

英语专业学生交际策略运用对比研究

摘要

策略能力是交际能力的一部分。语言学习者的策略能力在很大程度上决定了其目标语表达的流利程度以及对会话技巧的掌握。培养学生的策略能力也就是培养他们对各种交际策略的有效选择及熟练运用。交际策略作为在交际条件不充足时根据实际情况采取的应变措施,对外语学习者是十分重要的,因为这些策略能弥补他们语言知识的不足,能帮助他们解决或处理各种交际问题,使交际渠道保持顺畅,让交际得以顺利进行。国内外对交际策略的研究多集中在对其的定义和分类上,对于交际策略的使用与学习者目标语水平的关系的研究并不多。学习者的交际策略选择与其目标语水平有着紧密的联系。将两者结合进行对比研究,有助于更好地了解语言学习者的交际策略选择是如何随着其目标语水平的提高而变化的,同时也从交际能力的角度探讨如何提高学习者的语言水平。笔者对一个 30 人的英语专业二年级班级进行数据采集,使用横向和纵向两种对比研究方法,调查受访者英语语言水平与交际策略运用之间的关系。调查结果显示不同语言水平的受访者在口语和写作中所倾向使用的交际策略有所不同,总体看来低水平组的受访者更倾向于缩减策略,高水平的受访者则更倾向使用成就策略。同时本研究还显示受访者目标语言水平的改变会引起其交际策略使用的变化,即目标语水平提高将导致其更多地使用成就策略,减少使用缩减策略。

本文正文部分一共分为四章。介绍部分陈述了本研究的意义与研究目的。第一章是本文的理论基础部分,回顾了 Tarone, Hymes, Canale, Swain 等语言学家对于交际能力、策略能力以及交际策略提出的相关理论,分析了三者之间的关系,并介绍了三个与本研究相类似的前人研究的实验设计与结果。第二章与第三章是全文的主体部分,第二章详细描述了实验的设计,包括实验对象、工具与步骤,以及对所收集数据类型的划分;第三章运用 SPSS 软件对所得数据进行了相关分析,揭示了实验对象的英语语言水平与其对交际策略的选择两者之间的联系。第四章就数据分析结果提出相应的英语教学启示和建议。本文结论部分对研究结果与其重要性进行了总结,并指出了本文的两点局限性。

关键词: 交际策略; 语言水平; 交际能力

A Contrastive Study of the Use of Communication Strategies by College English Majors

Abstract

Strategic competence is a part of communicative competence. Language learners' strategic competence largely determines the learners' fluency and conversational skills in the target language. Mastery of this competence includes the mastery of communication strategies (CS) which generally refer to the means that speakers use to solve their communicative problems. Most researches on communication strategies have focused on the identification and taxonomy of the learners' CS in target language communication without providing a link between the learners' use of these strategies and their levels of target language proficiency. Investigation of learners' CS use within the framework of language proficiency may provide a good understanding of how a shift in the learners' level of target language would affect their use of CS. In the meantime, such study may shed some light on the construct of language proficiency itself and its complex constituents. This study attempts to examine the relationship between learners' CS use and their target language proficiency through the cross-sectional and longitudinal data collected from one class of 30 second-year English majors. The findings of this study show that learners of different levels of target language proficiency differ in their preference of CSs in speaking and writing. Generally speaking, the less proficient learners would like to turn to reduction strategies while the more proficient ones more frequently turn to achievement strategies. This study also shows that a shift in a learner's level of proficiency would affect his use of CS. The more proficient a learner becomes, the less reduction strategies he would use.

This thesis consists of four chapters. In the Introduction part, the significance and objectives of this study are presented. Chapter one reviews the theories about communication competence, strategic competence, and communication strategies proposed by linguists such as Tarone, Hymes, Canale and Swain, along with the previous case studies that is related to the author's research. Chapter two provides detailed descriptions of the experiment design. In Chapter three, the data collected from the experiment are processed by computer and analyzed, and the findings are

discussed. According to these findings, in Chapter four, pedagogical implications for cultivating learners' communicative competence are presented. In the conclusion part the author summarizes the findings of the study, discusses the significance of these findings, and points out two limitations of the study.

Key Words: communication strategies; language proficiency; communicative competence;

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Introduction

To most EFL (English as a Foreign Language) teachers, the awareness is common that some English learners tend to be “braver” than other learners when speaking to English native speakers. It can be found in these learners a much stronger desire to speak in English, and their actual language output tend to be more in amount and more effective for communication, even if some of them may not be as much grammatically and phonologically developed as other learners. A college sophomore, for example, who cannot pass CET4 may be able to make friends with an English native speaker by whom he can be well understood even when they are having a conversation of considerable length and without the help of a third person. He may not be “proficient” in English from a traditional view in which a learner’s knowledge of grammar, phonetics, and amount of vocabulary is emphasized, and in which a learner’s language proficiency is evaluated by test papers. One of the reasons that account for this phenomenon is that these learners have established, consciously or unconsciously, a good strategic competence. In other words, they have a good command of communication strategies.

According to Canale and Swain, strategic competence, along with grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, and discourse competence, composes a person’s communicative competence. This concept views language as a functional system used to fulfill a range of communicative purposes. EFL teachers are not surprised to find some of the English learners, although performing poorly in the mastery of the language code itself, i.e. grammatical competence, are doing quite well in the following two areas: (1) compensating for breakdowns in interlanguage communication; and (2) enhancing the effectiveness of interlanguage communication, because they can use CSs effectively. Moreover, Faerch and Kasper (1986 :179-181) state that there is an inevitable gap between what learners are taught and what they need in coping with unpredictable situations. This is where CSs are needed to bridge the gap and keep the communicative channels open.

The research on learners’ use of communication strategies began in the 1970s, represented by Corder, Tarone, Faerch, Kasper, Bialystok, and many others. These scholars defined the term, offered their own categorizations, discussed its uses, functions and influence on communications. The latest publication may be Faerch and

Kellerman's works —“Communication Strategies: Psycholinguistic and Sociolinguistic Perspectives” in 1997. In China, the introduction of this concept started in the 1990s, after which there have been many publications introducing methodologies and research findings in this field. While most scholars have indicated that the cultivation of strategic competence is indispensable in EFL teaching, empirical studies based on EFL students in China are not sufficient.

Researches focused on the interaction between the use of CSs and the target language proficiency have been carried out both at home and abroad. In the West for example, Tarone (1997) found that learners of a lower-level prefer to use reduction strategies, and Ellis (1983) noticed that a beginner also has a preference for reduction strategies. It still remains uncertain whether these findings apply to Chinese EFL learners. Some Chinese scholars have made empirical studies on college-level students. Most of these studies used questionnaires as the only means for data collection, focusing on the CSs used in spoken English. Few studies investigated what CSs learners use in their actual conversation, or what CSs are used in English writing.

