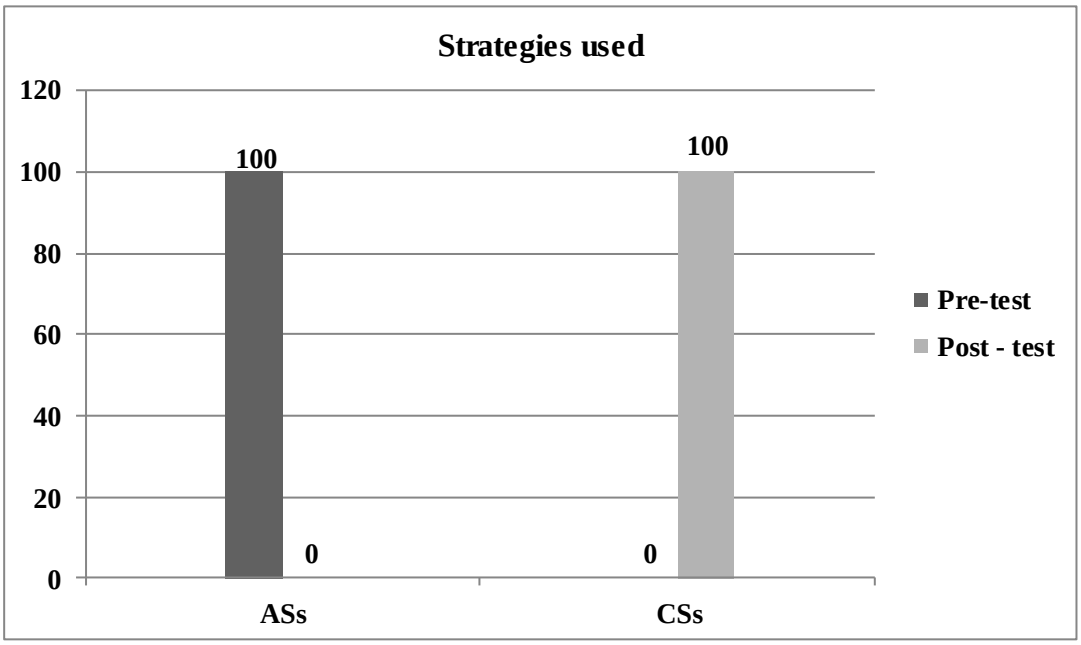


Fig. 12: CSs Used in Conversation Task by Third Year Learners in Pre- and Post-Tests (Retrospective Protocol)

In the stimulated recall, third year LLs faced two main problems with elevated percentages: 'lack of vocabulary' and 'lack of ideas', in both tests. 'Pronunciation' (16.7 per cent) was another problematic issue LLs faced in the pre-test but it was not a difficulty after the intervention. 'Stress' was also another hiccup encountered in both tests but with different percentages : 8.3 in the pre-test and 15.3 in the post-test. About strategies, all groups of the conversation task used ASs but they utilized only CSs, in the post-test, as detailed in Table 44 and Fig. 12.

2.5.3.5. Results of the Attitudinal Questionnaire

2.5.3.5.1. Internal Validity

The questionnaire scores were used to calculate the internal validity of the study tool and each question and the extent to which these component paragraphs are related to each other. And to ensure that there is no overlap, correlation coefficient (Spearman Correlation) was used to verify by finding the relation between the dimension and total scores of paragraphs.

Table 45: Internal Validity of the Attitudinal Questionnaire

internal validity between Tool & Items	correlation	significance
Question 1	0.273	0.55
Question 2	0.662	0.01**
Question 3	1	0.01**
Question 4	0.596	0.05*
Question 5	0.910	0.01**
Question 6	0.743	0.01**
internal validity of the Tool	**0.703**	**0.01****

* *Significant at the p =0.01 level

* Significant at the p =0.05 level

It is clear from Table 45 that the correlation coefficient for the study tool as a whole is statistically significant at the level of significance (0.01). The value of the validity coefficient for the tool is (0.70), and therefore the validity coefficient is high and the tool is valid.

2.5.3.5.2. Reliability

The study found the stability factor and this using the split - half factor, and the following result was obtained:

Table 46: Reliability of the Attitudinal Questionnaire

Reliability Statistics		
Spearman-Brown Coefficient	Equal Length	0.830
	Unequal Length	0.830
Guttman Split-Half Coefficient		**0.786**

It is evident from Table 46 that the reliability coefficient was high, with a value of (0.78), which is a high coefficient suitable for the purposes of the study.

2.5.3.5.3. Attitudes of First Year Learners

Table 47: Attitudes of First Year Learners in the Attitudinal Questionnaire

		Frequency	Percent
Q1	**Position Feeling**	**15**	**100**
	Negative Feeling	**0**	**0**
Q2	**Yes**	**15**	**100**
	No	**0**	**0**
Q3	**Solution to my Oral Problem**	**15**	**100**
	It dosen't help my oral problems	**0**	**0**
Q4	**Nothing**	**15**	**100**
	I did not like it	**0**	**0**
Q5	**Yes**	**15**	**100**
	No	**0**	**0**
Q6	**The instructional method was effective**	**15**	**100**
	I did not like the instructional method	**0**	**0**

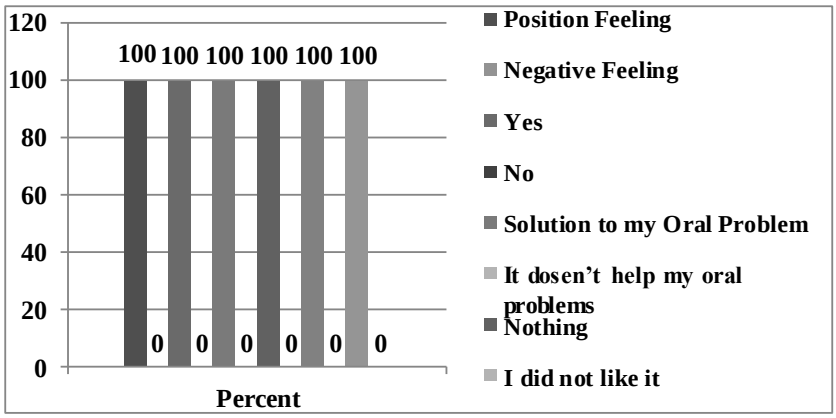


Fig. 13: Attitudes of First Year Learners in the Attitudinal Questionnaire

It is clear from Table 47 and Fig. 13 that all responses were 100% in favour of the (Position Feeling) option in question (Q1) and the (Yes) option in question (Q2) and the option (Solution to my Oral Problem) in the question (Q3) Option (Nothing) in Question (Q4) and Option (Yes) for Question (Q5) and Option (The instructional method was effective) for Question (Q6).

2.5.3.5.4. Attitudes of Third Year Learners

Table 48: Attitudes of Third Year Learners in the Attitudinal Questionnaire

		Frequency	Percent
Q1	**Position Feeling**	**15**	**100**
	Negative Feeling	**0**	**0**
Q2	**Yes**	**15**	**100**
	No	**0**	**0**
Q3	**Solution to my Oral Problem**	**15**	**100**
	It dosen't help my oral problems	**0**	**0**
Q4	**Nothing**	**15**	**100**
	I did not like it	**0**	**0**
Q5	**Yes**	**15**	**100**
	No	**0**	**0**
Q6	**The instructional method was effective**	**15**	**100**
	I did not like the instructional method	**0**	**0**

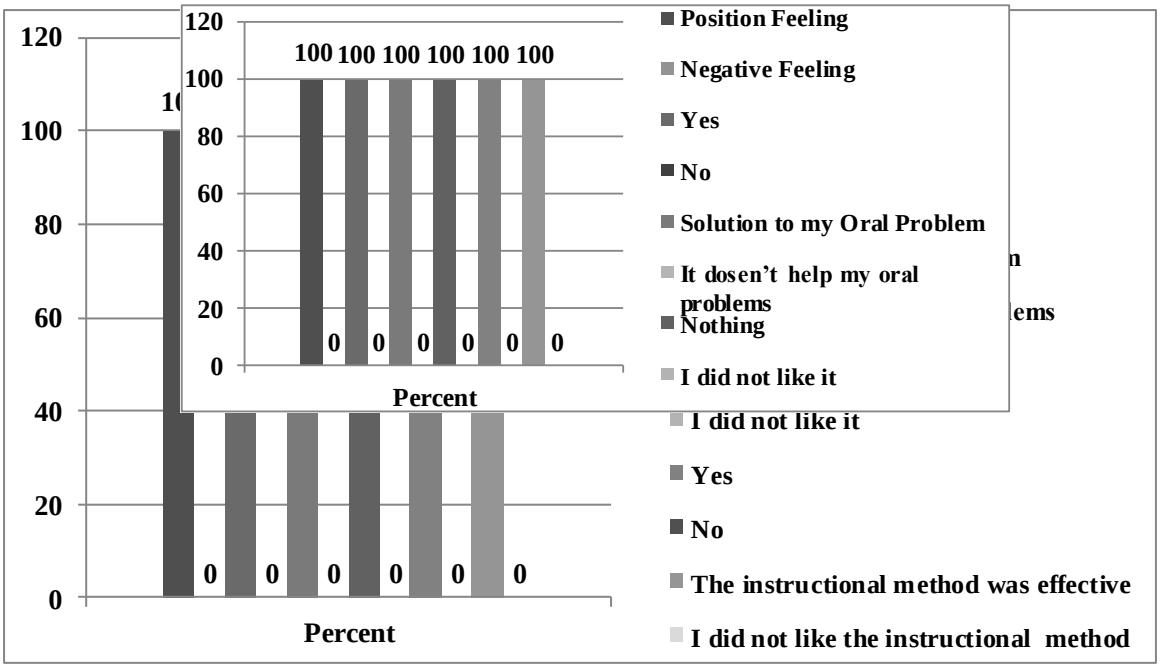
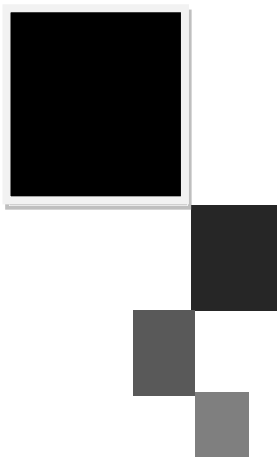


Fig. 14: Attitudes of Third Year Learners in the Attitudinal Questionnaire

It is clear from Table 48 and Fig. 14 that all responses were 100% in favour of the (Position Feeling) option in question (Q1) and the (Yes) option in question (Q2) and the option (Solution to my Oral Problem) in the question (Q3) Option (Nothing) in Question (Q4) and Option (Yes) for Question (Q5) and Option (The instructional method was effective) for Question (Q6).

Conclusion:

The fifth chapter dealt with the analysis and findings of the current investigation. The latter was conducted in three phases. Thus, the results were displayed following the chronological and systematic order that the study respected. First of all, the results and interpretations of the research tools (Needs Analysis Survey, Teachers' Interviews and Classroom Observation (COLT)) were presented. Secondly, the findings of the second phase, i.e., the Small-Scale Study (Piloting Phase), were displayed. And lastly, only the findings of the third phase, i.e., the main study, were unveiled as the interpretation of them will be the focus of the subsequent chapter (Chapter Six).



The Impact of Implementing the Direct Approach in Teaching Conversational Strategies on the Development of EFL Learners' Intercultural Communicative Competence

Case Study of First Year and Third Year Students at Sétif 2 University

Chapter Six:

Discussions and Interpretations of the Main

Chapter Six: Discussions and Interpretations of the Main Study's Findings

Introduction

This strategy-based intervention is a contribution to the relentless debates about the consequence of CSs and the question of their teachability. Particular regard is paid to both learning process and learning product. Our observations that CSs can be implemented in the EFL setting are not new, but few scholars researched the impact of CSs teaching through the direct approach on developing EFL learners' ICC. In other terms, the data obtained are broadly consistent with the predominant views of CSs instruction. Moreover, our results report for the first time the teachability of CSs at Mouhamed Lamine Debaghine (Sétif 2) University. Thus, this chapter is devoted to discuss and interpret the major outcomes of the main investigation. The chapter comes in four sections that correspond with the study's four research queries. The first section focuses on self-strategy training outcomes and particularly on the impact of strategy training on LLs' reported use and usefulness of CSs. And the second section highlights the findings drawn from the explicit strategy training programme, i.e., the relationship

between the direct approach and the development of learners' ICC. Besides, the outcomes of the retrospective reports are to be discussed in the third section. Finally, the fourth section deals with the discussion and interpretation of LLs' attitudes towards CSs training gathered from the the last research instrument (i.e., Attitudinal Questionnaire). Furthermore, the originality of the current research and the limitations of the study are to be displayed. In addition to that, pedagogical implications and future research directions are to be spelled out. And equally important, the ethics in the present study are to be highlighted.

2.6.1. Questionnaire Outcomes: The Impact of Strategy Training on LLs' Reported Use and Usefulness of CSs

Again, to examine whether CS instruction would flactuate students' reports on the use and usefulness of CSs, a self- strategy questionnaire was administered to 60 students (30 of first year and 30 of third year) before and after CSs instruction. To gauge whether there was a significant difference in students' reported use and usefulness of CSs in the pre- and post- CSs intervention, Wilcoxon Test was used (Hatch and Lazaraton, 1991). The test revealed that there were differences within the EG in favor of the post-test and the value of (Mean Rank=8) in both years. The treatment proved that CSs training was coupled with variations in learners' reports of use and usefulness of the seven taught communication strategies. In other terms, CSs instruction was joined to gains in reports of both use and usefulness of the taught strategies. Moreover, some revisions to the rankings of the reported use and usefulness in the pre-/post-tests of CSs were observed. That is, CSs training furthers the learners' reports of more use of the taught CSs. More importantly, correlations between the LLs' reported CSs use and CSs usefulness were found. Taken together, we can conclude that these findings were the influence of explicit CSs training that helped in raising LLs' awareness of the seven taught CSs.

As a matter of fact, a number of prior investigations backed the meaning of raising LLs' strategic awareness. To illustrate, Lam (2004) claimed that explicit strategy training is responsible of raising the LLs' scale of strategic awareness. And Nakatani (2005) pointed at the importance of raising LLs' awareness of managing and supervising specific strategy use as it leads to raising their strategic awareness. Hence,

it is necessary to introduce explicit meta-cognitive strategy training to raise awareness of CSs' use in order to further expand TL progress. More particularly, establishing CSs training with a focus on solving TL vocabulary problems could be useful for the future curriculum development. In fact, designing books with explicit strategy training in order to raise the consciousness of LLs to CSs is a good starting point (Nakatani et al., 2012). Researchers (Tarone & Yule, 1989; Oxford, 1990; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990) supported the idea of teaching CSs to help develop EFL students' communication skills either by raising LLs' consciousness or training them. Therefore, learning CSs is undeniably useful for EFL LLs.

And regarding LLs' reports of the use and usefulness of the seven taught CSs, it has been observed that there were surges in the reported feedback particularly after CSs training. In fact, the current examination shows that LLs' perceptions towards the strategies in question would have an impact on the use of these strategies, and the LLs' use of CSs could in turn strengthen their perceptions towards the usefulness of CSs (Kongsom, 2009). Explicit knowledge is knowledge about language and about the uses to which language can be put, as revealed by Ellis (2004). In the same vein, Zhang & Goh (2006) stated that there were significant correlations between LLs' knowledge about strategies and their perceived utilization of them, "people usually have some perceptions or thoughts before they take certain actions" (p. 214). Further, LLs' perceptions about strategies and their effectiveness are also reflected in Wenden's (1998) words when she defined 'Strategic Knowledge' as "general knowledge about what strategies are, why they are useful, and specific knowledge about when and how to use them" (p. 519).

2.6.2. Explicit Strategy Training Outcomes: The Direct/ Explicit Approach and the Development of LLs' ICC

In the first place, the research question that was highlighted in this section is "Does explicit strategy training have a direct impact on the development of learners' ICC? i.e., what are the effects of teaching CSs on learners' actual use of these strategies?". In plain words, the second focal point of this research was to explore whether the training of the seven CSs would stimulate greater use of them. According to Rubin et

al., (2006), the aim of strategy intervention or teaching language learner strategies is to investigate "the extent to which it enables students to become more effective language learners" (p. 154). First of all, major results about the frequencies of actual use of each CS in each task is to be discussed. Related to this point, transcribed data from the speaking tasks to gain insights about LLs' actual performance of the taught strategies is to be displayed. As a matter of fact, the main findings can be summarized as follows: (1) in the post-phase of the three tasks, LLs demonstrated seeming increases in most of the seven CSs; (2) overuse of particular CSs after the treatment phase; and (3) some taught CSs were either less or not used.

The main communication strategies used by first year learners (both the CG and EG) in the pre-test were 'fillers, self-correction' in Topic Description (TD) and Oral Interview (OI), and in the Conversation Task (CT), they utilized 'fillers, self-correction and clarification request'. In the post-test, the CG used 'fillers and self-correction' in the TD; 'fillers, self-correction and clarification requests' were used both in OI and CT. In this phase, the EG used all the seven taught CSs in CT, they used four strategies (circumlocution, appeal for help, fillers and self-corrections) in TD and in OI they utilized two CSs (fillers and self-repairs). Moreover, Paired Samples T-Test of the performance of the EG on the Pre-Post-Tests proved that there were statistically significant differences in the EG in the post-test. And Effect Size (Eta) for Independent-Samples T-Test showed that the study had a large effect with its value (0.85). And for third year LLs, in the pre-test, the main strategies resorted to were 'fillers' by the CG and 'fillers and self-corrections' by the EG. In OI, the CG used four CSs (fillers, self-corrections, comprehension checks, clarification requests), and the EG employed also four strategies (fillers, self-corrections, clarification requests, asking for confirmation). In the third task (i.e., CT), LLs of the CG made use of five strategies (fillers, self-corrections, appeal for help, comprehension checks, clarification requests) and those in the EG drew upon 'circumlocution, fillers, self-corrections, clarification requests and asking for confirmation'. In the post-test, the CG used only 'fillers' and the EG utilized three strategies (fillers, self-corrections, comprehension-checks) in the first task (i.e., TD). Then, 'fillers, self-corrections, clarification requests and asking for confirmation' were resorted to by the CG and the EG utilized the seven

CSs in OI. In CT, the CG fell back on four strategies (appeal for help, fillers, self-corrections, comprehension checks) and the participants in the EG used all CSs taught. Paired Samples T-Test of the performance of the experimental group on the pre- test and the post-test displayed that there are statistically significant differences in the experimental group in favor of the post-test. And the interpretation of the Effect Size (Eta) for Independent-Samples T-Test proved that the size of the effect is large (Large Effect) with its value (0.93).

All in all, after CSs training, the members of the EG outperformed those of the CG in the quantity (i.e., frequency) and quality of the strategies used. LLs exercised more types of the taught CSs in the post phase. 'Fillers and self-corrections' were mainly used in one-way task (TD) and three conversational adjustment strategies (i.e., comprehension checks, clarification requests and asking for confirmation) were used in two-way tasks (OI and CT). As a matter of fact, 'Task' has figured to as an important construct in SLA research, serving both as a device for instructional treatment in experimental studies and for measuring the outcomes of this treatment (Ellis, 2008). However, Poulisse (1990) argued that "finding a task which was in between controlled and natural tasks was not easy" (p. 83).