This study is concerned with the relationship between Chinese college English majors' language proficiency and their choice of CSs when communicating in English. It aims at finding out in what way the former influences the latter through contrastive analysis of sophomore English majors of different language proficiency levels. The objectives of the study are:

1. to identify the types and the number of CSs used respectively by learners of lower, intermediate and higher levels in spoken English.
2. to identify the types and the number of CSs used respectively by learners of lower, intermediate and higher levels in English writing.
3. to describe adjustments in CS use in response to the shift of English proficiency of the learners.
4. to offer pedagogical recommendations in relation to CSs.

Based on Tarone (1980)'s definition and description of CS, and taxonomies proposed by Tarone (1977) et al., two questionnaires are designed for a class of 30 English sophomores to find out their application of CSs in both spoken English and English writing. The subjects need to fill the first questionnaire at the beginning of a semester and the second at the end of that very semester. Side by side with the questionnaire, task-based interviews are carried out to find out learners' actual use of

CSs. Data collected from the questionnaires and the taped-interviews are analyzed in three categories: 1) what CSs the learners believe they would use when speaking in English; 2) what CSs the learners actually use when speaking in English; and 3) what CSs the learners believe they would use in English writing. Data for the writing part are collected solely from the questionnaire, as many CSs used in actual writing are not detectable for people other than the subjects themselves. These three categories are checked in two ways. The first is a horizontal comparison. The class is divided into three groups (low proficiency, intermediate and high proficiency) according to the test results of the previous semester. The application of CSs of the learners at different proficiency levels is compared. The second is a four-month longitudinal investigation, comparing the application of CSs of the same learners at different stage of their English development. The result of the study proves that the learner's language proficiency does have an influence on his choice of CSs, and the study provides some recommendable implications on EFL teaching.

This study involves an experiment in a college sophomore class of English majors. As the author of this thesis teaches the course of Basic English Writing in the College of Foreign Languages and Cultures in Chengdu University of technology, it is possible for her to select one of the sophomore classes she teaches to carry out the experiments. The most important criterion in the selection of an experimenting class is the widely varied English proficiency levels of its members, which can be reflected by the results of the final tests of the previous semester. The varied English levels of the subjects ensure the validity of the horizontal comparison. Since data were collected at the beginning and the end of one semester, there was a span of four months between the first and the second survey, which ensured development of English proficiency in every subject, and thus made the longitudinal study valid. Furthermore, linguists such as Ellis, Tarone and Bialystok have already carried out related experiments, which gave the author much clue on the design of questionnaires and interviews. Lastly, support from the college, the supervisors and the subjects made it possible to carry out the experiment successfully.

This thesis investigates the following research question: is English majors' use of CSs influenced by their English proficiency? It begins by reviewing the related theories about communication competence, strategic competence, and communication strategies presented by linguists such as Tarone, Hymes, Canale and Swain, and the previous case studies related to the author's research. Then the thesis provides

descriptions of the experiment. By analyzing these data, the thesis investigates whether and how learners' English proficiency level influences their choice of CSs. Finally, pedagogical implications for cultivating learners' communicative competence are presented.

Chapter 1 Literature Review

1.1 Definitions of Communication Strategy

Since half a century ago, in the linguistic world “there has been a change of emphasis from presenting language as a set of forms (grammatical, phonological, lexical) which have to be learned and practiced, to presenting language as a functional system which is used to fulfill a range of communicative purposes.”(Tarone and Yule, 1989). Hence CSs have turned into a heated topic for all EFL teachers and learners. The term “communication strategy” was first proposed by Selinker (1972). In his work on interlanguage, he defined CS as one of the processes that are responsible for producing “interlanguage” errors, a by-product of the learners’ attempt to express meaning in spontaneous speech with their limited target language system. Hereafter, linguists have come to realize that CS plays an important role in second language acquisition, and have proposed different ways to define this term.

In Bialystok’s book *Communication Strategies*, she cites four definitions relating to the strategies of second-language learners (Bialystok, 1990: 3):

- (1) a systematic technique employed by a speaker to express his meaning when faced with some difficulty; (Corder, 1977)
- (2) a mutual attempt of two interlocutors to agree on a meaning in situations where requisite meaning structures are not shared; (Tarone, 1980)
- (3) potentially conscious plans for solving what to an individual presents itself as a problem in reaching a particular communicative goal; (Faerch & Kasper, 1983a)
- (4) techniques of coping with difficulties in communicating in an imperfectly known second language. (Stern, 1983)

Although complete agreement has not been reached on the definition of CS, the definition that was proposed by Corder’s (1977) has been accepted by many researchers, in that his explanation seems to be more visual and pellucid from the viewpoint of a non-native speaker of English. This definition posits problem orientedness and systematicness as central features of CS. The definitions from Faerch and Kasper (1983a) and Stern (1983) also offer us specific and precise descriptions, which refer to the applied techniques when speakers have problems in communicating in target language.

1.2 Relationship between Communicative Competence, Strategic Competence and Communication Strategies

Ever since the late 1970s, the emphasis of second language learning has been shifted from learning forms to learning functions fulfilling a range of communicative purposes. More and more people realize that language is used to communicate. The US structuralist Dell Hymes first proposed a theory which he called communicative competence. This competence, according to Canale and Swain, is composed minimally of grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence and strategic competence, the last of which, in fact, refers to the use of various CSs.

1.2.1 Communicative Competence and Strategic Competence

If we want to have a clear idea about what communicative competence is and what's its relationship with strategic competence, we need to know some of the most influential theories regarding communicative competence. In this part we will check out the theories proposed by Hymes as well as Canale and Swain, the former being the founder of the concept of communicative competence, and the latter proposing the most widely accepted structure of it.

1.2.1.1 Hymes' Theory

Communicative competence was coined by Dell Hymes to be used in sociolinguistics to refer to a speaker's underlying knowledge of the rules of grammar (understood in its widest sense to include phonology, orthography, syntax, lexicon, and semantics) and pragmatical rules for their use in socially appropriate circumstances. The idea of communicative competence is originally derived from Chomsky's distinction between competence and performance. By competence, Chomsky means a speaker's knowledge of his language as a manifest in his ability to produce and to understand a theoretically infinite number of sentences most of which he may have never seen or heard before. Performance, on the other hand, refers to the specific utterances, including grammatical mistakes and non-linguistic features like hesitations, accompanying the use of language. It is concerned with the process of applying the underlying knowledge to the actual language use. After carefully studying Noam Chomsky's distinction on linguistic competence and performance, Hymes found this distinction too narrow to describe language behavior as a whole. He

believed that Chomsky's view of competence is too idealized to describe actual language behavior, and thus his view of performance is an incomplete reflection of competence. He pointed out the model of competence/performance failed to provide an explicit place for sociocultural features that are inevitable in second language learning process, in that Chomsky totally ignores factors such as memory limitations, attention span, emotions, distractions, shifts of interest, error (random or characteristic) and so on in the process of applying linguistic competence in actual performance. Furthermore, he pointed out that Chomsky's notion of performance seems confused between actual performance and underlying rules of performance, the latter being communicative competence.

Thus in the publication of Gumperz and Hymes' "The Ethnography of Communication" in 1964, Hymes proposed that sociocultural features should be taken into account. Later he included both rules of grammar and rules of use in communicative competence, and generalized four questions as the framework of communicative competence:

- (1) Whether (and to what degree) something is formally possible.
- (2) Whether (and to what degree) something is feasible.
- (3) Whether (and to what degree) something is appropriate.
- (4) Whether (and to what degree) something is done.

(Hymes, 1972:284)

These four questions represent the four aspects of language user's knowledge and ability: 1. grammatical 2. psycholinguistic 3. sociocultural 4. pragmatical. Hymes provides a good starting point for the development of communicative competence. Now it has become the aim of language learning and teaching.

1.2.1.2 Canale and Swain's Theory

Canale and Swain studied the sociolinguistic work of Hymes, and believed it was significant to the development of a communicative approach to language learning. They developed Hymes' theory of communicative competence to comprise minimally of grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, and strategies competence. Later on, Canale added another one, discourse competence. Grammatical competence is concerned with mastery of the language code itself; discourse competence is concerned with the ability to combine grammatical forms and meanings to achieve a unified spoken or written text in different genres; sociolinguistic competence refers to

the extent to which utterances are produced and understood appropriately in different sociolinguistic contexts depending on contextual factors.

The last one, strategic competence, is defined by Canale and Swain (1980:30) as “verbal and non-verbal communication strategies that may be called into action to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to performance variables or to insufficient competence.” In simple terms it means the ability to successfully “get one’s message across”(Tarone & Yule, 1989:19). As a significant and often neglected component of communicative competence, strategic competence is relevant to both L1 and L2, since communication breakdowns, such as false starts, hesitations, and being lost for words, normally occur in speaking in both of them. However, “since strategic competence involves strategies to be used when communication is difficult, it is of crucial importance for foreign language learners. A lack of strategic competence may account for situations when students with a firm knowledge of grammar and a wide range of vocabulary get stuck and are unable to carry out their communicative intent.”(Dornyei & Thurrell,1991:18)

1.2.2 Strategic Competence and Communication Strategies

Communication strategies have been generally defined as the means that speakers use to solve their communicative problems. The term “communication strategy” was first coined and introduced by Selinker(1972) in his seminal article titled "Interlanguage". He accounted for CS as a by-product of the learners’ attempt to express meaning in spontaneous speech with their limited target language knowledge. It has, since then, been identified as one of the key areas of investigation within Second Language Acquisition research and thus has been extensively investigated in research on second language learning and teaching.

According to Elaine Tarone and George Yule, strategic competence is related to the ability to successfully get one’s meaning across to particular listeners. There are two broad areas related to strategic competence: “(1)the overall skill of a learner in successfully transmitting information to a listener, or interpreting information transmitted, and (2)the use of communication strategies by a speaker or listener when problems arise in the process of transmitting information” (Tarone & Yule, 1989:103) , From which we can safely conclude that strategic competence includes the ability to use appropriate CSs. In fact, the use of CSs to compensate for

breakdowns in communication and to enhance the effectiveness of communication only occur, according to Tarone and Yule(1989:104), in the following conditions:

1. a speaker desires to communicate a meaning x to a listener, and
2. the speaker believes the language form he or she wants to use to communicate meaning x cannot be produced and
3. the speaker choose to: (a) avoid, or (b) attempt alternate means to communicate meaning x such as mime, word coinage, circumlocution, etc.

From the above we can conclude the interrelationship among these three concepts is that strategic competence is a major component of communicative competence; and strategic competence involves the use of CSs in situations where message transmission is impeded in one way or another. To enhance the effectiveness of communication, appropriate application of CSs is indispensable.

1.3 Classifications of Communication Strategies

The taxonomies offered by different linguists inevitably vary, each having its particular orientation and emphasis. In this part two significant classifications of CSs are presented, the first based on Tarone et al. and the second based on the Nijmegen University Group.

1.3.1 Classification by Tarone *et al.*

According to Tarone(1977), Faerch and Kasper(1983a), Canale and Swain(1980), CSs are comprised of three main categories: avoidance or reduction strategies; achievement or compensatory strategies; stalling or time-gaining strategies. The following is a detailed list of this taxonomy:

Avoidance or Reduction Strategies

- a. Message abandonment: people's leaving a message unfinished due to language difficulties.
- b. Topic avoidance: people's avoidance of topics or concepts that may exist language difficulties.

Achievement or Compensatory Strategies

- a. Circumlocution: describing or exemplifying the target object or action (e.g., a chest where you put all your clothes).
- b. Approximation: using a synonym (e.g., kind for amiable).

- c. Use of all-purpose words: using a more general, empty lexical item (e.g., the over use of “thing”).
- d. Word-coinage: coin a word in the target language based on a supposed rule (e.g., perfecter for perfectionist)
- e. Use of nonlinguistic means: the use of mime, gestures, facial expression, or sound imitation.
- f. Literal translation: translating a linguistic item literally from L1 to L2 (e.g., color wolf).
- g. Foreignizing: using a L1 word by adjusting it to L2 phonologically or morphologically.
- h. Code switching: Using a L1 word with L1 pronunciation in L2.
- i. Appeal for help: directly or indirectly asking for help from the conversation partner(e.g., what is ... in English? Or a puzzled expression.).

Stalling or Time gaining strategies

- a. Use of fillers/hesitation devices: using filling words or gambits to gain time to think (e.g., well...).

From this list we can see that the avoidance strategies involve alteration, reduction, or complete abandonment of the intended message. These strategies may be an effective way but not a beneficial way for foreign language learners to learn the target language. The achievement strategies offer alternative plans for the speakers to continue the communication when language difficulty occurs, and at least to some extent achieve their original communicative goal. And the stalling strategy, as its name indicates, is to gain time and to keep the communication channel open when message transmission is impeded. It needs to be pointed out that this list of CSs is regarded as following traditional conceptualizations, and is most widely accepted as a scientific taxonomy of CSs.

1.3.2 A Process-oriented Classification

In the late 1980s, the existing taxonomies of CSs faced criticism from the Nijmegen University Group, who claimed that these taxonomies were all product-oriented, focusing on the surface structures of underlying psychological processes and thus resulting in a proliferation of different strategies of ambiguous validity. They proposed a process-oriented classification of CSs. They offered two main categories of CSs: conceptual strategies and linguistic strategies.

Conceptual strategies is used for “manipulating the target concept to make it expressible through available linguistic resources”, and linguistic strategies for “manipulating the speaker’s linguistic knowledge” (Dornyei,1995:58).The following is a detailed list of this classification:

Conceptual Strategies

- a. Analytic strategies. This is used to specify characteristic features of the concept.
- b. Holistic strategies. This refers to using a different concept which shares characteristics with the target language item.

Linguistic Strategies

- a. Morphological creativity. This refers to create a new word in the target language by applying morphological rules in that language.
- b. Transfer from another language.

Although this taxonomy is widely known, when we compare the above two taxonomies, we may find out that the strategies suggested by the Nijmegen University Group all coincide with Tarone *et al.*’s achievement strategies. The classification proposed by Tarone *et al* is obviously more inclusive.