And the relationship between task properties and language use comes in three key sorts according to descriptive research: "(1) tasks and the negotiation of meaning, (2) tasks and learner production, and (3) the co-construction of tasks through interaction" (Ellis, 2008, p. 819). From this point, Pica & Doughty (1985 a,b) found that small-group work in language classrooms only resulted in more negotiation work than teacher-fronted lessons when the task was of the required information type. Newton (1995) found almost double the quantity of negotiation in tasks where the information was shared. And Foster (1998) reported that required information exchange tasks consistently elicited more negotiation and more modified output. In addition, Nakahama, Tyler & van Lier (2001) came to conclude that conversational activity offered "a larger range of opportunities for language use" (p. 401). And comparing NNs-NNs interactions, Gass and Varonis (1985) claimed that more indicators of non-understanding occurred in the one-way task.

There is a general consensus among researchers such as Long (1988, 1989); Varonis & Gass (1985), Doughty & Pica (1986); Pica (1987), Pica et al., (1993) that the use of two-way information tasks in group work and pair work, involving learners in sharing essential information initially dispensed only partially to each member (Slimani-Rolls, 2005), lends favourable settings for learners to negotiate meaning, via the conversational adjustments they make in interaction. This consensus in favour of two-way tasks for language classrooms is challenged by other studies (Duff, 1986; Nakahama et al., 2001), suggesting that the two-way task cannot pretend any general supremacy over the one-way task. Varonis & Gass (1985) and Bejarano et al., (1997) found out that it was, in fact, the one-way task that generated more meaning negotiation. Thus, if the objective of negotiation studies is to isolate the most effective task type to have an influence on language acquisition in the classroom environment, "they have done little but suggest that a commonsense use of a balanced diet of one-way and two-way tasks is currently the safest way for teachers" (Slimani-Rolls, 2005, p. 196). For this reason, in the present study, three main tasks were selected that ranged between one-way information exchange task and two-way information exchange task.

In addition, this study gave the learners the opportunity of using two different kinds of task planning: pre-task planning and planning as rehearsal. Though the results of many studies are contradictory but after visiting a number of such researches, Ellis (2008) came to conclude that when learners plan strategically they accord more attention to drawing up a conceptual plan of what they want to say rather than to formulating detailed linguistic plans. Alternatively, it is possible that even when learners do attend to form when planning, "they find it difficult to carry over the forms they have planned into performance of the task" (ibid, p.498). As stated earlier, the second type of planning that was given to learners was 'planning as reheasal'. About its advantages Bygate (1996) claimed that rehearsal enhanced complexity, with the learner exercising more lexical verbs, more regular past tense forms, a vast array of vocabulary and cohesive devices, and fewer inappropriate collocations on the second occasion.

Equally important, the findings of the current research were in line with that obtained from self-report strategy questionnaire, i.e., there was a correlation between LLs' perceptions of what they utilized and their actual performance. In other terms, CSs-implementation raised LLs' awareness and real application of the seven taught CSs. Such outcomes are backed up by many previous results. For example, Nakatani (2005) stated that the training that focuses on conscious practice in using CSs tends to enhance the LLs' communication during stimulated tasks. The researcher sided with the view that the need to control their performance and overcome their communicative breakdowns urged EFL learners develop their metacognitive skills and the conscious implementation of their interlanguage system, "learners' strategic competence can be developed through raising their awareness of managing and supervising specific strategy use" (ibid, p. 87). Moreover, it could be argued that the 'Oral Communication Strategy Training' (OCST) appears to have a positive impact on students' declarative knowledge 'about' strategy use. The OCST has yet to have a strong influence on the speakers' procedural knowledge of 'how to' implement strategy use (Lam, 2006). It is through repeated practice that declarative knowledge of strategy use may be automatized to become observable, procedural knowledge of strategy use. This argument is in line with Johnson's process of "proceduralising declarative knowledge" through practice (Johnhson, 1994, p. 125). Hence, while the training effect may be observable, the distinction of strategy training may lie in its assisting learners acquire declarative knowledge, which is the preliminary step to proceduralisation on the learning continuum (Lam, 2006).

Besides, LLs , in the present investigation, used a mixture and a cluster of the taught CSs in all the three proposed tasks. In this vein, Chamot & Rubin (1994, p. 772) argued that, "strategies are most useful when used effectively together so that success depends not only on the use of an individual one but on the effective management of a repertoire of strategies". Same idea was defended by Ellis (1994) who proposed that it may be high time to study strategies in terms of clusters instead of in isolation to investigate their relative importance in the learning outcome. Moreover, in the language learning field, there has been evidence that complexes of strategies might be differentially related to various levels of linguistic and communicative competencies

(Politzer & McGroaty, 1985). Gu & Johnson (1996) also reported on identifying clusters of strategies conductive to vocabulary learning.

2.6.3. Retrospective Verbal Reports' Outcomes: One-Task/ Two-Task Performance and CSs Implementation

In the current study, to tap the learners' thoughts in action when they performed the three tasks and investigate their learning processes (i.e., covert thoughts), the SR was employed. The 180 SR interviews were transcribed by the researcher for future analysis. The initial step in analyzing protocol data was to pinpoint a unit of analysis in each interview (Green, 1998). Each time the video was stopped and the student gave a report, which constituted an episode, was taken as the unit for analysis. As the SR interviews pointed to elicit baseline data about strategic thoughts (if any) when the learners were engaging in the research tasks, every SR in an episode was segmented, highlighted and bounded by a pair of slashes whenever a reference of a strategy type was isolated (Green, 1998; Gass & Mackey, 2000). Each recall segment was then imparted a strategy name. And it was plausible that no strategies were identified (Lam, 2007).

In fact, the three steps recommended by Green (1998) for analyzing verbal protocol data were employed in the present study. They are (1) developing a coding scheme, (2) identifying the unit for analysis, and (3) segmenting the protocols for coding. The first step is to draw up an initial coding scheme. All the target strategies that were introduced to the students during the strategy training sessions form the 'priori list' of categories for coding reported strategy use. The intention is to assess whether students reported using the seven target taught strategies (Lam, 2004, 2007). The second step is to identify the unit of analysis in the SRI transcripts. Every time when the video was stopped and when the students performed the reporting forms an episode. So an episode contains the video-play back of a related clip, the prompt (if any) by the researcher and the prompted or unprompted reporting of a learner. And the third step is to segment the 'Recall' for coding. The 'Recall' in each episode is segmented into unit(s) in which each mention of the strategy type is classified and then coded (Gass & Mackey, 2000).

Participants of both levels reported the main linguistic problems they faced while delivering a piece of speech. Lack of vocabulary and ideas, grammar and stress were the main elements that effected first year learners' performances. These components in addition to pronunciation difficulties were the matters that third year learners suffered from (**Appendix B**). The results of the main study converged with those found in the small-scale study. As a matter of fact, learners were aware of the importance of vocabulary in their speaking. But improving vocabulary skill among LLs is a challenge faced by many educational enterprises. And if learners lack vocabulary knowledge, they soon discover that their ability to comprehend or express themselves clearly is limited (Decarrico, 2001; Nation, 2001). The linguistic demand in learning lexicon is well presented by Richards (1983), "Before the learner is ready to begin speaking a foreign language, he or she should have a vocabulary of at least two hundred words and a feel for the basic word order rules of the target language" (p. 114). Moreover, Schmidt (2000) emphasized that lexical knowledge is central to communicative competence and to the acquisition of a second language. Also, Nation (2000) described the correlation between vocabulary knowldge and language practice as complementary: the skill of vocabulary enables langugae use and conversely. In addition, Dörnyei & Kormos (1998) stated that, "even a brief analysis of any spontaneous piece of L2 oral discourse will reveal that L2 speakers tend to spend a great deal of time and effort negotiating meaning and struggling to cope with the various problems they encounter during the course of communication" (P. 350).

About language stress and anxiety, Hashemi (2011, p. 1811) claimed that they can originate from "learners' own sense of 'self', their self-related cognitions, language learning difficulties, differences in learners' and target language cultures…". He continued to argue that the demand on communication in the modern language classes may enhance learners' anxiety "as there are more chances for their weakenesses to be exposed in front of others" (ibid, p. 1812). Furthermore, it is stated that language anxiety may be a result as well as a cause of insufficient command of the target language (ibid). In the same vein, Zheng (2008) explained that second/ foreign language learning can sometimes be a traumatic experience for many learners. Moreover, MacIntyre (1998) claimed that language anxiety is a form of situation-

specific anxiety that deals with "the worry and negative emotional reaction aroused when learning or using a second language" (p. 27).

About pronunciation, the fact is well studied by many researchers as Ur (1996) who claimed that knowing a language is usually perceived as speaking that language effectively. However, classroom procedures for teaching conversation often amount to nothing more than the "parroting of dialogues" (Richards & Schmidt, 1983, p. 126). Instead, teachers should always bear in mind the needs of their students and plan their programmes accordingly (Sze, 1996). And bout grammar, Larsen-Freeman (2003) contended that while language learners can cope with the presentation and practice sections of a lesson, they struggle at the production stage which is the more communicative part of a lesson that necessites transfer of knowledge. She indicated that despite the fact that students understand and thus know a rule, they are not necessarily able to apply it. Hence, their output may be inaccurate and/ or disfluent. She noted that "students can recall the grammar rules when they are asked to do so but will not use them spontaneously in communication, even when they are relevant" (ibid, p. 8).

As a matter of fact, second/ foreign language learners' speaking ability is sometimes interrupted by a gap in their linguistic knowledge (Rababah, 2016) and this gap may cause frustration for both speaker and listener as a result of communication breakdown. It seems a solid fact that no second/foreign language learner's or even no native speaker's linguistic repertoire or control of language is perfect. Native as well as non-native speakers of a given language sometimes 'struggle' to turn up the suitable expression or grammatical construction when they propose to get their meaning across (Faucette, 2001; Aliakbari & Allvar, 2009). In other terms, there is a 'gap' between what they intend to communicate and their instantly available linguistic resources (i.e., lack of the necessary means) (Faucette, 2001; Oweis, 2013). To put it differently, when learners are engaged in spontaneous speech, the major variation between their communicative performance and that of the native speaker lies in the balance between intended meaning and linguistic resources (Corder, 1981). It is believed that when learners encounter a communication breakdown in a communication situation, they commonly favour to preserve their intended meaning and to fulfil their communicative

ends. Therefore, when learners communicate in the TL, their primary step is to seek language forms which accomplish their intended meaning (Faerch & Kasper, 1980; Song, 1997; Zhang, 2007; Bygate, 2000). Thus, it is the teachers' main task to help learners overcome their linguistic deficiencies.

In order to raise their students' awareness, the teachers should set up a mini-conference for the English staff members, probably at least once a semester, to brain-storm and discuss CSs for their awareness of how notable CSs are and how CSs can improve their students' communicative competence (Somsai et al., 2011). Teachers should realize that dissimilar CSs may differently be beneficial for students. Furthermore, they should be galvanised to introduce CSs as part of classroom lessons to their learners and, in the meantime, encourage the students to draw upon CSs for situational classroom practice. This will supply the students opportunities for practice in CS use (ibid). As Dörnyei (1995,p. 64) pointed out that "Providing opportunities for practice in strategy use appears to be necessary because CSs can only fulfill their function as immediate first aid devices…". For language students, a mini-seminar on CSs should be held for them in order to encourage and aid them to become aware of the potential of CSs in their oral communication in English. During the seminar, the students should be issued starts to employ CSs, and then identify and discuss the CSs that they have used. They may be also asked to provide judgements on a particular CS framework given to them in terms of usefulness and workability. In addition, an informal debate with learners about CSs should be arranged occasionally (Somsai et al., 2011).

2.6.4. Attitudinal Questionnaire's Outcomes: LLs' Attitudes towards CSs Training

In the first query of the attitudinal questionnaire, the 30 respondents (15 of first year and 15 of third year) demonstrated positive feelings towards CSs instruction and even displayed their opinions about the effectiveness of the training. However, their reactions towards the nature of the strategies differed: some found them easy to be applied but others contended that their use is difficult. Moreover, some students, especially third year LLs, stated that the difficulty is not in the application itself but in

remembering the names of the strategies. In the second place, all participants of both levels concurred with the view that supports CSs training. Again, the effectiveness of the instruction about CSs was highlighted. Then, students found CSs a solution to their communicative hiccups. Some learners liked the method of instruction, as they revealed in the third question. In the fourth one, when quenstioned about what they disliked in CSs training, the 30 learners responded 'Nothing or None'. However, some of them added further comments besides the 'Nothing': there are people who did not like a particular strategy; others reported that though the strategies are all useful but they still forget their names. Further, when asked about the impact of CSs training on the development of their speaking skill, the 30 students confirmed that the instruction matured their oral performance and commented on the usefulness of the instructional method as well, in the fifth query. And in the last question, the majority of students asked for more sessions and for additional CSs to be taught too. Furthermore, the direct method was highly recommended by students in both levels (**Appendix G**).

As a matter of fact, the findings of the attitudinal questionnaire stressed four main points: (1) the importance of communication strategies as problem-shooting devices; (2) the efficacy of the selected CSs in the study; (3) the teachability of CSs and; (4) the efficiency of awareness-raising activities, i.e., teaching CSs via the direct method. Firstly, the use of CSs is suggested as a solution to help learners achieve their communicative goals (Hedge, 2000; McDonough, 2006). The same idea is shared by Tarone (2005) who stated that speakers use CSs to "resolve difficulties they encounter in expressing an intended meaning" (p. 488). In different words, CSs are defined as tactics taken by language learners to solve oral communication problems. Further, Yaman et al., (2013) claimed that CSs involve both listening and speaking which contribute to the foreign language learners. They are used to negotiate the meaning and to maintain the conversation (Tarone, 1980).

And despite the attention devoted to learners' strategy use and the considerable amount of research into strategy training, there are still unsolved issues (McDonough, 1995; Ellis, 1997). The crucial matter is related to the problem of validating the content and nature of strategies as Ellis (1997, p. 87) put it, "not enough is known about which strategies and which combinations of strategies work best for L2

acquisition". Regarding what to teach, different theoretical underpinnings have produced different classification systems which each claims to have been validated by empirical data (O'Malley et al., 1985 a/b; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990; Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995; Rubin, 1981). As a result, there has been a lack of consensus on the categories of strategies that are considered to be important to language learning and subsequently to training (Lam, 2004). Perhaps as LoCastro (1995) observed, "within the qualitative tradition, a classification of learning strategies – or of anything for that matter – developed for a particular learning environment cannot be brought without question and testing into a different learning context" (1995, p. 173).

The above confirms that no existing, single typology of strategies should be taken as a straightjacket for strategy training without challenge (Lam, 2004). Also, it is crucial to investigate the effect of groups/ cluster of strategies rather than isolated strategies on task performance. Chamot & Rubin (1994, p. 772) stated that, "strategies are most useful when used effectively together so that success depends not only on the use of an individual one but on the effective management of a repertoire of strategies". The same idea was defended by Ellis (1994) who proposed that it may be high time to investigate strategies in terms of clusters instead of in isolation to scrutinise their relative significance in the learning outcome. Again, Gu & Johnson (1996) reported on naming clusters of strategies conductive to vocabulary learning.

Based on Levelt's (1989) psycholinguistic model of L1 communication and speech processing and on Dörnyei & Kormos's (1998) framework, seven communication strategies were selected; circumlocution, appeal for help, lexicalized pauses (planning and encoding the preverbal message), self-correction, comprehension checks (monitoring the phonetic plan and the articulated speech), asking for clarification and asking for confirmation (post-articulatory monitoring). As a matter of fact, only achievement/ compensatory strategies were adopted and investigated in the whole study. Willems (1987) strongly recommended that achievement strategies (to be positive) rather than reduction ones (to be negative) should be urged in spite of all the impacts this may have for the (in) correctness of the language, if only to lessen the

learners' reduction behaviour, "Reduction behaviour is, obviously, a major obstacle to language development" (p. 354). According to Fearch & Kasper (1983), the learner uses an achievement strategy when she/ he tries to solve communication breakdowns by broadening her/ his communicative resources than by reducing her/ his communicative goal(s). That is, achievement/ compensatory strategies yield alternative initiatives for the students to carry out their first communicative goal(s) by steering available language, therefore compensating in some way for their linguistic deficiencies (Dörnyei, 1995).

Moreover, Dörnyei & Thurrell (1991) argued that the teaching of SC is particularly pertinent to the foreign language classroom not least because learners who hold an extensive repertoire of linguistic knowledge may still backfire in oral language examinations because they do not often have the capability to keep going when there is a communication crisis. Hence, the mastery of linguistic ability alone does not guarantee success in practising an L2 in oral communication (ibid). Those who advocate teaching CSs generally make pedagogical recommendations and argue that communication strategy training is desirable in order to develop SC (Dörnyei & Thurrell, 1991, 1994; Faerch & Kasper, 1983a; Tarone & Yule, 1989; Willems, 1987). And despite many arguments and recommendations put forth in favour of teaching CSs, there have been few empirical studies which assess the value of communication strategy teaching (Faucette, 2001). Yule & Tarone (1997) cited studies by Brodersen & Gibson (1992) and Dörnyei, Csomay & Fischer (1992) suggesting that improvement in effective CS use can result from training. And Chen (1990) concluded that LLs' strategic and therefore CC could probably be increased through recommended CS training. Also, Dörnyei (1995) suggested that LLs' use of CSs should be developed through focused instruction. He nominated a 'direct approach' to teaching, and included 'awareness-raising' in this approach. Although there have been limited studies of communication strategy training/ teaching, research results are still encouraging (Faucette, 2001). That is, it seems as though CS training could result in language learning. In addition, there appears to be little disconfirming demonstration

(Dörnyei, 1995). And the findings of the present investigation are an additional proof of the teachability of CSs.

Lastly, 'strategy training/ instruction' is succinctly summarized by Cohen (1998) as follows,

As posited by Chamot & O'Malley (1994, pp. 387-8), the goal of instructing language LLs in the use of strategies is "to develop self-regulated learners who can approach

The strategy training movement is predicated on the assumption that if learners are conscious about and become responsible for the selection, use, and evaluation of their learning strategies, they will become more successful language learners by…taking more responsibility for their own language learning, and enhancing their use of the target language out of class. In other words, the ultimate goal of strategy training is to empower students by allowing them to take control of the language process (p. 70).

new learning tasks with confidence and select the most appropriate strategies for completing the task". This means that the focus of strategy training is on 'how' to learn rather than on 'what' to learn (Manchón, 2000). According to Rubin et al., (2006), the aim of strategy intervention or teaching language learner strategies is to explore "the extent to which it enables students to become more effective language learners" (p. 154). Following Weinstein & Mayer (1986), any learning/ teaching situation encompasses two types of goals: goals concerning the product of learning and goals concerning the process of learning. The former focus on what to learn, that is, on "what students should know or be able to do as a result of learning", whereas the latter are oriented towards how to learn, i.e., on "techniques and strategies students can use to accomplish learning" (ibid, p. 315). In its application to L2 situation, Manchón (1998) interpreted the 'what-to-learn goals' as the double task faced by the L2 learner: to come up with knowledge of the L2 and to gain ground the ability to put acquired knowledge to practice when attempting to produce or interpret messages in the L2. Manchón (1998) posited that three micro-processes are involved in the establishment of L2 knowledge: integration of untried knowledge into prevailing knowledge structures, ascertaining any mismatch between L2 and interlanguage rules, and automatization of L2 knowledge so that it is available for efficient retrieval and use.

Together with these 'what-to-learn goals', the language learning/ teaching situation also encompasses corresponding 'how-to-learn goals'. These relate to the acquisition of the relevant knowledge to reach the 'what-to-learn goals'. The notion of 'strategies' is a cover term for this special type of knowledge that language learners must acquire (Manchón, 1998). It is customary to distinguish two macro groups of strategies. 'Learning strategies' are related to the first component of 'what-to-learn goals', i.e., the expansion of L2 knowledge and the raising of its accessibility. In contrast, the implementation of 'language-use strategies' is aimed at the acquisition of the ability to put acquired knowledge to use, this being the second dimension of 'what-to-learn goals' (ibid). To this it should be added that when putting acquired knowledge to use, language students also learn how to make full and efficient use of their available knowledge resources, while at the same time language users must become skillfull at handling hiccups caused by shortage of knowledge or how accessibility to such knowledge which is precisely the situation that triggers the use of CSs (Manchón, 1998).

In fact, strategy-based instruction is justified on the grounds that language teaching must support learners learn how to learn, an educational target which is in turn based on the partially tested hypothesis that the language learner's how-to-learn procedures are amenable to modification through instruction. It is further postulated that an off-shot of strategy instruction would be the development of the learner's autonomy. Three out of the five attributes that according to Dickinson (1992, 1993) define autonomous learners are coupled with strategy use. Dickinson contended that autonomous learners: (i) can identify what has been taught; (ii) are able to set their own learning aims; (iii) choose and implement appropriate strategies; (iv) monitor the applications of strategies by themselves; and (v) can take decisions as to last or give up the use of strategies depending on whether or not they are working for them. In short, autonomous learners have developed knowledge about strategies and control over their use. Strategy instruction must, therefore, include those two components of knowledge (both declarative and procedural) of strategies and control of their use (ibid). According to Iwai & Gobel (2003), the terms 'instruction' and 'training' are both used and have separate connotations. The former represents the meaning of teaching for

certain objectives, while the latter stands for teaching in a specific programme. In concluding terms, for McDonough (1999), the aim of strategy intervention is to bridge the gap between "what learners can do and what they will do" (p. 4).

Further, it is suggested that strategy instruction must include different stages. First, the stategy training programme should begin with an evaluation of the strategies that learners currently employ and how well they use them because as Wenden (1991, p. 108) stated, "the intervention should match the need". The next stage involves either deductive or inductive awareness of the strategy/ ies learners are going to be trained in. The main end here is to raise the students' awareness of the value and benefits of strategy use. To this end, the instructor helps the learner develop declarative knowledge about (what strategy/ ies they are learning to implement), procedural knowledge (how the strategy/ ies should be utilised and why) and conditional knowledge (in which contexts should the strategy/ ies be exercised) (Manchón, 2000). This explicit strategy instruction is predicated on the grounds that the metacognitive awareness that learners gain will help the retention and transferability of strategy use. The third stage is the practice, where learners are given practice in using the strategy in question in contextualized tasks. The final stage includes the assessment of strategy use and the demonstration of how the strategy can be transferred to other contexts and tasks (ibid).

Also, Dörnyei (1995) proposed a broader interpretation of teaching that would involve the following six (interrelated) procedures, all relevant to strategy training. The first is 'raising learner awareness about the nature and communicative potential of CSs' by making LLs conscious of strategies already in their repertoire, sensitizing them to the appropriate contexts where these could be useful, and making them realize that these strategies would actually work. The significance of conscious attention in the learner's internalization process is highlighted by Schmidt (1990). From a cognitive perspective, the main role of instruction is to orient the learners and focus their attention on a given topic. Faerch & Kasper (1986) also emphasized the need to increase the learners' "metacommunicative awareness" (p. 187) with respect to strategy use. In fact, most definitions of CSs include (potential) consciousness as a major feature, as they also point out, this implies that these strategies "can be

influenced by teaching" (Faerch & Kasper, 1984, p. 47). The second step is 'encouraging students to be willing to take risks and use CSs', that is, to manipulate available language without being afraid of making errors (Faerch & Kasper, 1986; Yule & Tarone, 1990). Willems (1987) also argued that very often we need to make it clear to learners that for some strategies, "their innate tendency to use them in free speech activities is quite a natural urge and nothing to be frowned upon" (p. 356). And the third is 'providing L2 models of the use of particular CSs' through demonstrations, listening materials and videos, and getting learners to identify, categorize, and assess strategies used by native speakers or other language speakers. Or after viewing their own recordings, students analyse their own strategy use (Faerch & Kasper, 1986). The fourth stage is 'highlighting cross-cultural differences in CSs use' might include degrees of stylistic appropriateness associated with CSs (e.g., in some languages certain CSs may be regarded as signs of bad style, differences in the frequency of particular CSs in the speaker's L1 and L2, as well as differences in the verbalization of specific CSs).

Moreover, 'teaching CSs directly' is the fifth step of this training and it can achieved by presenting linguistic devices to verbalize CSs which have a finite range of surface realizations/ structures. According to McLaughlin (1990), verbal tasks are hierarchically structured/ ordered and in order to realize a higher order goal, each of the component skills needs to be executed. This would imply that being familiar with a strategy in L1 might be an insufficient condition for efficient strategy use in L2 if certain lower order elements are missing or not automatized properly. Tarone & Yule (1989) pointed out that 'circumlocution', for example, requires certain basic core vocabulary and sentence structures/ buildings/ constructions to describe properties (e.g., shape, size, colour, texture) and function. They provide examples like 'top side, bowl-shaped, triangular, on the rim, circular, sequare). In addition, Dörnyei & Thurrell (1992) considered the automatization of basic structures such as 'it's a kind of; sort of the thing you use for…; it's what/ when you…; it's something you do/ say when…; necessary for 'circumlocution'. They also provided a list of common fillers and hesitation devices which come in handy when learners wish consciously to buy time

(e.g., well, actually, as a matter of fact, the thing is… how shall I put it?), as well as a set of ways to appeal for help (e.g., what do you call it? /someone who…what's the word for…). And the last step, i.e., the sixth one, is 'providing opportunities for practice in strategy use' which appears to be necessary because CSs can only fulfil their function as immediate first aid devices if their use has reached an automatic stage (Dörnyei, 1995). The latter also proposed that this automatization will not always occur without specific focused practice.

By the same token, Kellerman (1991) acknowledged the possible usefulness of situational classroom practice of strategies in order to help learners overcome inhibitations arising from having to operate in the L2. This is why van Lier (1996), influenced by the psychology of Vygotsky (1978), proposed the AAA (Awereness, Autonomy, Authenticity) curriculum, which views social interaction as the key to learning. 'Awareness' is described as the process of paying attention to new experiences and relating them to existing knowledge. 'Autonomy' has to do with choice and responsability, with the learner's initiative in making decisions about what is to be learnt. And 'Authenticity' is related to action that is intrinsically motivated, when a learner has a genuine desire to learn, rather than being compelled to some external force to do so. In his AAA orientation, van Lier (1996) considered interactional change as promoting avenues for educational change, i.e., small changes in input can bring about fundamental changes in output. From the outcomes of our investiagtion that has been undertaken, it is possible to reject the null hypotheses and accept the nondirectional ones, i.e., (1) if learners receive CSs training, then their strategic competence will be developed and; (2) the more EFL learners receive strategy training, the more communication strategies will be used.

In concluding words, the learners of a foreign language are expected to be able to not only understand what is said, and understand and appreciate similarities and differences between cultures, but also to find obstacles in communicating according to the cultural norms of the target language. The notion of ICC builds on an earlier concept – that of CC. The former situates language at the heart of intercultural abilities (Fantini, 2020). As a matter of fact, Hennebry (2014) stated that, "It has been argued that culture is the marginalized sister of language" (p. 135). Thus, it is argued that

language teaching should always contain some explicit reference to the culture, the whole from which the particular language is taken (Gao, 2006). In plain terms, language teaching should incorporate skills and strategies for developing cultural awareness leading to ICC for global citizenship (López-Rocha, 2016).

2.6.5. Originality of the Current Research

Firstly, strategy training is still unheard of in many ESL/ EFL instructional settings and the continuing uncertainty about the effectiveness of strategy instruction on strategy use and task performance yields an additional rationale, Lam (2004). Particularly, few studies on the topic, in the Algerian context, were conducted. One work was held by Hamlaoui and Haddouche (2013) entitled 'An Investigation into EFL Algerian Students' Communication Strategies' at Badji Mokhtar University, Annaba. The study investigated the use of CSs of 118 Algerian University majors in relation to gender, years of study, ability and proficiency level as variables. Strategy use was assessed via a self-reported questionnaire based mainly on Oxford's (1990) Strategy Inventory for language learning (SILL) and the level of proficiency was determined by the number of years of studing English. The major outcome was that English language majors' use of CSs is at a medium scale; 'code modification strategies' were found out to be the most exercised tactics and 'physical communication strategies' were the least employed ones. It also appeared that each of the independent variables (gender, years of study, ability and proficiency level) had a significant relationship with students' use of CSs. Another article labelled 'Acquiring Communication Strategies through Conversational Training: The Case Study of 1st Year LMD Students at Djillali Liabès University Sidi Bel Abbès Algeria' by Zouaoui and Mohamed (2014). The main concerns of this paper were firstly to scrutinize the nature of the students' communicative difficulties, and secondly to search about the types of CSs that students possessed. In the third place, the researchers wanted to investigate if awareness raising through conversational training was likely to contribute to students' progress in communication. In addition, the reseachers

proposed three hypotheses. The first, students' communicative difficulties might not be of a linguistic nature, i.e, they lacked adequate awareness of communication strategies even though they were good at writing and/or reading. The second hypothesis was that students were equipped with poor and inefficient CSs. And the third one was that if students' awareness was raised, they might make progress in communication. In fact, the reseachers concluded that awareness raising seemed to be the significant factor that contributed to students' shortcomings. Also, they added that audio-recordings might be very effective in communicating the tasks and in reassuring the learners that they could succeed in meeting expectations. Further, the researchers summed up their article by addressing classroom teachers to develop activities which promote negotiated interaction between students, thus the latter would be able to employ strategies for avoiding and repairing breakdowns and require them to take initiative and accept responsibility for their success. But there is no one interventionist study that took this issue of CSs under scrutiny at Mouhamed Lamine Debaghine (Sétif 2) University.

Secondly, it was argued that the previous experimental studies did not adopt a multi-method approach to investigating the impacts of strategy instruction on learners' strategy use (Lam, 2006; Hadjab & Hamitouche, 2021). It has been defended that a synthesis of approaches to researching the impact of strategy training may offer a more comprehensive and fuller picture of learners' strategy application. As a matter of fact, prior investigations have chosen to be relalively uni-dimentional. This fact provides yet one more good justification for a multi-dimentional study. Equally important, Manchón (2000), in contrast to the theoretical and empirical concern in the perception and classification of CSs, stated that pedagogical matters do not stand out as an essential research issue in the CSs literature as a whole. One also observes with interest that scholars within the strategy training motion have not incorporated CSs in their scrutiny schedules. And this is by no means a pristine state of affairs (ibid). If it is not refused that, on the contrary to L1 acquisition where total mastery is the norm, some ratio of deficiency or incomplete achievement is an attribute of SLA processes (Bley-Vroman, 1989; Cook, 1997), i.e., language users are likely to frequently confront communication breakdowns, and to do it usually than the L1 speakers

(Manchón, 2000). Hence, to speculate that the growing interest in the use of CSs should in principle be an essential portion of the strategic behaviour that characterizes autonomous learners sounds equitable. Manchón (2000) continued to state that the advice to include CS-training in our teaching practice supports learners become better disruption solvers, more competent users of their strategy repertoire and more adept at coping with unforseen communicative situations outside the language class.

Further, the researcher claimed that if we want to advance there is a need to carry out empirical researches at least to test whether in fact training students in the use of CSs does make a difference. Some works in the research literature suggested that further studies should investigate the teachability of these tactics. Dörnyei (1995), for example, proposed 'future extensions and elaborations of the training programme may be expected to achieve even more marked results' (P. 80). In addition, Nakatani (2005) supported the view that further investigation regarding the impact of strategy training on the forms of utterances should be conducted. According to Nguyet & Mai (2012) and Dörnyei and Thurrell (1994), finding effective ways to prepare students for spontaneous communication in one of the biggest challenges for all current language teaching methodologies. Hence, instruction in class is important to provide students with conversational strategies to help them avoid or overcome communication breakdowns.

2.6.6. Limitations of the Study

Any research is subject to limitations. It is always conducted within contextual and methodological constraints. The small size (30 LLs of first year and 30 ones of third year) hinders, to some extent, the research results. And if the three tasks, in the Speaking Task Battery, were completed by the 60 participants, the retrospective reports were conducted only with 30 students (15 of first year and 15 of third year). In addition, the research instruments are a crucial element that influences the applicability of the results of this study. The data were collected from four sources : self-report strategy questionnaire, speaking task battery, SR and attitudinal questionnaire to answer the research questions respectively: (1)Do our learners use communication strategies (CSs) in their speaking tasks?, (2)Does explicit stragegy training have a direct impact on the learners' ICC development ?i.e., what are the effects of teaching

CSs on learners' actual use of these strategies ?, (3)Are students able to identify the types of CSs they use in the speaking tasks ?, (4)What are the students' attitudes towards strategy training and the usefulness of CSs through the direct approach? The first tool provided some valuable information concerning students' perceptions about the use and usefulness of CSs.

However, problems might arise such as students contradicted themselves in their answers to questions in the checklist (particularly in the pre-phase). Two main interpretations could be given to this fact: the first had to do with misunderstanding some queries, and the second was about the learners' inattention while completing the questionnaire. Thus, the internal reliability of the checklists on the use and usefulness of CSs, in both phases, was estimated by Cronbach's Alpha. Another limitation might be that during data analysis, LLs' utterances were only classified according to the pre-prepared adopted taxonomy, which means that there might be other CSs, non-taught, linguistic and non-linguistic, found in the data which were not studied.

And about tasks, the second research tool, Ellis (2008) claimed that when learners plan, they have to choose what aspect of production to focus on; focusing on fluency and complexity is at the expense of accuracy and vice-versa. And this is exactly what happened to the LLs of the present study in both groups and phases. Also, Bygate and Samuda (2005) suggested that repeating a task serves as a kind of 'integrative planning' which can lead to qualitative improvements. And about rehearsing the same type of task, Bygate (2001) involved her LLs in narrative and interview tasks and sought to investigate the effects practising these tasks on both a second performance of the same task and on performance of the same task of the same type. She showed that the second performance manifested greater fluency and complexity and also that the opportunity to practise that particular type of task helped. However, the practice did not appear to assist performance of a new task of the same type. In other words, there was no transfer of practice effect (Ellis, 2008). And this is what was concluded by Ellis (2008, p. 495) saying that the, "research on rehearsal suggests that it has a beneficial effect on learners' subsequent performance of the same task but that there is no transferance of the rehearsal effect to a different task". And this is exacly,

disappointingly, what happened in the present study and even more unexpected results, as performing better in the first performance rather than the second.

Further, Stimulated Recall (SR) is an introspective method used to prompt learners to comment on the thoughts and feelings they had while participating in a specific learning event (Ellis, 2008). In the framework of information processing model, it is assumed that information recently acquired (attended to or heeded) by the central processor is kept in short-term memory (STM), and is directly accessible for explicit reporting (i.e., verbal reports), whereas information from long-term memory (LTM) must first be retrieved and then transferred to STM before it can be reported. To obtain verbal reports, "as new information (thoughts) enters attention, the subjects should verbalize the corresponding thought or thoughts…the new incoming information is maintained in attention until the corresponding verbalization is completed" (1987, p. 32). However, the fact of informing LLs that they will watch their recorded performance might have an impact on the LLs' performance afterwards, as they might please the researcher. In other terms, the ST might have been done only on a post-task basis to minimize the familiar interaction.

About the fourth research instrument, i.e., attitudinal questionnaire, Dörnyei (2003, p. 8) claimed that attitudinal questions are employed to discover what people think and "this is a broad category that concerns people's attitudes, opinions, beliefs, interests, and values". The researcher of the present research adapted Kongsom's (2009) checklist as it serves the same objective of the present investigation (**Appendix F**). According to McDonough and McDonough (1997), many questionnaires use open-ended questions "to allow the respondents to feel that they can contribute more individual points of view and more detailed information than is elicited in closed questions"p. 176). Cohen et al., (2007) claimed that open questions enable paticipants to write a free account in their own terms, to explain and qualify their responses and avoid the limitations of pre-set categories of response. However, open questions lead to irrelevant and redundant information, they may be too open-ended for the respondent to know what kind of information is being sought, they may require much more time from the respondent to enter a response (thereby leading to refusal to complete the item), and they may make the questionnaire appear long and

discouraging. Open-endedness also carries problems of data handling. Further, it might well be that the researcher is in danger of violating one principle of word-based data, which is that they are not validly susceptible to aggregation, that is "trying to bring to word-based data the principles of numeral data borrowing one paradigm (quantitative, positivist methodology) to inform another paradigm (qualitative, interpretive methodology) " (Cohen et al., 2007, p. 330). Also, it appeared that LLs preferred to answer scale response questions rather than open-ended queries. Thus, the researcher might have included some scaled responses to meet all LLs' preferences.

2.6.7. Pedagogical Implications

Language learners can be taught in at least three different ways: awareness-training, one-time strategy training, and long-term strategy training. The first way is also known as consciousness-raising or familiarization training. In this situation, participants become aware of and familiar with the general idea of language learning strategies and the way such strategies can help them accomplish language tasks. The second is one-time strategy training that involves learning and practising one or more strategies with actual language tasks, usually those found in the regular language learning programme. This kind of training gives the learner information on the value of the strategy, when it can be used, how to use it, and how to evaluate the success of the strategy. It is appropriate for learners who have a need for particular, identifiable, and very targeted strategies that can be taught in one or just a few session(s). And the third way of strategy training is like the previous type and involves learning and practising strategies with actual language tasks. Again, students learn the significance of particular strategies, when and how to use them, and how to monitor and evaluate their own performance. Also, it should be tied to the tasks and objectives of the language programme. However, it is more prolonged and covers a greater number of strategies. It is likely to be more effective than one-time training (Oxford, 1990). Moreover, all these routes of strategy implementation should highlight the two kinds of objectives that come to characterize any learning/ teaching setting, i.e., the product of learning and the process of learning (Weinstein & Mayer, 1986).