1.4 Previous Related Studies

A great deal of research has been carried out on learners’ use of communication strategies when problems arise in the process of communication. In L2 learning contexts, research on strategic competence has focused on the effect of different variables on CSs. Target language proficiency is one of the researched variables. Though limited in amount, researches focusing on the influence of target language proficiency on CS all suggest that less-proficient learners use more communication strategies, and prefer reduction strategies.

In 1982, Tahereh Paribakht from University of Ottawa carried out a study in an attempt to clarify how a shift in the speakers' target language knowledge would affect their use of CS. The study was carried out among three groups of twenty adult subjects each: two groups of Persian ESL students at intermediate and advanced levels of target language development, and a comparison group of native speakers of English. The subjects were required to communicate twenty single lexical items comprising concrete and abstract concepts to native speaker interlocutors in an interview situation. Each subject had a different interlocutor. The strategies used by the subjects were finally classified into four major communicative approaches —

1) Linguistic approach, which “exploits the semantic features of the target items and reflects the speaker’s formal analysis of meaning”, 2) contextual approach, which “exploits the speakers’ contextual knowledge of the target items. That is, it provides contextual information about the target item rather than its semantic features”, 3) conceptual approach, which “exploits the speakers’ knowledge of the world and of particular situations”, and 4) mime, which “refers to the use of meaningful gestures in communicating the target item.” (Paribakht, 1985:135-138) The result of this research shows that the advanced learners are in the mid-position between the native speakers and the low-proficiency learners, both in terms of types and relative frequency of the use of CSs. It also suggests that language learners, as they develop their target language skill, seem to abandon or adopt certain CSs, and also alter their proportional use of certain CSs. Language speakers may share strategic competence, however, they differ greatly in implementing that competence, simply because their strategies interact with their different levels of knowledge sources.

In 1987, Tarone and Yule used a task-based methodology to study the strategic competence of second language learners. 24 English as a second language learners and 9 native speakers of English were each provided with certain information to convey in English, a listener who requires that information, and an awareness that an information gap exists. Three separate tasks involved in this study were 1) describing 4 objects, 2) giving instructions for the assembly of an apparatus, and 3) narrating a story. The speaker was required to look at a set of visual stimuli presented on a video screen which the listener could not see, and to verbally transmit to the listener information he or she perceived on the screen. The speaker’s utterances were tape-recorded and transcribed. Tarone and Yule found that native speakers were more likely than non-native speakers to use the achievement strategies that involve the mastery of basic or “core” vocabulary, and the sentence structures used for description, e.g. the strategies of circumlocution and approximation.

Although much research has been carried out on CSs, there still remains one area worthy of attention, and not totally clarified, that is, whether these strategies are applied and workable in writing as frequently as they are in speaking tasks. In 2009, two linguists, Mohammad Aliakbari (Ilam)/Nabi Karimi Allvar (Tehran), carried out a study aimed at investigating the use of CS against language proficiency level in argumentative writing of Iranian university students. Their quantitative analyses on two groups of 30 students of English language and Literature suggest that

the group with higher language proficiency used significantly more Reconceptualization Strategies (e.g., "wave receiver" for AERIAL) while the group of lower language proficiency level preferred to use Substitution Strategies (e.g., "animal" for DOG, or "table" for CHAIR). The study also reveals that an increase in language proficiency may result in a considerable reduction in the use of strategies.

Chapter 2. Description of the Experiment

2.1 Experiment Design

This study aims at finding out whether and how the English proficiency level of 30 university English majors influences their actual use of CSs through contrastive analysis, so as to provide, on a small scale, some clue to the interrelationship between English proficiency and the application of CS of English majors. An experiment was carried out to collect data. In this part, experiment design including the subjects, instruments and procedures are introduced.

2.1.1 Subjects

The subjects were one class of 30 English majors from CDUT, 5 males and 25 females. Aged between 19 and 22, they are all from Chinese-speaking background, and were then at the first semester of the second school year. They come from different parts of China, and not all can speak standard Mandarin, though they have no difficulty understanding each other in Chinese. None of them suffers from any language dysfunction. By the time the experiment was carried out, all of them had studied English formally for about 13 years. Some of them had ever heard about strategic competence and CS, but none of them had ever attended systematic training on the use of CSs. Some of them practiced English speaking a lot after class, while others admitted that they would only speak English in an English related class. For English majors in this university, English writing tasks were assigned at least once a week during the first year, and twice a week during the second year.

Before the experiment was carried out, the subjects had been classified into three groups according to their English proficiency level which was determined by the scores they had got in the second semester's final examination of BASIC ENGLISH, the main course for first and second year English majors. The high proficiency level group consisted of 6 students who had scores from 85 to 100, the intermediate group were 13 students with scores from 75 to 84, and the 11 students who had scores below 75 (as the lowest score in this class is 60) were classified into the group of low proficiency. There was a 4 month span of formal English study between the first and second data collection, which ensured that every one of the subjects would make progress to a certain extent in their English proficiency.

2.1.2 Instruments and Procedures

This experiment involved a questionnaire and a face-to-face interview at the beginning of the third semester, and at the end of the same semester, these two instruments were used again with only a slight change in their content.

2.1.2.1 Questionnaires

On the first day of the semester, a questionnaire composed of 29 questions was handed out directly to the subjects, aiming to find out what CSs they believe they would use in English speaking and writing. The design of the whole questionnaire is based on the following principles:

1. The questions should be designed to meet the research objectives.
2. The questionnaire should obtain the most complete and accurate information possible. It needs to ensure that respondents fully understand the questions and are not likely to refuse to answer, lie to the interviewer or try to conceal their attitudes.
3. The questionnaire should make it easy for respondents to give the necessary information and for the author to record the answer, and it should be arranged so that analysis and interpretation are possible.
4. The questionnaire should be brief and to the point and be so arranged that the respondents remain interested throughout the survey.

The questionnaire is composed of 2 parts, the first part includes 6 questions designed to cover two aspects: 1) basic information of each subject, 2) the subjects' current knowledge of CS. In the second part of this questionnaire, 23 questions were posed to find out the subjects' use of CSs in English. Question 7 to 19 aim to investigate the subjects' use of CSs in English speaking, while question 20 to 29 investigate their use of CSs in English writing. The design and arrangement of the questions was based on Tarone et al.'s Classification of CSs, excluding the strategy of foreignizing, as it is not applicable for Chinese EFL students. Terminologies are avoided. To make subjects fully understand the questions, many items are accompanied by examples. For example, in case the subjects do not understand what "superordinates" means, the paper listed two examples—"when someone wants to express, 'he was killed by a cobra', he uses 'snake' instead of 'cobra' because he doesn't know the latter word", and "when you want to say 'they bought a minivan', you use 'car' instead of 'minivan'".

Although it is often theoretically claimed that CSs can have as many uses and repercussions in the written medium as in the spoken medium with which CSs are often identified, not as many types of CSs used in writing can be detected. Strategies like mine, stalling and appealing for help are never applicable to writing, and thus were eliminated in the writing part of the questionnaire. For other strategies, the questions were phrased in a way that encouraged the subjects to recall from their experience the exact scene before writing the answer.