Moreover, we should shed light on the training of CSs in a L2/EFL classroom on the grounds that the training strengthens LLs' SC, which is part and parcel of communicative language ability. Dörnyei & Thurrell (1991) argued that the teaching of SC is particularly relevant to the foreign language classroom not least because students who possess a wide repertoire of linguistic knowledge may still fail in oral language examinations because they often lack the ability to keep going when there is a communication breakdown. Moreover, it can be concluded from the present results that direct teaching of CSs will be beneficial to prepare students to cope with their performance problems. In other terms, the product-oriented approach for teaching CSs proved its applicability in the EFL classroom. And for effective use of these strategies, LLs should be aware of them and their communicative potential. In fact, those awareness-raising activities used increased CSs' use, LLs' 'motivation and willingness to communicate especially in the post-phase of the intervention. Moreover, the mastery and control of a TL are the main aims of language learning, and CSs' use play an effective role in enhancing these aims. It is rather better to provide LLs with a sense of security in the TL by allowing them a space to manœuvre in times of language defficiency.

And because the majority of our teaching materials emphasize transactional skills, learners may not have the chance to acquire the interactional skills which are also an important component of LLs' CC. CSs can enhance the LLs' communicative ability, and providing assistance to LLs in accessing CSs may aid them in their quest for language proficiency. As these strategies form part of the overall communicative competence of all NSs, many of them are applicable for use by learners in the TL as well. Thus, integrating CSs, and in particular achievement strategies, in language teaching curricula stands a must. In other words, it is found beneficial to incorporate ST in a communicative syllabus. Cohen (1998) supported the idea that TL programme administrators may include ST as part of the FL curriculum. He further suggested that the explicit ST can help students to achieve language programme goals since it enables students to "find their own pathways to success, and thus it promotes learner autonomy and self-direction" (ibid, p. 67). The ability to use CSs may boost LLs' confidence in selecting and implimenting appropriate strategies in coping with their communicative

hiccups. The present results lend support to the value of CSs instruction in particular in EFL contexts where LLs rarely have an opportunity to develop their SC naturally outside the CR.

In addition, the procedures held in this work can be further tested with a large sample where a longitudinal study is needed too. In the present investigation, the training materials were designed to encourage students to use CSs. CS-instruction programme in this research included a number of ST materials adapted and modified by the researcher on the basis of available resources for English speaking tasks and well-researched CSs training materials. The full set of materials was field-tested and revised in the light of feedback from teachers and students alike in the pilot study. Three task types were selected. One-way information exchange task or 'Optional Exchange Tasks' ('Topic Description' was utilized). The learners both in the experimental and control group, and in both pre- and post-phases, were asked to choose to discuss/ share their ideas about one of these topics (vegetarianism, marriage, peace). The topics were selected as they prove their effectiveness in the works of Dörnyei (1995) and Kongsom (2009).

And two-way information exchange task came in this investigation in two kinds: 'Interview Task' and 'Conversation Task'. In these tasks, "each person holds information the other must acquire to be able to carry out the task successfully" (Slimani-Rolls, 2005, p. 199-200). Two-way information-gap tasks provide optimal conditions for active participation by all students and thereby generate conversational modification (Bejarano et al., 1997). According to Long (1981), this is crucial for promoting language acquisition. In the 'Interview Task', the learners were interviewed by the researcher. The themes selected for this task were taken from 'Conversation in Activity: Let's Talk' by Edward R. Rosset (1997). A number of topics were given to learners to choose what they like more to discuss about. The overall consensus was about the subsequent themes: studying or working, travelling and driving. Each student was free to choose one of these topics and then answer the researcher's questions or comment on the statements supplied (**Appendix H**). Oral interview was found to be appropriate for eliciting CSs in previous studies (Raupach, 1983; Poulisse, 199; Weerarak, 2003; Nakatani, 2005).

For the 'Conversation Task', as done with the previous task, learners were displayed with a set of themes selected from Rosset's (1997) book, and a general agreement was on these three topics: success in life, learning a foreign language and reading. In pairs or in small-groups of no more than four members, the students were asked to develop one of these themes in less than five minutes. This particular task activated various types of CSs such as modification devices, L1-/ L2based strategies, non-linguistic strategies and avoidance strategies (Kongsom, 2009). And about the conversation task, it had proven its effectiveness and workability in many researches (Haastrup & Phillipson, 1983; Weerarak, 2003; Lam, 2004; Nakatani, 2005; Kongsom, 2009). To put it differently, multiple task-types should be used in the classroom if a variety of CSs are to be use, as supported by Rossiter (2003).

The interventionist study involved a total of nine lessons spread over six months for both levels. Each lesson lasted one hour and 30 minutes. The two groups (E and C) in both levels performed similar activities in the oral lessons. Nonetheless, the E group received additional instruction in the use of the seven CSs whereas the C groups did not. The instructional approach adopted for the E groups was explicit strategy training (Chamot, 2004, 2005; Chamot & O'Malley, 1994; Cohen & Weaver, 2006; Oxford, 1990; Rossiter, 2003a). To implement this approach, Dörnyei's (1995) CS training programme was adopted. Six porcedures in the programme are to be followed. The first step deals with 'raising learner awareness about the nature and communicative potential of CSs' in which the learners are made conscious of strategies already in their repertoire. The second step is 'encouraging students to be willing to take risks and use CSs'. The third is 'providing L2 models of the use of certain CSs' through demonstrations, listening materials and videos, and "getting learners to identify, categorize, and evaluate strategies used by native speakers or other L2 speakers" (Dörnyei, 1995, p. 63). And the fourth step is about 'highlighting cross-cultural differences in CS use'. 'Teaching CSs direcly' is the fifth step of Dörnyei's (1995) strategy training programme. This structured inductive approach presents linguistic devices to verbalize CSs which have a finite range of surface structure realizations. 'Providing opportunities for practice in strategy use' is the sixth and the last step in this instructional programme. This stage of practice "appears to be necessary because

CSs can only fulfil their function as immediate first aid devices if their use has reached an automatic stage" (Dörnyei, 1995, p. 64). And this automatization will not always occur without specific focused practice (Dörnyei, 1995; Willems, 1987).

In brief, these suggestions for CSs training may be useful for material writers in developing activities and teaching materials to promote the use of CSs among EFL learners. In a nutshell, the implications of CSs instruction mentioned in this study provide some guidelines and directions to teachers and policy makers alike as learners' strategic awareness of CSs should be promoted to enhance their ability to use CSs effectively in real-life situations. They may make an adjustment about the teaching method or find appropriate ways to raise learners' strategic awareness (Kongsom, 2009). Research findings (Lightbown & Spada, 1990; Swain, 1991) demonstrated that without explicit and form-focused instruction, extensive exposure to meaning-based input does not lead to the development of syntactic and lexical accuracy in a language (Hinkel, 2006).

2.6.8. Future Research Directions

Though CSs training proved its efficacy and effectiveness as it effects LLs' use of these particular strategies, the findings are far from being conclusive because of the limitations mentioned before. Thus, further research is needed. Other investigations about the same topic are invited to be conducted but with a large sample. Further, a longitudinal, rather than a cross-sectional, study is recommended in future works to gauge qualitative changes in LLs' strategy use. And the same CSs training may be implemented and integrated into EFL classes. In this study, CSs training was seperately taught to LLs due to time constraints. Thus, further studies may conduct the same type of training in a regular EFL class to see whether or not the teaching of CSs can be integrated to normal EFL classes. In addition, only seven achievement strategies were taught. Other strategies that correspond with other phases of speech production as lexical problem-solving mechanisms, grammatical problem-solving mechanisms, and phonological problem-solving mechanisms (resource deficit/ planning and encoding the preverbal message), other stalling mechanisms (processing time pressure/ planning and encoding the preverbal message), self-corrections

(perceived deficiencies in one's speech/ monitoring the phonetic plan and the articulated speech), and meaning-negotiation mechanisms as 'interpretive summary and guessing' (perceived deficiencies in the interlocutor's performance/ post-articulatory monitoring). Furthermore, different types of tasks as storytelling, role-play and picture description among others are to be used to elicit different types of CSs.

More importantly, different themes for future research emerged in this study. The first is the relationship between culture and CSs. According to Gumperz (1982) and others (Bialystok & Hakuta, 1994; Tannen, 1984), there are numerous cultural differences in discourse style. Just as Gumperz' (1982) 'discourse strategies' are cross-culturally variable and a potential source of intercultural communication, appropriate CS' use may also be culturally constrained. Therefore, along with Dörnyei (1995) and Faucette (2001), communication strategy training could be used to highlight cross-cultural differences in terms of appropriateness of CS' use. For example, in Rost & Ross' (1991) study of listening strategy instruction, cultural preferences were noted, such as their claim that "questions are often viewed negatively in Japanese educational settings as admissions of ignorance or inattention" (p. 255).

In addition to the threat of the student's own face, questions in class could also be seen as disrespectful and hence a threat to a higher-status person's face (Brown & Levinson, 1987; Goffman, 1967). Tarone (1980) argued that although SC must exist in all languages and cultures, "the particular types of strategy preferred for use in such situations may be culture-specific or language-specific" (p. 422). Cultural differences in the use of silence, which might indicate message abondonment, is one such CS-related speech component that comes to mind (Gilmore, 1985; Hall, 1959; Tannen & Saville-Troike, 1985). Dörnyei (1995) also mentioned differences in verbalizing certain strategies. For example, the Japanese 'eh?' meaning 'huh?' which could be used as a global appeal for assistance, might be seen as impolite in some cultures. Effective training in culturally appropriate CS use would be beneficial to students from all languages and cultures (Faucette, 2001).

Also, the link between CSs and LLs' autonomy is not thoroughly investigated in the literature. One widely accepted that the goal of teaching learning strategies is to foster

learner autonomy (Wenden, 1985, 1991). Wenden (1991) defined autonomous leaner as "one who has acquired the strategies and knowledge to take some (if not yet all) responsibility for her language learning and is willing and self-confident enough to do so" (p. 163). Autonomous learning seeks to equip LLs with tools that will best serve them once they are on their own and to facilitate their self-directed learning outside the classroom. Little (1991) described it thus, "The capacity of autonomy will be displayed both in the way the learner learns and in the way he or she transfers what has been learned to wider contexts" (p. 4).

Situations that encourage independence are beneficial because they lead to learning, achievement and accomplishment (Benson and Voller, 1997). Dickinson (1995) asserted that learning situations that foster autonomy are also valuable because they enhance motivation, which in turn leads to more effective learning, "It has been shown that there is substantial evidence from cognitive motivational studies that learning success and enhanced motivation is conditional on learners…perceiving that their learning successes and failures are to be attributed to their own efforts and strategies rather than to factors outside their control" (pp.173-74). The connection between a learner autonomy approach and communication strategy instruction should be clear. Using the common metaphor of 'bridge', Faerch & Kasper (1983a) argued that "by learning how to use communication strategies appropriately, learners will be able to bridge the gap between pedagogic and non-pedagogic communicative situations" (p. 56).

Learner autonomy can be thought of as the ability to bridge the gap and instruction can be thought of as the means to develop that ability (Faucette, 2002). Cotterall (2000) highlighted the importance of teachers providing choices in a learner autonomy approach, and in particular "extending the choice of strategic behaviours available to learners, and to expand their conceptual understanding of the contribution which strategies can make to their learning" (p. 111). If one of the goals of teaching is to produce independent, skillful language strategy users, and if we think it is important for our LLs to be able to participate in real communication outside the classroom, then how can we ignore CSs in our L2 lessons? (Faucette, 2001). Perhaps learner autonomy is one of the most significant goals of communication strategy training. The two

approaches go hand in hand and would develop independent, strategically competent language learners (ibid).

2.6.9. Ethics in the Present Study

In every discipline it is considered unethical to collect information without the knowledge of participants, and their expressed willingness and informed consent (Kumar, 2011). Informed consent implies that subjects are made adequately aware of the type of information you want from them, why the information is being sought, what purpose it will be put to, how they are expected to participate in the study, and how it will directly or indirectly affect them. It is important that the consent should also be voluntary and without pressure of any kind (ibid). Sharing information about a respondent with others for purposes other than research in unethical (Kumar, 2011). Sometimes you need to identify your study population to put your findings into context. In such a situation you need to make sure that at least the information provided by respondents is kept anonymous (ibid). In the present research, the informed consent agreement (**Appendix J**) was given to the targeted participants (both levels and groups) right from the beginning. It contained all ingredients that previous research highlighted: title of the research, researcher, purpose of the research, and procedures (what they will be required to do in this study). In addition, the subsequent elements were introduced: benefits to participating, confidentiality, potential discomfort, and participation, withdrawal, and payments to subjects for participation in research (in this study, the researcher offered lunch meals to students as they were kept to be video/audio-taped for long hours).

Both the provision and deprivation of a treatment may pose an ethical dilemma for any researcher (Kumar, 2011).When testing an intervention or a treatment, a researcher usually adopts a control-experiment design. Is it ethical to deprive the control group of a treatment? (ibid). Further, in any experimental study, the researcher has to consider a number of issues that can affect the research's outcomes as the 'John Henry Effect' and the 'Treatment Diffusion'. If subjects in a control group find out

they are in competition with those in an experimental treatment, they tend to work hard. When this occurs, differences between control and treatment groups is decreased, minimizing the perceived treatment effect (Yount, 2006).

Whereas the second has to do with the fact that subjects in the control group perceive the treatment as very desirable, and they may try to find out what's being done. Over the course of the experiment, some of the materials of the treatment group may be borrowed by the control group members. Over time, the treatment "diffuses" to the control group, minimizing the treatment effect. This often happens when the groups are in close proximity (ibid). Both the John Henry Effect and Treatment Diffusion can be controlled if experimental and control groups are isolated (Yount, 2006). In the current research, the control groups (of first and third year) were given the post-test before the treatment phase. Furthermore, they (of both levels) were given the treatment lessons after the post-phase with the experimental groups.

Conclusion:

The last chapter, i.e., the sixth one, was about discussions and interpretations of the main study's findings. It was the place where the research questions were answered and some hypotheses were confirmed and others were rejected. In the first place, we presented the questionnaire outcomes, i.e., the impact of strategy training on LLs' reported use and usefulness of CSs. Then, the explicit strategy training outcomes, i.e., the direct approach and the development of LLs' SC, were discussed. Also, the retrospective verbal reports' outcomes, i.e., one-task/ two-task performance and CSs implementation, were addressed. Besides, LLs' attitudes towards CSs training were illustrated. Furthermore, the originality of the current research and the limitations of the study were displayed. In addition, pedagogical implications and future research directions were spelled out. And equally important, the ethics in the present study were highlighted.

General Conclusion

When learners are engaged in spontaneous speech, the chief contrast between their communicative performance and that of the native speaker lies in the balance between intended meanings and linguistic resources. The native speaker's means usually meet his ends on different levels: phonological, lexical and syntactic. On the other hand, the learners, even with considerable amount of linguistic knowledge, often experience a lack of means to meet their ends, partly because the realization of meaning does not come up in a linear process from meaning to forms but requires complicated processes of selecting and constructing components of language forms. To put it differently, LLs in a communicative situation often face communication breakdowns because of their limited linguistic resources, and they face a need to overcome the gap between their communicative intent and their available linguistic means in order to maintain communication.

It is believed that when learners come across a communication breakdown in a communication situation, they generally prefer to maintain their intended meaning and to accomplish their communicative goals. Therefore, when learners communicate in the TL, their first step is to pursue language forms which accomplish their intended meaning(s). However, when learners face difficulty in seeking appropriate language forms, they resort to various kinds of conversational strategies. In fact, language problems and deficiencies are a salient part of communication in a second/ foreign language. But how do language learners manage to communicate when they have a restricted command of a language and encounter a problem?

Indeed, it should be noted that it is demanding to find a rigorous definition of CSs, on which scholars have reached a consensus. In fact, there is a wide agreement on considering CSs as conscious plans for solving a problem to reach a particular communicative goal. However, researchers are still not in complete consent of the concept of CSs. The definition of CSs rigorously is considered as a difficult task. Thus, insights into the nature of these strategies can be represented in two points. The first refers to learners' effort to bridge the gap between their linguistic competence in the target language and that of the interlocutors. The second point represents the conscious employment of verbal and non-verbal devices/ mechanisms for

communicating an idea when definitive linguistic forms are for some reasons not at the language learner's disposal at that point in communication. For instance, CSs are defined as strategies used by language learners in a conscious attempt to bridge a perceived communication gap, either caused by the learners' lack of language knowledge (i.e., resource deficit), problems with their own performance or problems resulting from interaction with an interalocutor.

In addition, it can be said that CSs are commonly utilized not only to bridge the gaps between the linguistic and sociolinguistic knowledge of the foreign language learners and those of the interlocutors in a communicative situation but also to keep their talk flowing within their available linguistic knowledge, and eventually manage their oral communication. It is claimed that CSs can improve language learners' confidence, flexibility, and effectiveness in oral communication. Moreover, they may aid LLs remain in a conversation and provide the learners with more input, more opportunities for checking and validating their hypotheses, and therefore, more chances to advance their IL system. Furthermore, it is argued that achievement strategies may be beneficial in that they assist learners negotiate their way to the correct target language structures and realize their communicative ends.

However, the teachability of CSs in EFL setting is still a controversial matter. In two oft-cited quotes, Bialystok and Kelleman, respectively, expressed their opposition to teaching CSs, "What one must teach students of a language is not strategies, but language" (Bialystok, 1990, p. 147). Kellerman wrote "Teach the learners more language, and let the strategies look after themselves" (1991, p. 158). On the other hand, many researchers (the Pros) advocated the need of raising LLs' awareness about CSs. In response to the need for empirical evidence, Dörnyei (1995) conducted a pilot 6-week training experiment with 109 students in Hungary in the use of three CSs namely, 'topic avoidance' and 'replacement', 'circumlocution', 'using fillers' and 'hesitation devices'. The main purposes of the research were to help LLs in learning to use these strategies to cope with performance problems and improve performance skills in speaking. Results showed that there was improvement in measures related to both the quality and quantity of strategy use in the oral post-test. The study also addressed the teachability controversy and negative reactions to ST arising from

Kellerman's (1991) study, highlighting six interrelated procedures considered to be relevant to ST for speaking. They included: raising language awareness; encouraging students to take risks; providing L2 models of strategy use; highlighting cross-cultural differences in strategy use; teaching CS by presenting linguistic devices to verbalize them; and providing opportunities to practise. Interestingly, Dörnyei compared these steps to ST in the language learning field, pointing out the striking similarities. Besides, Lam's (2006) study confirmed the results of a research conducted by Nakatani (2005) on the value of awareness raising on strategy use in oral communication. However, the effectiveness of teaching CSs has not been totally established yet as it requires further investigation.

The current investigation echoes the position adopted by Konishi & Tarone (2004) that communication strategy training is an effective pedagogical tool for EFL communicative language teaching. The instruction provides learners with both communicative practice and opportunities to learn a core set of English linguistic expressions. And to investigate both the learning process (covert thoughts) and the learning product (overt speech), an interventionist study was conducted at Mohamed Lamine Debaghine (Sétif 2) University in the academic year 2017-2018. The main objectives were to raise EFL learners' awareness about the use and usefulness of CSs and to gauge the impact of training CSs through the direct approach on the development of EFL learners' communicative competence. Before the main study, two phases were conducted: a preliminary study to prove the research gap and a small-scale study to pilot the research design as well as the research instruments.

The main work was an interventionist study that was based mainly on strategy-based instruction. Further, the concept of language learner strategies involves the teaching of learning strategies and/ or CSs in the language classroom. Hence, a case study design was adopted to get in-depth insights of instances of the phenomenon in its natural context and from the perspective of the participants involved in the phenomenon. Our phenomenon was the effect (s) of teaching CSs through the direct approach on developing EFL learners' ICC. Furthermore, the present investigation dealt with two different case studies: first year and third year undergraduate students. In fact, the question was 'Do the Algerian educational system and then university help learners to

be strategically competent?', i.e., what does the educational system add to the LLs' ICC? And what does the university do to develop LLs' ICC? In the present study, 60 participants (First Year N=30; Third Year N=30) were randomly assigned to both the experiment and control groups giving them equal chances of being selected to undergo the experiment.

The research questions were four in number: (1) Do learners use conversational strategies (CSs) in their speaking tasks? (2) Does the implementation of the direct approach in teaching CSs have an impact on the development of EFL learners' ICC? (3) Are students able to identify the types of CSs they use in the speaking tasks? and (4) What are the students' attitudes towards strategy training and the usefulness of CSs through the direct approach? To find answers to these queries, a set of research tools were used to tap both the overt CSs use and the covert part. The self-report strategy questionnaire was a quantitative tool as it does not include any open-ended probes from the part of the target respondents. In a 5 point likert-scale, the participants were just asked to tick the appropriate choice whether of CSs use or CSs usefulness. The Wilcoxon Matched-pairs signed-ranks test was utilized to analyse the results of this tool. To confirm or disconfirm the questionnaire results, our participants were given three qualitative research instruments. The first was a speaking battery task that included three different tasks that differ in two ways: their topics and their degrees of control. The main objective of this tool was to have concrete data of CSs use from the learners' actual performances. To analyse the data obtained, 'Typological Analysis' was resorted to. Then, directly after these tasks and to profile the learners' communicative/linguistic problems and strategy use, a stimulated recall (SR) was used as an introspective method to elicit data about thought processes involved in carrying out the given tasks. The think-aloud-protocol was used with the experimental groups of both years and both before and after performing each task. For the sake of analysis, Green's (1998) Recommendations for analyzing verbal protocol data were employed. And by the end of the treatment phase, the experimental groups were asked to fill in an attitudinal questionnaire. The later was a qualitative research tool used to gain information concerning students' attitudes, opinions and interests towards CSs

instruction and its efficiency. 'Content Analysis' was used to analyze the data gathered from this research instrument.

To address the first research question, if was found that CSs training furthers the learners' reports of more use of the taught CSs. More importantly, correlations between the LLs' reported CSs use and CSs usefulness were found. Thus, we can conclude that these findings were the influence of explicit CSs training which helped in raising LLs' awareness of the seven taught CSs. It is argued that explicit strategy training is responsible of raising the LLs' scale of strategic awareness. Thus, it is necessary to introduce explicit meta-cognitive strategy training to raise awareness of CS strategy use in order to further expand TL development. Establishing CSs training with a focus on solving TL vocabulary problems could be useful for the future curriculum development. Equally important, the research highlighted the significance of teaching achievement strategies rather than the reduction ones. Regarding the second research question, after CSs training, the members of the EG outperformed those of the CG in the quantity (i.e., frequency) and quality of the strategies used. LLs exercised more types of the taught CSs in the post phase. Fillers and self-correction were mainly used in one-way task (TD) and three conversational adjustment strategies (i.e., comprehension checks, clarification requests and asking for confirmation) were used in two-way tasks (OI and CT).

The present research proved that both types of tasks were useful means to develop LLs' ICC. Thus, if the aim of negotiation studies is to isolate the most effective task type to have an impact on language acquisition in the classroom, "they have done little but suggest that a commonsense use of a balanced diet of one-way and two-way tasks is currently the safest way for teachers" (Slimani-Rolls, 2005, p. 196). Moreover, it was statistically proven that CSs training promoted greater use of the CSs taught. Again, the meaning of raising LLs' awareness about CSs use and usefulness has been substantiated in a number of previous works. With respect to the fourth and fifth research question, it can be concluded that the results of SR indicated that LLs were aware of the strategies taught and their effectiveness. Moreover, the findings of the attitudinal checklist championed the direct training of CSs in the EFL.

And based on the results of previous empirical studies and the findings of the current investigation, it is highly recommended to train LLs about CSs in language classrooms on the grounds that the teaching strengthens LLs ' SC and helps in their ICC's development. It is defended that the teaching of SC is particularly relevant to the foreign language classroom not least because students who possess a wide repertoire of linguistic knowledge may still fail in oral language examinations but because they often lack the ability to keep going when there is a communication breakdown.

Besides, it can be concluded from the present results that direct teaching of CSs will be beneficial to prepare students to cope with their performance problems. In other terms, the product-oriented approach for teaching CSs proved its applicability in the EFL classroom. And for effective use of these strategies, LLs should be aware of them and their communicative potential. In fact, those awareness-raising activities used increased CSs' use, LLs' 'motivation and willingness to communicate especially in the post-phase of the intervention. Moreover, the mastery and control of a TL are the main aims of language learning, and CSs' use play an effective role in enhancing these ends. It is rather better to provide LLs with a sense of security in the TL by allowing them a space to manœuvre in times of language efficiency. And because the majority of our teaching materials emphasize transactional skills, learners may not have the chance to acquire the interactional skills which are also an important component of LLs' ICC. CSs can enhance the LLs' communicative ability, and providing assistance to LLs in accessing CSs may aid them in their quest for language proficiency.

The Impact of Implementing the Direct Approach in Teaching Conversational Strategies on the Development of EFL Learners' Intercultural Communicative Competence

Case Study of First Year and Third Year Students at Sétif 2 University

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2021-2022

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The Influence of Teaching Oral Communication Strategies through the Direct Approach on the Development of Algerian EFL Learners' Communicative Competence

Appendices

Appendix A

Oral Expression Syllabus

REPUBLIQUE ALGERIENNE DEMOCRATIQUE ET POPULAIRE

MINISTERE DE L'ENSEIGNEMENT SUPERIEUR
ET DE LA RECHERCHE SCIENTIFIQUE

Programme Pédagogique

Socle commun

1ère et 2ème année
Licence

Domaine
Lettres et Langues Etrangères

II – Fiches d'organisation des unités d'enseignement

Semestre : 1er Semestre
UE: Unité d'Enseignement Fondamentale 1

Répartition du volume horaire de l'UE et de ses matières	Cours: 00h00 TD : 7h30 TP: 00h00 Travail personnel : 06h00
Crédits et coefficients affectés à l'UE et à ses matières	UE : UEF1.1.1 crédits : 10 Matière 1 : Compréhension et Expression Écrite 1 Crédits : 6 Coefficient : 4 Matière 2 : Compréhension et Expression Orale 1 Crédits : 4 Coefficient : 2
Mode d'évaluation	Continu et Examen
Description des matières	Compréhension et Expression Écrite et Orale 1: renforcer les capacités de compréhension et d'expression à l'écrit et à l'oral.

Semestre: 2ème Semestre
UE: Unité d'Enseignement Fondamentale 1

Répartition du volume horaire de l'UE et de ses matières	Cours: 00h00 TD : 7h30 TP: 00h00 Travail personnel : 06h00
Crédits et coefficients affectés à l'UE et à ses matières	UE : UEF 1.2.1 crédits : 10 Matière 1: Compréhension et Expression Écrite 2 Crédits : 6 Coefficient : 4 Matière 2 : Compréhension et Expression et Orale 2 Crédits : 4 Coefficient : 2
Mode d'évaluation	Continu et Examen
Description des matières	Compréhension et Expression Écrite et Orale 2 : renforcer les capacités de compréhension et d'expression à l'écrit et à l'oral.

Semestre: 3ème Semestre

UE: Unité d'Enseignement Fondamentale 1

Répartition du volume horaire de l'UE et de ses matières	Cours : 00h00 TD : 7h30 TP: 00h00 Travail personnel : 06h00
Crédits et coefficients affectés à l'UE et à ses matières	UE: UEF 2.1.1 crédits: 10 Matière 1 : Compréhension et Expression Écrite 3 Crédits : 6 Coefficient : 4 Matière 2 : Compréhension et Expression et Orale 3 Crédits : 4 Coefficient : 2
Mode d'évaluation	Continu et Examen
Description des matières	Compréhension et Expression Écrite et Orale 3 : renforcer les capacités de compréhension et d'expression à l'écrit et à l'oral.

Semestre: 4ème Semestre

UE: Unité d'Enseignement Fondamentale 1

Répartition du volume horaire de l'UE et de ses matières	Cours : 00h00 TD : 7h30 TP: 00h00 Travail personnel : 06h00
Crédits et coefficients affectés à l'UE et à ses matières	UE : UEF 2.2.1 crédits : 10 Matière 1: Compréhension et Expression Écrite 4 Crédits : 6 Coefficient : 4 Matière 2 : Compréhension et Expression et Orale 4 Crédits : 4 Coefficient : 2
Mode d'évaluation	Continu et Examen
Description des matières	Compréhension et Expression Écrite et Orale 4 : renforcer les capacités de compréhension et d'expression à l'écrit et à l'oral.

III - Programme détaillé par matière

Semestre : 1er Semestre

UE: Unité Fondamentale 1

Matière 2 : Compréhension et Expression Orale 1

Objectifs de l'enseignement *(Décrire ce que l'étudiant est censé avoir acquis comme compétences après le succès à cette matière – maximum 3 lignes).*

Connaissances préalables recommandées

Compréhension

- développer chez l'étudiant des facultés d'écoute et d'hiérarchisation des contenus
- reconnaitre des intonations pour réagir
- construire le sens d'un message oral
- adopter une attitude d'écoute sélective pour repérer une information
- comprendre un vocabulaire fréquent en rapport avec des situations de la vie courante

Expression

- interagir dans différentes situations de la vie courante.
- prendre part à une discussion
- donner et demander des informations
- prendre part à des échanges brefs.

Contenu de la matière :

Types d'activité

Compréhension

- écouter des messages audio
- sélectionner et hiérarchiser des informations
- identifier des voix

Expression

- exercices d'élocution
- présenter son point de vue, s'exprimer sur ses sentiments
- réagir à des situations
- répondre à des questions
- résumer, synthétiser, reformuler
- poser des questions pour se renseigner
- débattre à propos de sujets familiers

Contenus

Compréhension

- le rythme
- la pause
- la prosodie
- l'intonation
- les marques de l'énonciation
- le schéma de la communication

Expression

- les actes de parole
- exercice de diction, d'élocution

Semestre: 2ème Semestre

UE: Unité d'Enseignement Fondamentale 1

Matière 2 : Compréhension et Expression Orale 2

Objectifs de l'enseignement (*Décrire ce que l'étudiant est censé avoir acquis comme compétences après le succès à cette matière – maximum 3 lignes).*

Connaissances préalables recommandées

Compréhension

-Saisir l'essentiel de messages simples et clairs

-parler spontanément (exemple : prendre part à une discussion sans préparation préalable)

-comprendre des expressions

-comprendre l'essentiel de messages audio et vidéo sur des sujets d'actualité.

Expression

-interagir dans des situations de communication sur des sujets d'actualité

-s'exprimer en continu pour exposer et développer brièvement une idée et aborder des sujets d'actualité en utilisant des phrases simples et cohérentes

-prendre part spontanément à une conversation sur des sujets familiers et d'intérêt personnel.

Contenu de la matière :

Types d'activité

Compréhension
- écouter des émissions radiophoniques et télévisuelles
- formuler des hypothèses de sens.

Expression
- s'adresser à un auditoire de façon adaptée

Contenus

Compréhension
- les registres de langue
- les expressions idiomatiques

Expression
- annonces
- exposés
- débit
- registre de langue

Mode d'évaluation : Continu et examen

Semestre: 3ème Semestre

UE: Unité d'Enseignement Fondamentale 1

Matière 2 : Compréhension et Expression Orale 3

Objectifs de l'enseignement (*Décrire ce que l'étudiant est censé avoir acquis comme compétences après le succès à cette matière – maximum 3 lignes).*

Connaissances préalables recommandées

Compréhension
-comprendre des messages longs et variés
-saisir le contenu d'un échange verbal (thème, principaux arguments, enjeux, …etc.)

Expression

-produire des messages longs et variés
-produire des échanges verbaux en interaction
-défendre son opinion
-s'exprimer

Contenu de la matière :

Types d'activité

Compréhension
- écoute de conférences
- écoute d'allocutions de personnalités politiques, académiques, …etc.

Expression
- scènes mimées
- l'exposé
- le débat
- Défendre une thèse
- l'entretien
- la table ronde

Contenus

Compréhension
- Saynètes
- sketch
- monologues
- des pièces de théâtre
- discours académiques

Expression
- annonces

- exposés
- débit
- registre de langue

Mode d'évaluation: Continu et examen.

Références *(Livres et polycopiés, sites internet, etc)* :

Semestre: 4ème Semestre

UE: Unité d'Enseignement Fondamentale 1

Matière 1: Compréhension et Expression orale 4

Objectifs de l'enseignement *(Décrire ce que l'étudiant est censé avoir acquis comme compétences après le succès à cette matière – maximum 3 lignes).*

Connaissances préalables recommandées

Compréhension

- comprendre des messages longs et variés
- saisir le contenu d'un échange verbal (thème, principaux arguments, enjeux, …etc.)

Expression

- produire des messages longs et variés
- produire des échanges verbaux en interaction
- défendre son opinion
- s'exprimer

Contenu de la matière :

Types d'activité

Compréhension

- écoute de conférences
- écoute d'allocutions de personnalités politiques, académiques, …etc.

Expression

- scènes mimées
- l'exposé
- le débat
- Défendre une thèse
- l'entretien
- la table ronde

Contenus

Compréhension

- Saynètes
- sketch
- monologues
- des pièces de théâtre
- discours académiques

Expression

- annonces
- exposés
- débit
- registre de langue

Mode d'évaluation: Continu et examen

Références *(Livres et polycopiés, sites internet, etc)* :

Appendix B

Needs Analysis Survey

1.Age : ……..years old.

2.Gender :

2.1 Female

2.2 Male

3. How many years have you studied English ?.....

4. How would you rate your overall English proficiency ?

4.1 Poor

4.2 Fair

4.3 Good

4.4 Excellent

5. On which basis have you decided about the previous selection ?

……
……
……
……
……
……
……

6. How would you rate your proficiency in each of the subsequent skills ?

	Poor	Fair	Good	Excellent
Listening				
Speaking				
Reading				
Writing				

7. Have you been abroad ?

7.1 Yes

7.2 No

8. Do you have any other education or work experience from overseas ?

8.1Yes (Please, specify) …….

8.1 No

Part Two: Learners' Communication Needs

1-Do you communicate in English outside the institutional setting ?

1.1Yes

1.2 No

1.3 Why ?

……
……
……
……
……
……
……

2-In which form do you communicate more ?

2.1 Oral

2.2 Written

2.3 Why ?

……
……
……
……
……
……
……

3-Do you consider oral communication important ?

3.1 Yes

3.2 No

3.3 Why ?

……
……
……
……
……
……

4-What strategies do you use in oral communication ?

……
……

……
……
……
……
…

5-What elements are required to express yourself effectivelly in oral form ?

……
……
……
……
……
……
……

6-Do you speak with other people in English ?

6.1Yes

6.2 No

6.3 Why ?

……
……
……
……
……
……
……

7-Write some problems or difficulties that you face in oral communication.

……
……
……
……
……
……
…

8-What are the possible solutions to the above problems ?

……
……
……
……
……

……
…

9-In your oral communication you prefer (you can circle more than one option)

9.1To describe

9.2To narrate

9.3To present

9.4To support

9.5Why ?

……
……
……
……
……
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…

10-What are your preferred topics in conversations or in oral defenses ?

……
……
……
……
……
……
…

11-Would you participate in a speaking program oriented to improve your oral production ?

11.1Yes

11.2 No

11.3Why ?

……
……
……
……
……
……
……

Appendix C

Teachers' Interview

1. How many years have you taught OE?
2. Is this module beneficial to LLs anf from which perspective is it so?
3. What can you say about freshmen' and seniors' oral ability?
4. What are the main problems that LLs suffer from when communicating orally?
5. What are the main aspects of language that you would like to highlight while teaching this module ?
6. What do you do to improve your LLs' accuracy and fluency?
7. Conversation classes have become a major concern in today's communication language teaching. What do you do to promote your LLs' conversational competence/ interactional knowledge?
8. How ca you help your LLs to circumvent communication problems/ breakdowns and keep the communication channel open?
9. To cope with performance problems, are CSs taught in your classes?
10. How do you teach them?
11. What types of CSs do you teach?
12. Do you have an official programme to follow or do you design your own one?
13. How do you assess your LLs' oral performance (assessment scale)?