At the end of that very semester, a questionnaire similar in content was again handed out to the subjects, to check their use of CSs in speaking and writing English at that time. In case the subjects treated the two questionnaires as a mere repetition, in the second questionnaire it was emphasized that the subjects should associate every question with their present situation.

The two questionnaires were both taken during the first 15 minutes of the class, and before subjects answered the questionnaires, the author had made it clear to them that they had 15 minutes to answer all the questions independently according to what they actually did normally in reality, and that exchanging ideas or peeping at others' answers was not allowed. The author also guaranteed that the answers they were going to make would absolutely not have any influence on their final scores of any course, nor would these answers change any teacher's impression of them. Each time 30 questionnaires filled with answers were collected, all proved to be valid. For the design and the arrangement of the questions, please see appendix 1 and 2.

2.1.2.2 Recorded Interview

The interview was carried out twice, too, at the beginning and the end of the semester. The subjects had no idea their speech would be recorded by a digital recording pen in the interviewer's pocket and would be analyzed later. They were paired randomly to compose 15 groups. These groups were interviewed separately. During each interview two subjects sat face to face across a table to finish two separate tasks: 1) to describe two objects which appeared one after the other, and the English words for which are not included in the syllabus for second year English majors (in fact, some are not even included in the syllabus of the whole college English education). 2) to describe the process of doing or finishing something. The subjects were asked to switch roles after each task and were allowed as much time as was needed to complete these tasks. Most of the groups finished their interviews

within 8 minutes. Two groups took less than 3 minutes to finish all the tasks and two other groups took more than 10 minutes. Before the interview, the interviewer had made it clear to the subjects that the point is to make themselves understood, and that during the description, they could use whatever method they could come up with, including using some Chinese words, and if they couldn't proceed, they could feel free to say "I don't know" to the interviewer. The interviewer didn't interrupt or make any reply during the interview, nor did she give any cue or facial expression in the process of the task. She mainly listened, but occasionally took notes when strategies that cannot be recorded by the recording pen were used, such as gestures.

In task one, the interviewer had a set of photographs or pictures with one object on each of them. Subject A was shown two of these pictures one by one and was asked to describe them to his or her partner. Subject B, who could not see what was on that picture, was asked to guess what it was through the description of subject A. The task was ended by the interviewer when the right answer was pronounced, or when the subject making the description expressed that he or she could not proceed. Then the subjects were asked to switch roles and repeat the process with two different pictures. None of the subjects had any idea what object they were going to describe before the interview, to prevent the subjects from preparing before hand. Here is an example of this task performed by one group:



Figure 2.1

A: (Her right hand acting like using a powder brush to wear makeup on her face) This! This!

B: 化妆?

A: No! No! This! (Her left hand pointing at her right hand which pretended to hold a powder brush, then her right hand acting like using a powder brush to wear makeup on her face, then again her left hand pointing at her right hand which still pretended to hold that brush) What is this?

B: 化妆的.....刷子?

A: Yes!.

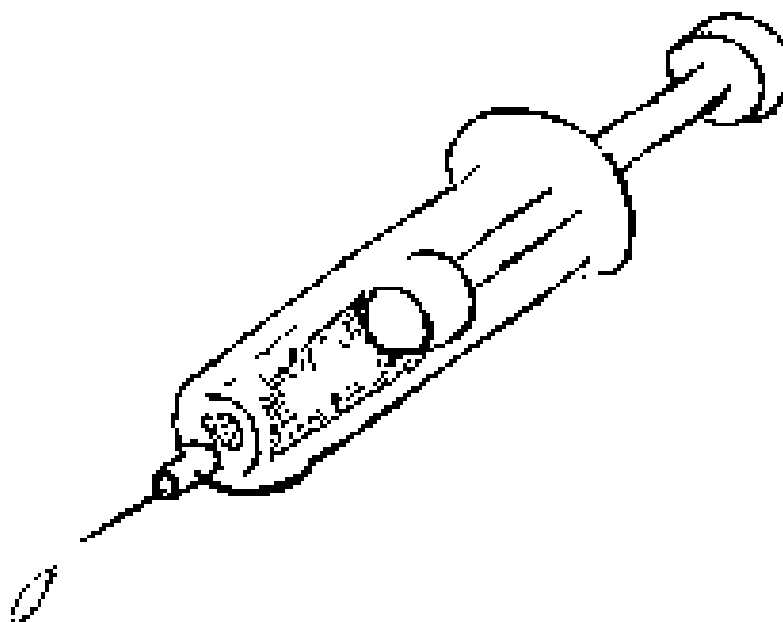


Figure 2.2

A: Wow! (looking embarrassedly at the interviewer and subject B and giggling) en... this is... a thing... hospital inject!

B: What?

A: Hospital! Inject! Injection!

B: 打针!

A: Yes! Oh no! But the thing! The thing you used to...

B: 打针筒! 不, 注射器!

A: Yes!

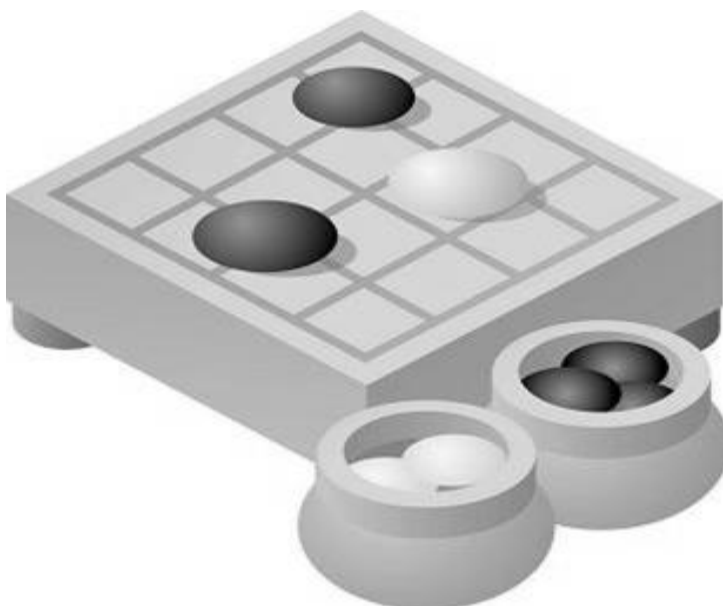


Figure 2.3

B: Well, it is a kind of Chess, Chinese Chess.

A: Chess?... 嗯.....棋? 象棋!

B: Not really. It is a Chinese Chess with black and white... buttons (looking at subject A and the interviewer questioningly)? Spots? Points? Let me see... you play the white and I play the black...

A: 跳棋?

B: No, black and white!

A: 黑白棋?围棋!

B: Yes! Yes!



Figure 2.4

B: it's... it's a kind of clothes... uh...that can keep you warm in winter.

A:什么.....衣服?冬天穿的衣服? 棉衣?

B: No, no, it's a kind of underwear people wear in the winter, to keep warm!

A: 是保暖内衣吗?

B: Yes!

In the above example , subject A used strategies such as mime, superordinate(“thing”), circumlocution(“hospital inject”), while subject B used fillers(“well”), circumlocution(“black and white” “a kind of underwear people wear in the winter, to keep warm”), approximation(“button”), superordinate(“Chinese Chess”), and appealing for help.

In task two, the interviewer had 6 cards, on each of which a different process was written in a generalized form, beginning with “how to”. First, subject A was shown a card and then was asked to describe the process on it in detail. When subject A finished his or her description, or expressed that he or she could not proceed, the interviewer gave subject B another card to describe. Again in this process, the subjects had had no idea what he or she was going to do before this interview, nor did the interviewer give any cue or facial expression. Here is an example of this task by one group, with A describing “how to make tea” and B “how to plant a rose”

A: To make tea... first, I boil some water, and in the meantime, I put some leaves in a cup. When the water is... about 100 degree, I put the water into the cup, and then I cover the cup with a... (looking at B and the interviewer questioningly and giggling), and then I cover the cup, and wait 5 minutes, at last, I can drink the tea. It's ok.

B: First you need to buy some rose seeds from the market. And then you can put... well, let me put it this way, if you need to plant many roses, you need a place first, a square of ground... land. You dig some holes in this land and then put the rose seeds in these holes and cover them with soil. After this all you need is watering it... them on time, and properly fertilize the soil. When you see a small... leave breaking out of the soil, then you know you have succeeded.

In this example, subject A used strategies like approximation (“leaves”, “100 degree”), use of all-purpose words (“put”), message abandonment(“cover the cup with a ...”), appealing for help, while subject B used fillers(“well” “let me put it this way”),

approximation(“a square of land”), and superordinate(“leave”).

At the end of this semester, this task was repeated, with different objects and process for the subjects to describe, after the questionnaires had been done. To fully elaborate the content of these two tasks, the objects and the topics for detailed description are listed below.

In task one, there is a set of 8 objects for description. At the end of the semester the objects presented before the subjects are different from what they have seen at the beginning of the semester, to ensure language difficulty existed in the process of description. The objects for description at these two times are presented in figure 2.5 below:

Objects for description at the beginning of the semester	Objects for description at the end of the semester
syringe	handi wrap
go	fresh-keeping case
powder brush	tablet armchair
thermal underwear	clotheshorse
ancient Chinese golden hairpin	toothpick
nail polish	cosmetic tip
ladybug	bath mat
rubbish bag	adhesive plastic hook

figure 2.5

Task two is also different in content between the first time and the second time. For the topics at different times, please see figure 2.6.

Topics for discussion in the first interview	Topics for discussion in the second interview
how to plant a rose	how to use a blender to make orange juice
how to send an e-mail message	how to use a correction pen
how to take pictures with a camera	how to use a dictionary
how to make tea	how to see a doctor (the process of seeing a doctor in a hospital)
how to cook rice	how to apply for a job
how to borrow a book from the school library	how to succeed in a job interview

Figure 2.6

These objects and topics are chosen according to 3 criteria. First, they need to cover a series of very common daily events lest the subjects be unable to say anything at all because they have never seen such an object before or because they have no idea whatsoever about the process they are asked to describe. Second, the subjects would encounter language difficulties in the description. Thus it is important that the subjects not know the exact word for the objects they are asked to describe, and that they wouldn't think the processes are too easy to describe. Third, the level of language difficulty existing in these description tasks should not vary widely.

2.2 Procedure of Analysis

The result of the experiment was analyzed in two different ways, Each involving 3 categories: result of the interview, data collected from the questions involving spoken English, and data collected from the questions involving English writing. In the first way -- the cross-sectional study, three types of data collected at the beginning of the semester were analyzed in light of subjects' proficiency level determined by the last final examination of College English. In the second way -- the longitudinal study, a comparison was made between the same three types of data collected at the beginning and the end of the semester, to see if there's any change of the use of CS in total.

The questionnaires handed out at both the beginning and the end of the semester are similar in structure and content. Both of them are divided into three sections. The first section collects subjects' personal information, the second section collects data of their use of CSs in speaking English, and the last section collects data of their use of CSs in English writing. Here is how data from section two and three are classified:

Type of CS	Question in questionnaire 1		Question in questionnaire 2	
	speaking	writing	speaking	writing
Message abandonment	7-8	20-21	3-4	16-17
Topic avoidance	9	22	5	18
Circumlocution	10-11	23-24	6-7	19-20
Approximation	12	25	8	21
Use of all-purpose words	13	26	9	22

Word-coinage	14	27	10	23
Use of nonlinguistic means	15		11	
Literal translation	16	28	12	24
Code switching	17	29	13	25
Appeal for help	18		14	
Use of fillers	19		15	

Figure 2.7

While in the questionnaire part, subjects need to mark the four choices A, B, C, and D with A meaning “hardly or never” and D meaning “quite frequently”, in the interview part the data collected were classified according to the interviewer’s judgment. Below is a list of examples of data classification from the interviews:

Type of CS	Interview Samples
Message abandonment	“...and then I cover the cup with a... and then I cover the cup, and wait 5 minutes...”
Topic avoidance	“...I don’t know.” “...sorry...”
Circumlocution	“It’s for hospital use. It’s used for injection!” “It is a Chinese Chess with black and white...”

Approximation	“It is a Chinese Chess with black and white... buttons Spots? Points?”
Use of all-purpose words	“...then you put the water in the cup.” “...it’s a thing...you can use after a meal and your mouth feels uncomfortable.”
Word-coinage	“freshbag” “hairstick”
Use of nonlinguistic means	mimicking the action of wearing a hairpin, mimicking the action of pulling out handi wrap, etc.
Literal translation	“teeth stick” “fresh-keeping film”
Code switching	“it is a kind of chair you can see in our ...阶梯教室! (giggles)”
Appeal or help	Looking questioningly at the interviewer, “what is it in English?”
Use of fillers	“well...” “let me see, ...”

Figure 2.8

Chapter 3. Data Analysis and Findings

This part of the paper is divided into two sections to compare and discuss the CSs used by subjects of different English proficiency levels and by the same subjects at their different stage of English acquisition. In the first section, the data collected from the questionnaires and from the tape record are analyzed through SPSS10.0. In section two the result and findings of the comparison are discussed.

3.1 Questionnaire Analysis

At the beginning of the semester, 30 copies of questionnaires were handed out to the subjects to investigate their use of CS. The returning rate was 100%, and all valid. The original data were entered into computer and processed by SPSS. The subjects were divided into three groups according to their English proficiency level. The average value and standard deviation of their use of reduction and achievement strategies in speaking and writing were computed.