Appendix D

COLT (Classroom Observation) Scheme

Part A

Activity Type		**Participant Organization**			**Content**							**Student Modality**					**Materials**								
Authentic	Non-authentic	Whole class	Group work	Individual work	Explicit focus on language				Topic control																
					FM	FC	DC	SL	T	S	Shared	L	S	R	W	All	Type Of Ms			Purpose of Ms			Use of Ms		
																	TX	Au	Vis	Pg	Spg	Mpg	HC	SC	MC

Part B : Communicative Features

Use of the Target Language			**Information Gap**		**Sustained Speech**			**Reaction to Code or Message**		**Incorporation of Preceding Utterances**						**Discourse Initiation**		**Relative Restriction of linguistic Form**		
L1	L2	TL	Predictable	Unpredictable	UM	M	SS	Correctness	Meaningfulness	NI	RP	PP	CT	EP	EB	Self-IT	No-IT	RS Use	LM Use	UNR Use

Appendix E

Treatment Lessons

Appendix F

Self-report Strategy Questionnaire

A.How useful you think each of them is					The Description of The Communication Strategy	B. How often you use each of them :				
1.not useful	2.Least useful	3.neutral	4.useful	5.most useful		1.never	2. rarely	3. sometime	4.often	5.most often
					1.I leave the message unfinished because of some language difficulty.					
					2. I reduce the message by avoiding certain language structures or topics considered problematic languagewise or leaving out some intended elements for a lack of linguistic resources.					
					3. I substitute the original message with a new one because of not feeling capable of executing it.					
					4. I include L1 (or another language) words with L1 (or another language) pronunciation in L2 speech; this may involve stretches of discourse ranging from single words to whole chunks and even complete turns.					
					5.I use a single alternative lexical item, such as a superordinate or a related term, that shares semantic features with the target word or structure.					
					6. I extend a general, 'empty' lexical item to contexts where specific words are lacking.					
					7. I leave a gap when not knowing a word and carry on as if it had been said.					
					8. I use a L1 (or another language) word by adjusting it to L2 phonology (i.e., with a L2 pronunciation) or morphology.					
					9. I create a nonexisting L2 word by applying a supposed L2 rule to an existing L2 word.					
					10. I translate literally a lexical item, an idiom, a compound word, or a structure from L1 (or another language) to L2.					
					11.I abandon the execution of a verbal plan because of language difficulties, leaving the utterance unfinished and communicating the					

					intended message according to an alternative plan.					
					12. I exemplify, illustrate, or describe the properties of the target object or a action.					
					13.I create a nonexisting L2 word by compounding words.					
					14.I turn to the interlocutor for assistance by asking an explicit question concerning a gap in one's L2 knowledge.					
					15. I try to elicit help from the interlocutor indirectly by expressing lack of a needed L2 item either verbally or nonverbally.					
					16. I change certain grammatical specifications of the 'lemma' through transfer or overgeneralization.					
					17. I use simplified grammar in the belief that the interlocutor will be able to reconstruct the grammatical meaning from the context.					
					18. In an attempt to retrieve and articulate a lexical item, I say a series of incomplete or wrong forms or structures before reaching the optimal form.					
					19. I compensate for a lexical item whose form for me is unsure of with a word (existing or nonexisting) that sounds more or less like the target item (e.g., smelt for melt).					
					20. I swallow or mutter inaudibly a word (or a part of a word) whose correct from I am uncertain about.					
					21. I remain silent while thinking.					
					22. I use nonlexicalized filled pauses (e.g., er, uh, mhm).					
					23. I lengthen a sound in hesitations.					
					24. I use filling words or gambits to fill pauses, to stall, and to gain time in order to keep the communication channel open and maintain discourse at times of difficulty.					
					25.I repeat a word or a string of words immediately after they were said.					
					26.I repeat something the interlocutor said to gain time.					
					27. I make self-initiated corrections of accidental lapses in my own speech.					
					28.I correct inappropriate or inadequate information in my own speech.					
					29. I change the original speech plan by encoding different information.					

					30. I repeat the slightly modified version of a word or phrase (by adding something or using paraphrase) because of uncertainty about its correctness.						
					31.I ask questions to check that the interlocutor can follow me.						

					32. I check that what I said was correct by asking a concrete question or repeating a word with a question intonation.						
					33. I request repetition when not hearing or understanding something properly.						
					34. I request explanation of an unfamiliar meaning structure.						
					35. I express that I did not understand something properly either verbally or nonverbally.						
					36.I request confirmation that I heard or understood something correctly.						
					37. I use an ‘extended paraphrase’ of the interlocutor’s message to check that I have understood correctly.						
					38.I correct something in the interlocutor’s speech.						
					39. I make an attempt to carry on the conversation in spite of not understanding something by pretending to understand.						

Thank you very much for your cooperation

Lesson One : Introductory Session
Lesson Focus : Language Use
Learning Objectives : by the end of the lesson, SWBAT
Target Competences : interact – interpret – produce
Target Structures :
Materials : handouts

Cross-curricular Competences/ Skills

1- Intellectual :
2- Methodological :
3- Communicative :
4- Social and personal :

Time	Framework	Programme's stages	Procedures	Interaction Focus	objectives	Aids	VAKT
	Warm-up		**Task 1 :** You are talking to someone, either in your native language (L1) or in a second/ foreign language, what do do you do if : 1-you do not know the exact word for an object ? 2- you are not sure you have understood what your partner has just said ? 3- you want ti change the topic of the conversation ? 4-do you think you would behave differently if you were using your L1 or an L2 ? why ? why not ? The teacher speaks about the importance of communication in the foreing language and				

	Presentation		highlights the factof linguistic deficiencies that FL learners almost face. She gives the students a number of CSs definitiond by different researchers (Corder, 1983 ; Faerch and Kasper, 1983b ; Bialystok, 1983 ; Bialystok, 1990 ; Poulisse et al., 1984, Tarone, 1983) and asks the learners to consider these definitions on the light of these quesies : A.what features do they seem to share ? B.what major differences, if any, do you think you could identify ? *Comments* 1.the traditional view : CSs are a response to a problem (Corder, 1983). 2. This problem can be phonological, lexical, syntactic, sociolinguistic/ sociocultural and pragmatic difficulties (i.e., any aspect of the linguistic system which makes communication or every impossible to achieve) (Faerch and Kasper, 1983 b). 3. That is, there is a deficiency or limitation in the language learner or user, since his present level of knowledge is not adequate for the expression of the intended meaning, and this is exacly what prompts him/ her to have recourse to a 'strategy' (Tarone, 1983). 4. This view implies that strategies become relevant to a language learner/ user only in so far as a problem is perceived (i.e., they do not usually play a role, or are indeed relevant, if no problem is				

			encountered) (Bialystok, 1983). 5. Definition 6 specifies the phase (planning phase) in oral production when strategies become relevant. 6. In contrast t o this view, which sees strategies as strictly individual plans in response to personal shortcomings, definition 3 focuses on the joint effort of both interlocutors to establish a common meaning, again when the relevant 'meaning structures' do not seem to be shared. - The problem, in this view, is seen as a gap between the levels of knowledge of both parties involved, and is managed through a mutual attempt at reaching an agreement. - L1 speakers can also have recourse to strategies since communication problems are not an exclusive feature of situations involving an L2. - The very concept of problem is related to both speakers interlocutor (negotiated strategies). 7. Strategies are not equivalent of all problem-solving devices, i.e., problem management in communuication in which strategies become just a sort of sub-category within this larger unit of study – some taxonomy of CSs have included meaning negotiation and repair mechanisms as trouble-shooting and problem-solving mechanisms. To conclude : -Not all researchers have viewed CSs as problem-solving behaviour. - Strategies have also indeed been considered as				

	Practice		the normal, standard way of managing oral interaction, i.e., all language use could be considered ‘strategic’, in the scene that using a language necessarily implies selecting, from a range of available ways and means, those that are particularly well-suited and functional to the purpose to be achieved, i.e., it is more a problem of adjusting to the situation than merely of ‘compensating’ for a deficiency. - Strategy use is sensitive to the context of the interaction as well as relevant to all interactants and not just as a response to an individual speaker’s perception of a problem. *Task 2 :* Consider the following examples of interaction between a native speaker (NS) and a non-native speaker (NNS) : -what problem(s) are they experiencing in each case ? - what strategies do they use to manage the problem ? - what other strategies do you think they could use ? *Scene 1* NNS : excuse me ? NS : yes ? NNS : I need a..a.. tire..bouchon.. NS : I beg your pardon ? NNS : A.. the thing you use to open a bollte of wine..				

			NS : Ah, you mea, a corkscrew ? NNS : Yes, that's right. Scene Explanation : The NNs does not know the exact word for an object. First, he resorts to another language (tire-bouchon), but the NS does not follow him. So the NS builds a definition using a very general word (thing) in the phrase (the thing you use to..). and when the NNs supplies the precise word, the NNS confirms (yes, that's right !). *Technical term* : **Circumlocution** *Scene 2* NS : don's turn right at the first conjuction, take the second on your right, then first left, then left again at the round-about. NNS : Er.. can you speak slowly, please ? NS : yes, .. I said, take the second on your right.. then take the second road on your left.. and then, when you reach the roundabout, turn left again. NNS : so.. second on the right, then left, and then left again..is that right ? NS : yes, tha's it. *Explanation :* The NNS can't follow of the NS's talk, so he asks for help (can you speak slowly, please ?). the NS repeats the directions, reducing the speed and adding a few extra words to make the meaning even clearer. The NNS summarizes what he has heard and asks the NS to confirm (is that right ?), which the NS does.				

			Technical terms : **appeal for help and asking for confirmation**. *Scene 3* NNS : I'd like two of these..(points to cakes in the window). NS : the chocolate buns ? NNS : No (shakes his head and looks to the right).. the white ones. NS : the vanilla ones. *Explanation :* The NNS does not know the words for vanilla buns, so he first points to them. When the NNS refers to the wong items (chocolate buns), he uses non-verbal language (shakes his head and looks to the right) and at the same time adds adds a description (the white ones). Technical term : **non-linguistic devices/ strategies**. *Outcomes of the scenes* 1.CSs are used to manage/ solve a wide range of linguistic, sociolinguistic or pragmatic, and (inter)cultural problems. 2.The person experiencing the problem may try to solve it directly and/ or may explicitly appeal to his/ her partner help. However, it is important to note that the problem is usually solved through a cooperative action from both partners in the conversation. 3.CSs imply the use of both linguistic resources (L1, L2, L3, foreign languages), and extra-				

	Use / Produc		linguistic means (i.e., non-verbal language as gestures, eye contact, facial expressions). 4. problems and strategies are not exceptional events in oral interaction but part of the interlocutors' repertoire to manage the conversation by constantly negotiating meanings and intentions. Students are asked to recite some of the scenes in which they found themselves run out language and what they did to save the flow of conversations from communication breakdowns.				

Lesson One : *Circumlocution*
Lesson focus : Language use
Learning objectives : By the end of the lesson, SWBAT : understand the concept of circumlocution ; discuss the advantages and usefulness of circumlocution and practise using this very strategy.
Target competences : **interact** – interpret – **produce**

Target structures :
Materials : communication strategy sheet ; transcript of conversations that contain sample dialogue and model of circumlocution and list of input about circumlocution.

Cross-curricular Competences/ Skills

1- Intellectual :
2- Methodological :
3- Communicative :
4- Social and personal :

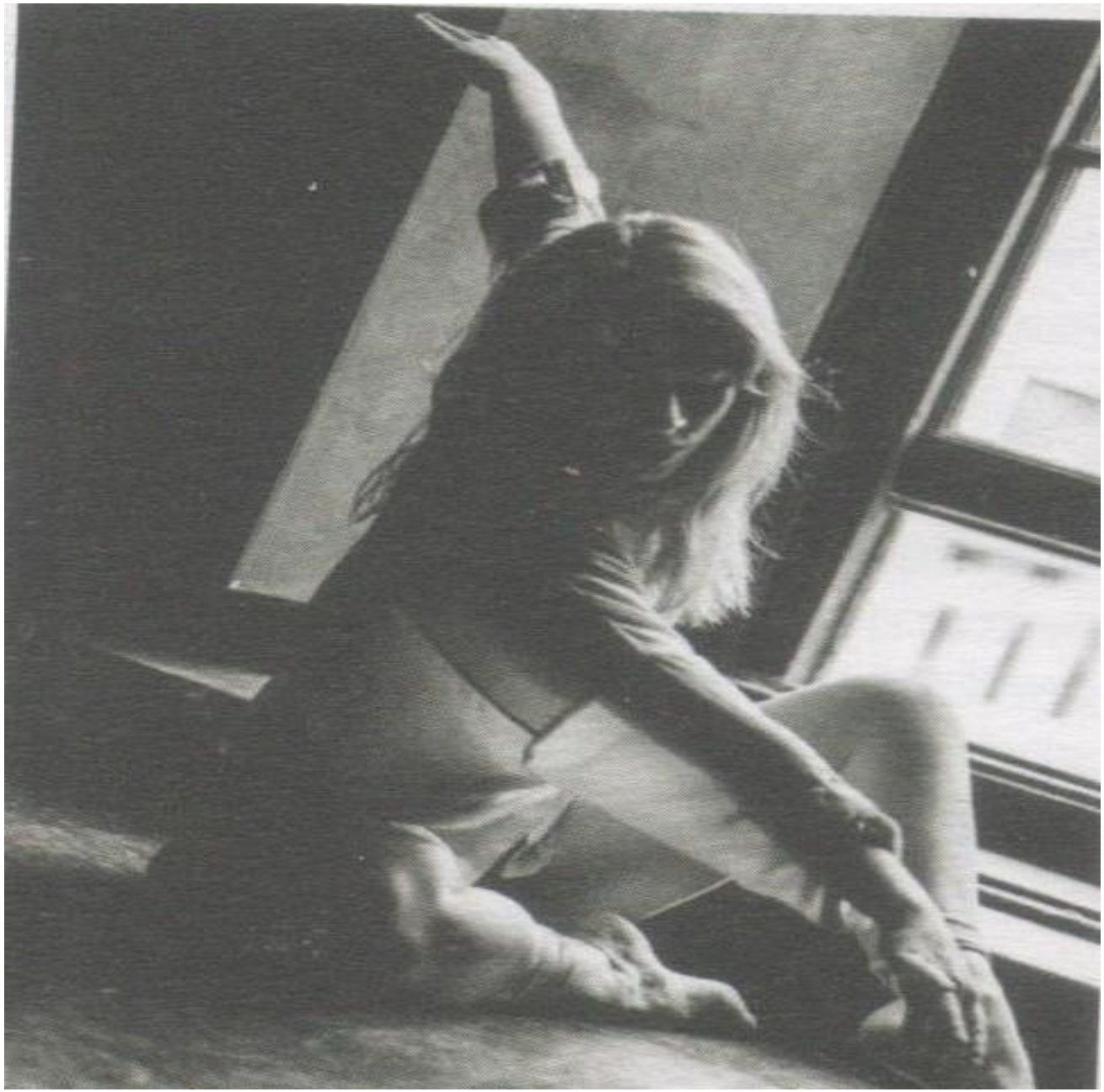
Time	Frame work	Programme's Stages	Procedures	Interaction Focus	Objectives	Aids	VAKT
	Warm up Raising learner awareness about the nature and communicatice potential of circumlocution		Review of the previous lesson about CSs and their usefulness. -discussion with LLs about what people can do when they have forgotten or do not have an important word in English. - the teacher starts by explaining 'paraphrase strategy' which basically involves searching his knowledge of the target vocabulary to find an alternative to the expression that he needs. He can do this broadly in one of the two ways : A.One thing he can do is to look for some kind of vocabulary item – say a synonym or a more general word. This is might call a 'lexical substitution strategy' (e.g., 'animal' is superordinate for 'dog', 'cat', 'cow', etc). B. Alternatively, he can try to assemble some sort of phrase to explain his concept. This we might call 'circumlocution'. *Explanation* : To compensate for the loss of information with the more general word, we may find ourselves adding a 'circumlocution', e.g., 'it's on the bit of furniture over by the window'. If he uses circumlocution, the speaker is simply going to express his meaning in several words instead of the one he intended. Examples,				

		Encouraging students to be willing to	E.g 1., It has waste basket, it has a basket who probably serves for buying things in the market = a shopping basket. Eg 2 : a mixing of beige and brown = light brown Eg 3 : some brushes… that, probably they are using them for… for…for… keeping their clothes, without dust = clothes brushes -A lot of what we say in a foreign language may well appear to be circumlocution to native speakers, because we do not always know or recall at the moment of speaking the normal expression. With resource expansion or achievement strategies, the learners risk failure and attempt to remain in the conversation, conveying their messages by compensating somehow for their deficiencies. Such strategies are either co-operative or non-co-operative : the former involve the learner's appeal for help to his/ her interlocutor. This can take a direct form (eg, questions like 'what do you call.. ?'), or can be indirect (eg, by means of a pause, eye gaze, etc). the latter tries to overcome the problem drawing on his own resoueces. He/ she may use paraphrase or 'circumlocution', i.e., describing or exemplifying the target object or action ; eg, the thing you open wine bottles with for 'corkscrew' or small fast military plane for 'fighter'. Resource expension strategies are not, of course, restricted to L2 use. Tarone and Yule (1989) found, for example, that circumlocution occured more often in the speech of native speakers than in that of non-native speakers. Thus, LLs were encouraged to manipulate available language without being afraid of making errors. Example 1 : Whisk : 1. Device (usu made of coiled wire) for whipping eggs, cream, etc. 2. Small brush made from a bunch of grass, twigs, bristles, etc tied to a handle : a fly-whisk. 3. Quick light brushing movement (e.g., of a horse's tail).				

		take risks and use circumlocution	Example 2 : Here the teacher asks her students to consider the subsequent situations and discuss the problems the speakers encounter as well as how they solve the problems. A :Well, I can't remember the word…'the thing you open bottles with' ? B :Is it 'corkscrew' ? A :That's it ! (A doesn't know the word for 'corkscrew'). Example 3 : A :I stay alone in that house. I feel lonely sometimes. B :maybe you need a..a… A : A friend ? B :No, ..a dog or a cat to stay with, some kinds of animals ? A :Well, that's a good idea. But I sometimes visit my mom and stay with her for a long time. So who will take care of my pet ? (B can-t think of the word 'pet').				
		Providing L2 models of the use of circumlocution	Explain differences in the frequent use of circumlocution in LLs' L1 (Arabic) and English.				