Language Proficiency	Average value	Standard deviation
High	2.1021	.64
Intermediate	2.9891	.66
Low	3.9411	.49

Figure 3.1 Average value and standard deviation of the frequency of using reduction strategies in spoken English

Figure 3.1 shows the average value and standard deviation of the frequency of using reduction strategies in spoken English. It suggests that the difference in the use of reduction strategies among the 3 groups of subjects is significant. The average value of the high proficiency group is about 1.8000 less than that of the low

proficiency group. Even the intermediate group is about 1.0000 lower than the low proficiency group's 3.9411. This result indicates that the higher the English proficiency is, the less reduction strategies are used in verbal communication. Then the study compared the subjects' use of achievement strategies in spoken English, as is shown in figure 3.2 as below:

Language Proficiency	Average value	Standard deviation
High	3.4983	.51
Intermediate	3.4868	.73
Low	3.3411	.35

Figure 3.2 Average value and standard deviation of the frequency of using achievement strategies in spoken English

It can be found in figure 3.2 a reverse result. The high proficiency group exceeds the other two groups in average value. The frequency of using achievement strategies by the subjects is also different among the 3 groups, but not so significantly. The gap between the high proficiency group and the intermediate group is less than 0.0120, and the gap between the high proficiency group and the low proficiency group is less than 0.1600. This result shows that the higher proficiency is associated with the higher rate of using achievement strategies in spoken English.

To investigate the subjects' frequency of using different CSs in English writing, data related to CS in writing were also processed by SPSS. The results are listed in figure 3.3 and 3.4 as below.

Language Proficiency	Average value	Standard deviation
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High	2.0512	.57
Intermediate	3.4768	.51
Low	3.8311	.31

Figure 3.3 Average value and standard deviation of the frequency of using reduction strategies in English writing

Language Proficiency	Average value	Standard deviation
High	4.0332	.53
Intermediate	4.1768	.62
Low	3.0311	.66

Figure 3.4 Average value and standard deviation of the frequency of using achievement strategies English writing

Figure 3.3 shows the average value and standard deviation of the frequency of using reduction strategies in English writing, and figure 3.4 shows that of using achievement strategies. It can be found in figure 3.3 a similar tendency of CS use as is reflected in figure 3.1. That is, the more proficient the subject is, the less he or she would resort to reduction strategies. However, when it comes to achievement strategies, the highest frequency, as is shown by figure 3.4, is not associated with the highest proficiency. With an average value of 4.0332, the high proficiency level is exceeded by the intermediate group whose average value is 4.1768. The intermediate subjects would more frequently use achievement strategies.

At the end of the semester, another questionnaire was handed out to the subjects. The returning rate was 100%, and all valid. This time the average value and standard deviation of the subjects' frequency of using each strategy at two different stages of English learning were compared.

	Variables	Questionnaire 1		Questionnaire 2	
		Average value	Standard deviation	Average value	Standard deviation
Reduction Strategies	Message abandonment	3.2429	.7320	3.0304	.8182
	Topic avoidance	3.2489	.7896	3.0483	.7896
Achievement Strategies	Circumlocution	3.7478	.4946	3.7868	.3566
	Approximation	3.8444	.4403	3.8634	.4218
	Use of all-purpose words	3.6014	.3556	3.6214	.3614
	Word-coinage	1.0144	.6565	1.0123	.6704
	Use of nonlinguistic means	2.6011	.4510	2.5465	.4432
	Literal translation	3.7477	.4787	3.7468	.4945
	Code switching	1.1411	.7885	1.1308	.8021

	Appeal or help	3.5032	.3515	3.5055	.3841
	Use of fillers	3.7545	.6112	3.7547	.6044

Figure 3.5 Average value and standard deviation of the frequency of using CSs at different stages of English learning

Figure 3.5 shows the average value and standard deviation of the frequency of CSs that are used by the subjects at their different stages of English learning. The results show that at these two different times, the frequency of using different CSs is different. The frequency of using reduction strategies has significantly declined in the second questionnaire (the average value declined by 0.2000), and the frequency of using some achievement strategies, such as word-coinage, use of non-linguistic means, literal translation and code switching, has mildly declined, too. For example, the average value of literal translation has declined by 0.0009. However, the frequency of using other achievement strategies and stalling strategies has risen at the second time.

3.2 Tape-record Analysis

The function of the interview is to investigate what CS subjects use in real verbal communication. Since questionnaires can only provide opinions, which might be different in reality, analysis of the data collected from the taped interviews is necessary. The following are the results of the first interview, the 3 groups' actual use of different strategies in communication.

Language Proficiency	Average value	Standard deviation
High	1.5685	.43
Intermediate	2.1514	.61

Low	3.9858	.41
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Figure 3.6 Average value and standard deviation of the frequency of using reduction strategies in interview

Language Proficiency	Average value	Standard deviation
High	7.0083	.65
Intermediate	5.3068	.67
Low	3.9811	.68

Figure 3.7 Average value and standard deviation of the frequency of using achievement strategies in interview

Figure 3.6 and 3.7 show the average value and standard deviation of the frequency of using reduction and achievement strategies respectively. They reveal that in real communication there is a similar tendency to what is shown by the questionnaire, that is, the proficiency level has a lot to do with the subjects' frequency of using certain strategies. The intermediate group has an average value of the frequency of using reduction strategies and achievement strategies between the other two groups. For the high proficiency group, the average value of the frequency of using reduction strategies is 1.5685, much less than the low proficiency group's 3.9858. The average value of the frequency of using achievement strategies decrease gradually from the high proficiency group's 7.0083 to the low proficiency group's 3.9811. The result show that the more proficient subjects seem to use achievement strategies much more frequently than the subjects of low proficiency level, and use much less reduction strategies.

In figure 3.8 the frequency of each CS in use is examined. Two groups of data

are compared to determine whether there are significant differences among the subjects in their frequency of using certain CSs at different learning stages. The results show that reduction strategies, along with word-coinage, literal translation, and code-switching, are declining in use. But the most drastic change occurs to approximation and circumlocution.

	Variables	Interview 1		Interview 2	
		Average value	Standard deviation	Average value	Standard deviation
Reduction Strategies	Message abandonment	3.1629	.6320	3.1304	.5182
	Topic avoidance	3.2400	.7896	3.1023	.6896
Achievement Strategies	Circumlocution	3.2665	.7946	3.8168	.7066
	Approximation	3.3304	.7403	3.8620	.6218
	Use of all-purpose words	3.5714	.3956	3.6289	.3674
	Word-coinage	1.0144	.6565	1.0123	.6732
	Use of nonlinguistic means	3.4011	.6510	3.3465	.7132
	Literal translation	3.7477	.6787	3.7468	.6945

	Code switching	2.1411	.7881	2.1308	.8001
	Appeal or help	3.2032	.3535	3.2055	.3844
	Use of fillers	3.2045	.6102	3.3547	.6004

Figure 3.8 Average value and standard deviation of the frequency of using CS in reality at different stage of English learning

In general, the result of the experiment suggests a strong link between English proficiency and the use of CS. The cross-sectional study shows that learners' use of CS in communication (both verbal and written) can be influenced by their English proficiency level. The more proficient learners would adopt more achievement strategies and less reduction strategies while learners of lower English proficiency would adopt less achievement strategies and more reduction strategies.

This link has also been indicated by the longitudinal study investigating subjects' use of CS at different stages of English learning. The results of both the questionnaire and the interview show an improvement in language proficiency would cause adoption and abandonment in certain CSs. As a learner becomes more proficient in English, he or she seems to adopt more achievement strategies like circumlocution and approximation, and gradually abandon the reduction strategies.