		Highlighting cross-cultural differences in circumlocution use Teaching circumlocution	The teacher presents a list containing linguistic devices to verbalize circumlocution : A kind of/ sort of…. It's a kind of /sort of….. Something which you (can) …(with). The thing you can use for…. The thing you can … (with). It's what you …(with). Someone/ the person who… It's a bit like… It's when you… You do/ say it when… It's something/ the kind of thing you do/ say when… -Then, students are asked to practise these devices by paraphrasing a number of nouns for others to guess the word. -The teacher hands out a slip of paper to each student with the name of an object/ and its picture (cut out of magazines) on each slip (pumpkin, trumpet,cookies, ballet, hooded-man, feather, leopard, surgeon, care-taker, prune, chilli, choir, tweezers, chop-sticks, parachute, fire-fighter). -Everybody in turn must try to 'explain' their word to the others without actually saying what it is. -Care should be taken to find pictures of objects that the learner does not know the L2 word for. -Students jot down their guesses for all the words. -The winner is the person whose word has been found out by the most students.				

		directly



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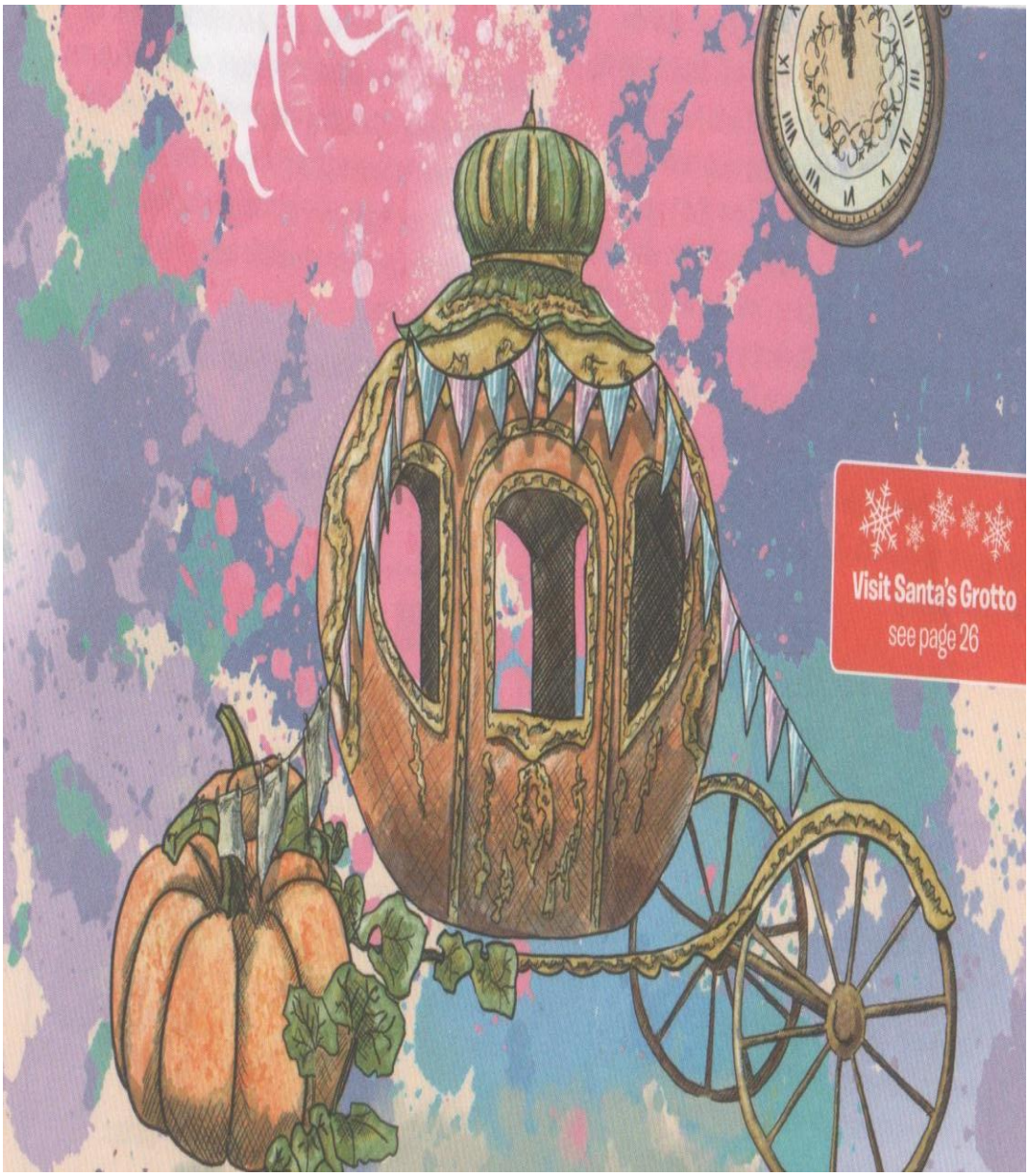
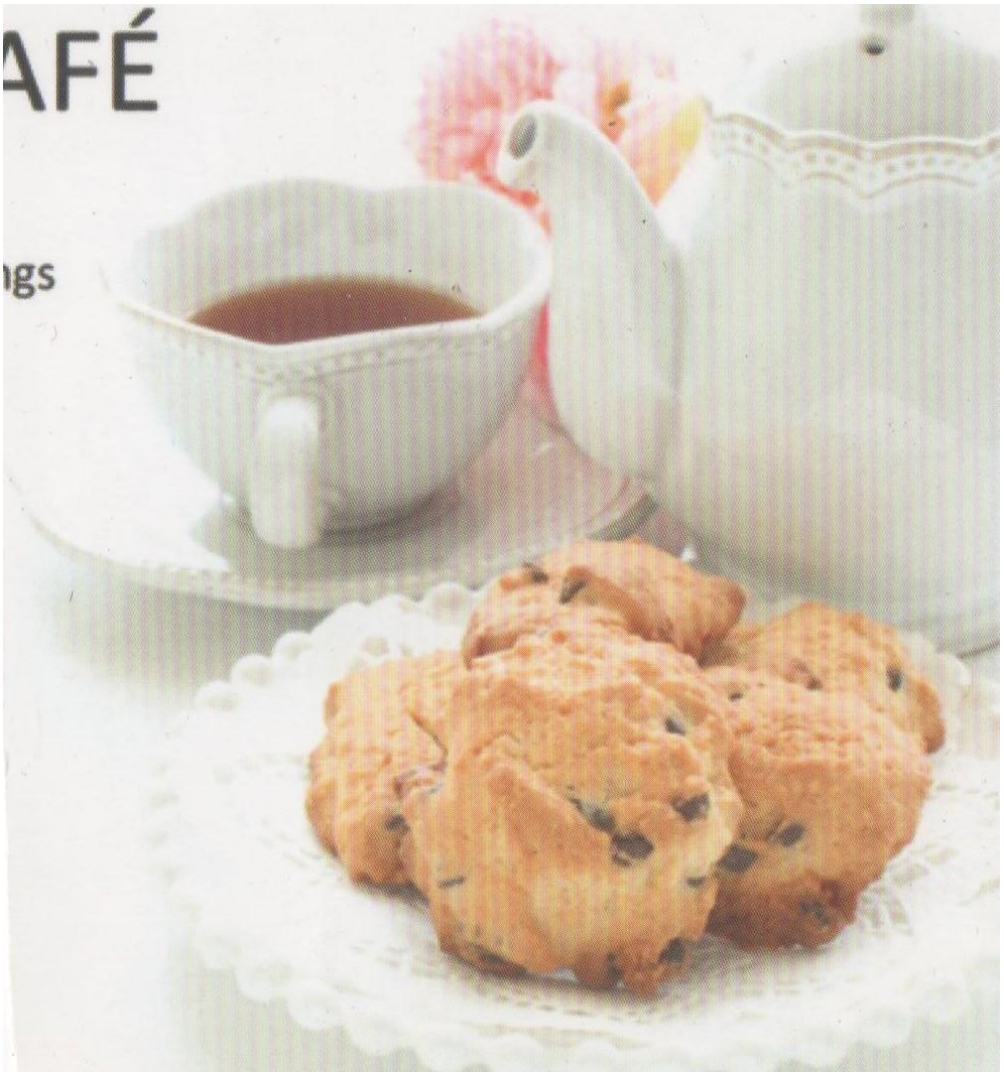

Visit Santa's Grotto
see page 26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Lesson Two :Appeal for help
Language focus : language use
Learning objectives : SWAT develop strategies to ask for help from a communication partner when in difficulty.
Target competences : interact – interpret – produce.
Target structures :
Materials :

Cross-curricular competences

1. Intelectual :
2. Methodological :
3. Communicative :
4. Social and personal :

Time	Framework	Programme's stages	Procedure	Interaction focus	Objectives	Aids	V K
	Warm up	Raising learner awareness about the nature and communicative potential of 'appeal for help'	Review of the previous session. Ask students what sort of questions they can ask/ what they do if they have forgotten or do not know a word and cannot think of a synonym. Introduce and explain 'appeal for help', its definition and usefulness (In using 'appeal for help', you ask for aid from the interlocutor either directly or indirectly). Example : Consider the subsequent example. How do these speakers solve their problems when they have forgotten an English word for something ? (A can't think of the word 'nurse' in English)				
		Encouraging	A : did you tell the …er… I can't remember the word for				

		students to be willing to take risks and use ‘appeal for help’ Providing L2 models of the use of ‘appeal for help’ Higlighting	the person who takes care of patients…what do you call her ?...the women in white…what’s the word ? B : Nurse ? A : That’s it ! did you tell the nurse ? -Here the teacher also highlights the difference between ‘appeal for help’ and ‘circumlocution’. The teacher explains differences in the frequent use of ‘appeal for help’ in the students’ L1 and English. The teachers supplies the subsequent input : vocabulary and sentence structures for ‘appeal for help’. What (do/ would) you call (it ; someone who… ? the thing which… ?) What’s the word for…/ to describe (it) ? How (do/would) you say… ? I can’t remember/ I’ve forgotten the word for… ? What’s the name of… ? Work in pairs. Speaker A will pretend not to remember certain words. S/he will try to elicit these words from speaker B by asking questions and asking for help. Then you will change roles so that the other speaker can have a chance to practise using this strategy.				

		cross-cultural differences in the use of ‘appeal for help’ Teaching ‘appeal for help’ directly Providing opportunities for practice in ‘appeal for help’					

Lesson Three : Fillers
Language focus : language use
Learning objectives :SWABT learn and practise using 'fillers' and 'hesitation devices'
Target competences : interact – interpret – produce.
Target structures :
Materials :

Cross-curricular competences

1. **Intelectual :**
2. **Methodological :**
3. **Communicative :**
4. **Social and personal :**

Time	Framework	Programme's stages	Procedures	Interaction focus	Objectives	Aids	VAKT
	Warm up	Raising learner awareness about the nature and communicative potential of 'fillers' and 'hesitation devices' Encouraging students to be willing to take risks and use 'fillers'	Review of the previous sessions. -The teacher begins by asking students questions as : 'what were you doing last Friday at 11 :15 a.m. ? or where did you spend the summer seven years ago ? - they are unlikely to be able to answer immediately and will probably stammer, laugh, lapse, silence or say 'I don't know'. -one way to react to difficult questions is to use certain filling words or phrases to gain some time to think. -The teacher gets the learners to ask each other difficult questions so that they can practise using fillers.				

		Providing L2 models of the use of ‘fillers’ Highlighting cross-cultural differences in the use of ‘fillers’ Teaching ‘fillers’ directly	-The teacher points out that a combination of several fillers sounds more like a native speaker and gives them even more time to think. The teacher asks the learners to consider these examples of pause fillers and hesitation devices used by speakers. Example 1 : A : why haven’t you done your homework ? B :well,…er, you see, it’s like this…now, where shall I start ? Example 2 : A : so what are you 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… The teacher explains differences in the frequent use of ‘fillers’ in students’ L1 and English. The teacher presents the following :				

		Providing opportunities for practice in the use of 'fillers'	Well… Um…./Er…. Actually…. You know…/ you see…I see. I/ you mean… As a matter of fact… Let's see (now) Now let me think/ see… I'll have to think about it. Frankly,… To be (quite) honest/ frank… In fact,… I wonder…Hang on. The thing is… I see what you mean… Sort of … That sort/ kind of thing…It's like this, you see… Right then …Let's say… What I'm trying to say is… (Now) where should I start That's a good/ very interesting question. What would I say is… How shall I put it ? Let's put it this way… The best way I can answer that is… I ('ll) tell you what… Task 1 : Try to answer the subsequent queries : 1.What was the stupidest thing you ever did ? 2.What's the best thing you ever gave to someone ? 3.What do you want most in the world ? 4.What would you like to change about yourself if you could ? Task 2 : how are you going to introduce the				

			subsequent situations to your partner (interlocutor) ? Situation1 : there is a hole in one of the speakers' trousers. Situation2 : one of the speakers' flies are open. Situation 3 : someone has got a jumper on inside out. Situation 4 : someone has trodden in something revolting. Situation 5 : there is a mark on one of the speakers' shirt, blouse, etc.				

Lesson Four : Self-correction
Language focus : language use
Learning objectives :SWABT learn and practise using self-repair.
Target competences : interact – interpret – produce.
Target structures :
Materials :

Cross-curricular competences

1. **Intelectual :**
2. **Methodological :**
3. **Communicative :**
4. **Social and personal :**

Time	Framework	Programme's stages	Procedure	Interaction focus	Objectives	Aids	VAKT
	Warm up		Review of the previous sessions.				
		Raising learner awareness about the nature and communicative potential of self-correction'	The teacher discusses with students what people can do when they make oral mistakes.				
		Encouraging students to be willing to take risks and use 'self-repair'	The teacher introduces and explains self-repair, its definition and usefulness. In using self-repair, you make self-initiated corrections in your own speech.				
		Providing L2	The teacher asks learners to consider				

		models of the use of 'self-repair'	these examples : Example1 : A : …Vietnam was part of France no it was a French colony. B : Yes. French colony. Example 2 : A : and in class during the day is that what you work on ? B : No we work on language we work on grammar we work ! A : Yep yep from a text book ? B : Um… no they give some hand-in Ah … hand-out.				
		Highlighting cross-cultural differences in the use of 'self-repair'	The teacher explains differences in the frequent use of 'self-repair' in the students' L1 and English.				
		Providing opportunities for practice in the use of 'self-repair'	Activity : You will interview your interlocutor and find out how s/he deals with oral mistakes.				

Lesson Five : Comprehension checks
Language focus : language use
Learning objectives :SWABT learn and practise ‘comprehension checks’
Target competences : interact – interpret – produce.
Target structures :
Materials :

Cross-curricular competences
1. Intelectual :
2. Methodological :
3. Communicative :
4. Social and personal :

Time	Framework	Programme’s stages	Procedure	Interaction focus	Objectives	Aids	VAKT
	Warm up		Review of the previous sessions				
		Raising learner awareness about the nature and communicative potential of ‘comprehension checks’	The teacher discusses with the learners what people can do when they want to check their understanding of the other person’s words.				
		Encouraging students to be willing to take risks and use ‘comprehension checks’	The teacher explains that the best think to do when you are not sure whether your partner can follow what you are saying is to ask them. In using comprehension checks, you ask the questions to check whether the interlocutor understands what you said or not.				

		Providing L2 models of the use of 'comprehension checks'	The teacher presents these situations and asks the learners to consider them. Example1 : A : So before we go to library, let's find something to eat at SUSU Café, and when Susan comes, we'll go to the library together. Is that clear ? B : Mmm… So what you're saying is that we're going to spend the whole day in the library ? A : Oh, Tom, don't misunderstand me ! It's not the whole day ! We can leave before 4p.m.				
		Highlighting cross-cultural differences in the use of 'comprehension checks'	The teacher explains differences in the frequent use of 'comprehension checks' in the students' L1 and English.				
		Teaching 'comprehension checks' directly	The teacher presents the subsequent list of vocabulary and word structures : ***Check questions*** Ok ? Right ? Is that clear ? Are you with me ? All right ? Got/ get it ? Do you see what I mean ? Do you know what I'm getting at ? Am I making myself clear ? Have I made myself clear ? Does that make sense (to you) ? Am I making sense ? Do I make myself clear ?				

		Providing opportunities for practice in the use of 'comprehension checks'	Do I make myself understood ? Do you understand me ? ***Responses*** Mmm.. Uh-huh. (Yes,) sure. Oh, yes, go on. Of course. Yes, get on with you ! More or less, yes. Sort of… Well, not really… Er… Well…. The learners are given enough time to think about situations in which they use the above devices.				

Lesson Six : Clarification request
Language focus : language use
Learning objectives : SWBAT learn and practise asking for explanations/ clarification request/ develop strategies to ask for repetition in order to clarify meaning
Target competences : interact – interpret – produce.
Target structures :
Materials :

Cross-curricular competences

1. **Intelectual :**
2. **Methodological :**
3. **Communicative :**
4. **Social and personal :**

Time	Framework	Programme's stages	Procedure	Interaction focus	Objectives	Aids	VAKT
	Warm up		Review of the previous sessions				
		Raising learner awareness about the nature and communicative potential of 'clarification request'	To start with, the teacher turns to a student and says something which includes a very difficult or even an imaginary word. The student can ask the teacher to explain the word or another student does. This should lead to a discussion of different ways of asking for explanations. The teacher discusses with students what people can do when they do not understand or do not hear certain things and ask other people to repeat.				
		Encouraging students to be willing to take risks and use 'clarification request'	The teacher introduces the notion of 'clarification request' and its usefulness. In using clarification requests, you request the explanation of an unfamiliar meaning structure (e.g., Again, please ! or Pardon !)				

		Providing L2 models of the use of ‘clarification request’ Highlighting cross-cultural differences in the use of ‘clarification request’ Teaching ‘clarification request’ directly	The teacher asks the students to consider the subsequent situations and what speakers do to overcome their communicative problems ? Example1 : A : A man with a red hat is coming. B : Sorry, what was that again ? A : A man with a red hat is coming. B : what kind of hat ? A : Red. B : Did you say dead ? A : No, I said R E D ! B : Oh, I see. Example 2 : A : and how about you ? I found that not many teenagers like vegetables. B : Again, please ! A : I found that not many teenagers like vegetables. Do you think that not many teenagers like negetables ? The teacher explains differences in the frequent use of ‘clarification request’ in students’ L1 and English. The teacher presents the following input that deals				

		Providing opportunities for practice in the use of ‘clarification request’	with ‘clarification request’ : (I’m) sorry ? (I)(beg your) pardon ? (I’m) sorry, I didn’t (hear ; catch ; get ; understand) the (last part ; part about ; last/ first word). Sorry, what did you say ? Sorry, what was that again ? Would/ could you repeat that, please ? Would/ could you repeat what you said, please ? Could you repeat that for me, please ? Would you mind repeating that ? Sorry, can/could you say that again please ? Sorry, can/ could you repeat it more slowly ? Sorry, would you mind speaking a bit slower ? I’m sorry, I couldn’t/ didn’t hear what you said ? Sorry, did you say… ? What ? /you what ?/ where ?/ Who ?/ what kind of… ? Hang on/ just a minute, say that again ? I didn’t quite catch it. -Chain misunderstanding : students sit in a circle ; S1 turns to S2 and says something, S2 does understand this and asks S1 to repeat ; S1 repeats the sentence, S2 acknowlegdes it, then turns to S3 and repeats a distorted version of the sentence. S3 asks back, then repeats to S4 another distorted version. - The learners are asked to create situations in which they use ‘clarification request’.				

Lesson Seven : Asking for confirmation
Language focus : language use
Learning objectives : SWBAT learn and practise 'asking for confirmation'/ explore how to reformulate your message if it has not been understood/ rephrase the other person's words to check your understanding of them.
Target competences : interact – interpret – produce.
Target structures :
Materials :

Cross-curricular competences

1. Intelectual :
2. Methodological :
3. Communicative :
4. Social and personal :

Time	Framework	Programme's stages	Procedure	Interaction focus	objectives	Aids	VAKT
	Warm up		Review of the previous sessions.				
		Raising learner awreness about the nature and communicative potential of 'asking for confirmation'	The teacher discusses with students what people can do when they want to check their understanding of the other person's words. The teacher asks a student to explain to you how they come to college. At some point she looked puzzled. Then she repeats what she has heard in her own words and deliberately misunderstands something. This would cause the student to explain the route again in different words. The teacher points out that the misunderstanding here was sorted out by reformulating the message.				
		Encouraging students to be willing to take risks and use 'asking for	The teacher introduces the concept of 'asking for confirmation' and its usefulness. In using confirmation checks, you repeat the words that the interlocutor has said to confirm				

		confirmation’ Providing L2 models of the use of ‘confirmation checks’ Highlighting cross-cultural differences in the use of ‘confirmation checks’ Teaching ‘confirmation checks’ directly	what you heard is correct or not. The teacher invites the learners to consider these examples : Example : A : so before we go to Auntie Carol’s house, let’s have a drink at Uncle John’s, and when Mom comes, we’ll join the rest of the family and eat. Ok ? B : So, if I’ve got it right, we go to the pub with uncle John and your Mom, then we go and meet your family and later the two of us go to a restaurant ? A : Er… no, that’s not quite what I meant… Let me explain it more Clearly…. The teacher explains differences in the frequent use of ‘asking for confirmation’ in the students’ L1 and English. The teacher presents this list of vocalulary and sentence structures that form the essence of ‘confirmation checks’ : If I (have) understood you correctly ? You mean…, right ? Do you mean to say… ?				

		Providing opportunities for practice in the use of 'confirmation checks'	So you mean… ? Do you mean… ? Does that mean… ? What you mean is… ? What you're saying is… ? Are you saying that… ? So you're saying…. On other words, …. If I follow you rightly, then…. So am I right in saying that… So the basic idea is that ….. So the general idea is that…. The learners are asked to think about situations in which they use 'confirmation check' structures given above.				

Cross-curricular competences

1. Intelectual :

2. Methodological :
3. Communicative :
4. Social and personal :

Time	Framework	Procedure	Interaction focus	Objectives	Aids	VAKT
	Warm up Presentation (The learners' auto-input) Practice	The importance of oral communication and the use of linguistic devices to overcome communication breakdowns. The teacher discusses with the learners what the CSs they have learned and how they can use these strategies in their conversations. **Task 1** : match the CSs with their definitions. *CSs* : circumlocution, self-repair, clarification request, confirmation check, pause fillers and hesitation devices, appeal for help, comprehension check. *Definitions* : 1. You use pause fillers and hesitation devices to fill pauses and gain time to think. 2. You describe the characteristics or elements of the object or action instead of using the appropriate target item or structure. 3. You ask for aid from the interlocutor either directly or indirectly. 4. You request the explanation of an unfamiliar meaning structure/ not well-heard structure. 5. You ask questions to check whether the interlocutor understands what you said or not. 6. You make self-initiated corrections in your own speech. 7. You repeat the words that the interlocutor has said to confirm what you heard is correct or not. **Task 2** : match the CSs with the suitable phrase/ sentences.				

		CSs : circumlocution, clarification request, confirmation check, pause fillers and hesitation devices, appeal for help, comprehension check. **A/** Sorry, what did you say ? Sorry, what was that again ? Would/ could you repeat that, please ? Would/ could you repeat what you said, please ? Could you repeat that for me, please ? Would you mind repeating that ? Sorry, can/could you say that again please ? Sorry, can/ could you repeat it more slowly ? Sorry, would you mind speaking a bit slower ? I'm sorry, I couldn't/ didn't hear what you said ? **clarification request** **B/** What (do/ would) you call (it ; someone who… ? the thing which… ?) What's the word for…/ to describe (it) ? How (do/would) you say… ? I can't remember/ I've forgotten the word for… ? What's the name of… ? **Appeal for help** **C/** So you mean… ? Do you mean… ? Does that mean… ? What you mean is… ? What you're saying is… ? Are you saying that… ? So you're saying…. On other words, …. If I follow you rightly, then…. So am I right in saying that… So the basic idea is that ….. So the general idea is that…. **Asking for confirmation** **D/** Right then …Let's say… What I'm trying to say is…				

	Produce	(Now) where should I start That's a good/ very interesting question. What would I say is… How shall I put it ? Let's put it this way… The best way I can answer that is… I ('ll) tell you what… **Fillers** **E/** It's what you …(with). Someone/ the person who… It's a bit like… It's when you… You do/ say it when… It's something/ the kind of thing you do/ say when… **Circumlocution** **F/** Do you see what I mean ? Do you know what I'm getting at ? Am I making myself clear ? Have I made myself clear ? Does that make sense (to you) ? Am I making sense ? Do I make myself clear ? Do I make myself understood ? Do you understand me ? **Comprehension checks** Learners are asked to employ these seven taught strategies in the three main tasks of the study (topic description, oral interview and conversation task).				

Appendix G

Attitudinal Questionnaire

(Adapted from Kongsom, 2009)

The following queries are about your points of view of the communication strategy training. Please, write down your answers for each.

1. How did you feel when you received the communication strategy training in class.
   ……
   ……
   ……
   ……
   ……
2. Did you find the training of CSs useful ?
   ……
   ……
   ……
   ……
3. What did you like about the training of CSs ?
   ……
   ……
   ……
   ……
   ……
4. What did not you like about the training of CSs ?
   ……
   ……
   ……
   ……
   ……
5. Does the training of CSs enhance your English speaking skill ?
   ……
   ……
   ……
   .....
6. Other comments, including how the lessons we have done about CSs could have been ameliorated.
   ……
   ……
   ……
   ……
   ……

Appendix H

Themes of the Interview Task (OI) and Conversation Task (CT)

(From 'Conversation in action : Let's talk' by Rosset (1997))

Oral Interview : Each student is supposed to answer the subsequent queries on the following themes, or comment on some statements.

A. *Studying or working (p. 76)*
   1. Working is better because you get some money.
   2. Studying is better because you will get qualifications for a better job.
   3. Housewives should get a salary.
   4. Studying a language is important for a job.
   5. University students get paid for studying.

B. *Travelling (pp. 28-29)*
   1. Flying is the safest way of travelling.
   2. Walking across the continent is the best way to see the world.
   3. Do you like travelling?
   4. Have you ever been out of the country? which countries have you visited?
   5. Which way do you like ta travel?
   6. Do you like travelling alone or with other people?

C. *Driving (pp. 26-27)*
   1. Women are very bad drivers.
   2. 16 is a good age to drive a car.
   3. Can you drive? When did you learn? At what age?
   4. Do you think that driving is dangerous ? Why ?
   5. Do you think that people should learn some mechanics?
   6. What do you think of speed limits?

Conversation Task: (Same reference)

Success in life (p. 35)

Some people are successful while many others are not. Some people spend their lives trying to obtain something from life, but never get it, while others seem to convert everything they touch into gold? Experts say that success in life has nothing to do with intelligence, education, memory or surroundings. A lot of research has been done in this field to find out why a man/ a woman is successful. The results have always been puzzling. Many successful people received a good education, others received none at all. Some are intelligent, others are not. Some are handsome, some are not. On the other hand, two people who received the same education, who have similar intelligence, and who are getting the same opportunities in life, will never reach the same level of success. Very oftenone will succeed while the other will struggle through life. The answer lies, according to experts, in self-confidence. The person who believes in himself will succeed, while the person who is not confident in his/her own capability will certainly fail.

Learning a foreign language (p. 31)

What's the best age to learn a foreign language? That's the question that mothers often ask language experts. The answer, of course, is that a language should be learnt as early in life as possible. The earlier a child starts learning it the better. The next question is, how should a child learn a foreign language? Most teachers agree on that point. They say that a child should learn playing. He should regard the act of learning as a game. Playing games, singing songs and repeating aloud whole sentences is a very easy way of teaching a little child. It's incredible the retentiveness of a blank young brain. Whatever is recorded in i twill be there for life time. Grown-ups, on the other hand, need a different approach to learning. Things must be explained to them, especially grammar. They must learn the different grammar structures, must memorize the verbs and vocabulary. And in both case the person learning a language should spend a good many months or years in the country whose language he is learning.

Reading (p. 85)

Child psychologists believe that reading is one of the best habits that should be encouraged into children. 90 ⁄ of the things we learn during our lifetime come through books; therefore if we can't read, we don't learn. It's during the first years of our childhood that we should start reading. Never is the time better spent by parents as it is when getting their children to read. According to statistics, successful people come from all walks of life; rich, poor, with university background or illiterate. However, there are 2 things that most successful people have: one is a very strong will power to succeed and the other is the habit of reading. Without will power nobody will succeed, without the habit of reading nobody will get very far on the road to success.

Appendix I

Transcription Conventions

By Dresing et at, (2015)

The Underlying Transcription Rules (p. 28)

1. Transcribe literally, not phonetically.
2. Informal contractions are not to be transcribed, but approximated to written standard language ; .. keeping the same possible syntactic errors.
3. Discontinations of words or sentences as well as stutters are omitted.
   Word doublings are just kept if used for emphasis.
   Half sentences are recorded and indicated by a slash /
4. Punctuation is used for legibility
   Short drops of voice or ambiguous intonations are indicated by periods rather than commas.
   Units of meaning have to remain intact.
5. Pauses are indicated by suspension marks in parentheses (…)
6. Affirmative utterances by the interviewer, like 'uh – huh, yes, right' etc. are not transcribed.
   Exception : monosyllabic answers are always transcribed. Add an interpretation, eg., 'Mhm (affirmative)' or 'Mhm (negative)'
7. Words with special emphasis are capitalized.
8. Every contribution by a speaker receives its own paragraph.
   Short interjections also get their own paragraph
   Time stamps are inserted at the end of a paragraph
9. Emotional non-verbal utterances (laughter, sighs) are transcribed in brackets.
10. Incomprehensible words are indicated as (inc.)
    Unintelligible passages indicate the resaon (eg., inc., cell phone ringing ; microphone rustling).
    If you assume a word but you are not sure, put the word in brackets with a question mark, eg., (____ ?)
11. The interviewer is marked by 'I' :
    Interviewed person 'P'
    Several speakers (eg., in group discussions), a number or a name is added (eg., 'P1', 'Peter')
    Additional Rules (p. 30)
12. Speech overlaps are marked by //
13. Dialects are written as they are spoken.
14. Capitalize according to the English rules.
15. Idioms are transcribed literally.
16. Indirect speech is to be put between qotation marks.
17. Single letters are always capitalized.
18. Numbers between (0-12) are spelled out, larger number written as numerals

Appendix J

Informed Consent Agreement

Mouhamed Lamine Debaghine (Sétif 2) University

Faculty of Literature and Foreign Languages

Department of English Language and Literature

Title of the Reseach :

The Influence of Teaching Communication Strategies Through The Inductive Approach on Algerian EFL Learners' Intercultural Communicative Competence

Researcher : Miss S. Hadjab

Purpose of the Research :

This study is designed to investigate the impact of the direct teaching of a range of communication strategies proposed by Dörnyei and Scott (1995) on the Algerian EFL learners' ICC. The main aim behind this studyis to raise learners' awareness about these strategies. Also, this work is considered as an urgent appeal from previous studies that recommend further investigations about the teachabilility of communication studies. As being a quasi-experimental study, it aims to investigate whether the teaching of CSs through the Inductive Approach has anyeffect on the frequency of the use of these strategies. In addition, the research wants to identify the learners' self-awareness about CSs in their speaking tasks. And finally the learners' attitudes concerning this strategy training and the usefulness of leaning CSs through the direct approach is sought.

Procedures (what you will be required to do in this study)

If you volunteer to participate in this study, you will be devided into two groups : a control group and an experimental one. At first both groups will be asked to fulfill a self-report strategy questionnaire. Then both groups will perform two tasks (an interview then a speaking task battery). After, the control group (who will be deprived from the treatment phase) will be asked to perform the previously mentioned tasks (with different topics, of course). After, the experimental group will attend the intervention phase that will last about 12 weeks (with 2 sessions weekly). They will be taught explicitly about CSs and their types following an inventory based on the work of Dörnyei and Scott (1995). When the treatment comes to an end, the students in the expiremental group will be asked to perform the previous tasks. After, these students will attend to retrospective verbal reports. The last thing students of the experimental group are asked to do is to answer an attitudinal questionnaire.

Benefits to participating :

The major benefit of participating in thisstudyis to provideyouwith first-hand experience in the researchprocess and a deeper understanding about how CSs help you in improving your fluency.

Confidentiality

In this study, the information that you give will be handled confidentially. Your information will be assigned code numbers, and NO ONE will have access to your videos but me and my supervisor. And the list connecting your name to this number will be kept in a locked file. Any data collected will be used only for statistical analyses. Names will NOT be used in any report.

Potential Discomfort

Some students will not like or prefer the fact of being video-taped, but just as said earlier, NO ONE will have any access to the data just me and the supervisor. And sometimes you will be asked to perform one of the research's tasks in your days-off.

Participation and Withdrawal

Your participation in this research is voluntary. You may refuse to participate without penalty. If you decide to participate, you are ONLY allowed to leave the experimentat the elementary level (i.e, in the pretests ONLY) without penalty by just stopping and telling the investigator.

Payments to subjects for participation in research

There will be no costs for participating in the research. Also, participants will not be paid to participate in the research project.

Agreement

I agree to participate in the study described above. If you do not agree, simply do not return this form.

Your name : ……

Your signature : **Date :**

Researcher's signature : **Date :**

الملخص

يعتبر فن الكلام جزء محوري في الكفاءة التواصلية لدى متعلمي اللغة و الهدف المرجو لتعلم أية لغة أجنبية. و مع ذلك فإن المشاكل و الأعطاب اللغوية هي جزء بارز أثناء التواصل. و قد تنجم هذه المشكلات عن واحدة أو مجموعة مما يلي: (أ) عجز في المحتوى أو الخزان اللغوي, (ب) ضغط وقت المعالجة, (ج) قصور متصور في مخرجات اللغة الخاصة بالفرد المتحدث, و (د) قصور متصور في أداء المستمع. و في أي من حالات الأداء هذه, تؤدي محاولة المتعلم للتعويض عن المعرفة المفقودة أو التي يعز الوصول إليها إلى استعمال 'استراتيجيات التواصل' لأن تفوقهم التواصلي يعتمد كليا على 'قدرتهم على التواصل ضمن القيود'.و عليه, فلقد تم تصور استراتيجيات التواصل على أنها أدوات لحل المشكلات و استعمالها الواعي يؤدي إلى مواجهة غياب الإتزان بين الوسائل اللغوية للمتعلمين و غاياتهم.

تتمحور الأهداف الرئيسة للدراسة الحالية في رفع وعي متعلمي اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أجنبية حول استخدامات و فوائد استراتيجيات الإتصال و كذا تقييم تأثير التدريب المباشر لهذه الإستراتيجيات على تعزيز الكفاءة التواصلية للمتعلمين. و للبلوغ لأهداف البحث, تم إجراء تعليم قائم على استراتيجية التدخل في قسم اللغة و الأدب الإنجليزي في جامعة سطيف 2. في الدراسة الرئيسية شاركت مجموعتان سليمتان من طلاب السنة الأولى (م= 30) و طلبة السنة الثالثة (م=30). الستون مشاركا تم تعيينهم بشكل عشوائي في المجموعتين التجريبية (م=30) و المجموعتين المقارنة (م=30), و هذا لمنحهم فرصا متساوية للخضوع للتجربة.

تم تطوير استبيان استراتيجية التقرير الذاتي للتحقيق في استراتيجيات الإتصال المستخدمة من قبل المتعلمين و اكتشاف تصوراتهم حول استخدام و فائدة كل استراتيجية. كما تم استخدام المهام المركزة أحادية الإتجاه و ذات الإتجاهين لتصوير الأداء الفعلي للمتعلمين. و للحصول على معلومات معمقة عن طرق التعلم الخاصة بهم, تم استخدام 'الإستدعاء المحفز'. إختبار Wicoxon المتطابق للأزواج الموقعة تم استعماله لتحليل البيانات التي تم جمعها من استبيان التقرير الإستراتيجي الذاتي. و كان 'التحليل النمطي' هو الإجراء المتبع في تحليل استخدام الطلاب لإستراتيجيات الإتصال السبعة التي تم تدريسها. كما تم إتباع توصيات Green (1998) لتحليل البيانات اللفظية.

أظهرت النتائج أن المجموعتين التجريبيتين قد تفوقتا على المجموعتين الضابطتين. فضلا على ذلك, أسفرت الدراسة عن أهمية تقديم التدريب المباشر حول استراتيجيات الإتصال و قيمتها في زيادة وعي المتعلمين حول هذه الأدوات. كما يثبت هذا الفحص كفاءة و جدوى المنظور متعدد الأبعاد بدلا من المنظور أحادي البعد المتبع في العديد من الدراسات السابقة لأنه يعزز نقاط الضعف الكامنة في كل أداة بحث. و الأهم من ذلك, ألقت هذه الدراسة الضوء على أهمية دمج 'أهداف ما يجب تعلمه' و 'أهداف كيفية التعلم' لإنجاح تدريس اللغة الأجنبية و تعلمها في ان.

الكلمات المفتاحية: استراتيجيات الإتصال, الكفاءة الإستراتيجية,التدريب الإستراتيجي, الطريقة المباشرة, المقاربة متعددة الإتجاهات.

Résumé

L’art de parler est contemplé pour être le pivot essentiel de la compétence communicative de l’apprenant et c’est l’objectif ultime de l’apprentissage des langues

étrangères. Cependant le hoquet et les défaillances du language sont les plus importantes parties de la communication dans TL. Ces problémes peuvent provenir d'une combinaison de ce qui suit : a) le dificit des ressources, b) la pression du temps de traitement, c) les déficiences perçues sont l'une de notre production langagière, et d) les déficiences perçues dans la performance d'un interlocuteur. Dans ces situations de la performance, l'apprenant essaie de compenser les carences des connaissances inaccessibles qui résultent dans CSs mise en place comme une réussite communicative qui repose entièrement sur 'les compétences communicatives dans les limites'. Donc les stratégies de la communication sont conceptualisées comme des machines de dépannage dont la planification consciente est dirigée pour contrecarrer le déséquilibre entre les moyens et les objectifs de l'apprenant, pour mieux sensibiliser l'apprenant du EFL à l'utilité et l'utilisation du CSs, encore pour évaluer l'impact de la formation explicite du CSs sur l'amélioration des stratégies de la compétence des apprenants sont les premiers objectifs de la présente étude. Nous élaborons une étude stratégique qui repose sur des instructions, cette dernière est menée dans le Département de Langue et Litérature Anglaises, Faculté des Lettres et des Langues, Sétif 2. Deux groupes intacts de première année (N=30) et d'autre plus agés, de troixième année, (N=30) sont les participants dans la présente étude. Les 60 participants sont répartie de manière aléatoire pour les deux groupes : 30 est le comparatif groupe et 30 ont la chance d'être selectionnés pour soumettre à cette expérience. L'enquête repose sur un questionnaire pour évaluer CSs employé par les apprenants, en explorant la perception de l'utilité et l'utilisation de chaque CS. Deux genres de tâches ciblées ont été utilisée pour représenter les performances réelles des apprenants et offrir beaucoup plus d'informations de leur processus d'apprentissage, un rappel stimulé a été utilisé. Wilcoxon à paires appariées, le test non-paramétrique ont été utilisés pour analyser les données recueillies grâce à une liste de questions stratégiques. Une analyse typologique est la procédure suivie dans l'analyse par les étudiants dans l'usage des sept stratégies de réussite. Les instructions de Green (1998) pour l'analyse des données de protocole verbal sont poursuivies. Les résultat démontrent que les groupes expérimentaux surperformés ceux de contrôles. En outre l'étude a fourni des preuves à l'appui de la valeur d'introduire une formation stratégique métacognitive explicite afin de sensibiliser les apprenants au CSs. Cet examen prouve l'efficacité et la faisabilité de la perspective multidimentionelle suivi dans de nombreuses précédentes études comme elle cimente la faiblesse inhérente dans chaque instrument de recherche. Fait plus encore important, la présente enquête souligne les faits intégrants les deux 'quoi-apprendre-objectifs' et 'comment-apprendre-objectifs' dans les situations de l'enseignement et l'apprentissage des langues.

Mots clés

Approche multidimentionnelle - Compétence stratégique - Formation directe – Formation en stratégies de communication - Stratégies de communication.