It should also be noted that 90% of the subjects before taking the questionnaire had never heard the term "communication strategy", and none of them had attended any systematic training. Compared with the results we get from the analysis of the questionnaire, the subjects used the achievement strategies esp. approximation and circumlocution in the interview much more frequently. Meanwhile, the results show that regardless of the subjects' language proficiency, the rate of using strategies code switching and word-coinage is the lowest.

3.3 Major Findings

Through the experiment, the author of this paper has 3 major findings. The first finding is that regardless of language proficiency, learners are able to adopt some CSs

in their target language communication. This is because strategic competence is not culture-specific, it is both relevant to both L1 and L2, since communication breakdowns occur and must be overcome in any language. According to Paribakht (1985), strategic competence develops in the speaker's first language with his or her increasing language experience, and is freely transferable to his or her second language. That means all learners can and do use some CSs in their English communication because strategic competence is transferable from their mother tongue to English. However, there is a discrepancy between the learners' beliefs and actual use of CS. This discrepancy may be caused by two facts:

1. EFL education in China has long neglected the cultivation of learners' strategic competence. Both teachers and learners are not quite informed of the significance of this competence, thus there is rarely any training in this respect, and the learners don't have much choice when confronted with communication breakdowns in target language. Strategies for solving language difficulties in communication are hardly taken into account.
2. Strategic competence develops in the learners' L1, and is transferable to L2 learning situations. In target language communication, the learners will consciously or unconsciously adopt some CSs that they often use effectively in L1 communication. For English majors, the opportunities for practicing English speaking and writing are a lot more than those for non-English majors, which means the English majors have more chances to practice the strategies they developed in their L1 learning and to apply them to foreign language situation. Therefore it is not surprising that they are already using some of the CSs without realizing it, or without knowing the names of these strategies. But the implementation of CS transferred depends on the availability of other competences, i.e. grammatical competence and so on. The learners know very clearly which CS most effectively enhance communication, but in real-life communications a lack of target language knowledge may force them to abandon that strategy and turn to other strategies that require less target language proficiency.

The second finding is that learners of different language proficiency prefer using different CSs. Generally speaking, the higher the proficiency is, the more achievement strategies are used; the lower the proficiency, the more reduction strategies. This difference in the choice of CS may be due to the following reasons:

1. The achievement strategies, esp. synonymy, antonymy, superordinate, and the ability to describe and exemplify, most specifically and heavily emphasize the learner's linguistic knowledge. Advanced learners with a richer linguistic knowledge of English language at their disposal are likely to be in a better position to rely on this approach. The learners with lower proficiency level would be relatively disadvantaged in applying these strategies for lack of a mastery of considerable vocabulary and grammatical knowledge. Thus they had to resort to strategies that do not require so much linguistic knowledge, i.e. reduction strategies, or some of the achievement strategies such as code switching.
2. The learners' attitudes towards achievement strategies are different. As English majors they have been required to try to use English as much as possible. The advanced learners prefer the achievement strategies that require more target language knowledge in the hope of "saving face"—to show that although they fail to find the exact word, they are still proficient enough to express it in a most effective and most English-knowledge-requiring way. On the other hand, the low-proficiency learners prefer to give up when confronted with communication difficulties in order to "save face" they would choose more of the reduction strategies to avoid the difficulty.
3. The learner's personality also plays a part in this difference of CS use. The advanced English majors usually have more chance to take part in English communications. They are more extroverted and open-minded in English communications and thus more willing to take risks. The low-proficiency learners, as they usually prefer to remain silent in many English communications, are not risk-takers. Thus the avoidance strategy becomes their favorite.

The third finding is that the use of code switching and word-coinage is low by English majors of any proficiency level. This has something to do with their educational environment, personality and cultural background. English education in China emphasize correctness. One idea that has been intensified in English education is that using Chinese in conversation cannot benefit learning and may hinder the learning of the authentic language. In most courses for English majors, speaking Chinese is forbidden. This intensified "Chinese forbidden" rule caused their avoidance of using code switching. As to the low rate of using word-coinage by Chinese learners, besides the educational principle mentioned above, it reflected these learners' risk taking level. This strategy in fact requires high level of risk taking which

most English majors do not acquire. Meanwhile, learners' awareness of the great distance between Chinese and English reduces their tendency to resort to this strategy. The difference between the formation of Chinese characters and that of English words is so huge that the idea of coining a word in English hardly occurred to Chinese learners.

Chapter 4. Pedagogical Implications

The results of the study show the adjustments in CS use in response to subjects' language proficiency. On the one hand the subjects' choice or preference of CS types are different, which shows correspondence with their different level of language proficiency, on the other hand they abandon or adopt certain CSs as their language proficiency develops, and in the meantime change their proportional use of certain strategies. This correlation between language proficiency and CS application has brought some implications on EFL teaching.

4.1 Cultivation of Learners' Metacommunicative Awareness

Learners' metacommunicative awareness refers to their ability to judge the relationship between a form and its meaning in context. It is this type of awareness that needs to be honed for a learner to comprehend the intricacies of meanings of words and expressions.

The aim of language teaching is often defined with reference to the four language skills: listening, reading, speaking and writing. These skills are acquired through various kinds of activities which the learners perform, and which are characterized by the language the learners are learning. Language is learnt to communicate. One of the great mistakes that an EFL teacher could make is to forget completely about the social embedding of target language communication. Learning of a second or foreign language would never be effective if the learners were in a social vacuum. The first thing to be taught is a realistic and comprehensive model of communication.

For example, some Chinese EFL learners can communicate effectively in English with only 100 words or so. How do they make it? They use their hands, they imitate the sound or movement of things, they mix languages, they create new words, they describe or circumlocute something they don't know the exact word for—in short, they use CSs. This competence of using CSs skillfully, that is, strategic competence, develops with learners' improvement of target language proficiency. If a language learner's grammatical competence is developed alone, he or she may never be able to use the target language in a real situation. Thus the EFL classroom should put more emphasis on fostering communicative language use.

4.2 Communicative Language Teaching

For many learners, the EFL classroom is the most important place they get to think about English language, practice using it, take risks with it, and reflect on their use of it. Creating authentic English language contexts for learners to carry out this exploration and encouraging interactions between learners is important for their English development and for preparing them to use English successfully when they are in an out-of-class environment. Influenced by large amount of research in how second languages are learned, notions about what is the best way to teach EFL learners vary widely. In recent years, perhaps the most accepted instructional framework in EFL education is communicative language teaching (CLT). The goal of CLT is to increase communicative competence in learners, which means they are able to understand and interpret messages in the target language, understand the social contexts in which that language is being used, apply grammatical rules, and employ strategies to compensate for communication break-downs. CLT has its instructional emphasis in communicative competence rather than grammatical competence solely, paying more attention to using language in real-life contexts for meaningful purposes and interactions with other people. CLT believes that learners learn a language through communicating in it, and learning through meaningful communication is a better way than learning through a grammar-based approach.

That language learners need opportunities to practice using the language in authentic conversations is the basic principle underlying CLT, because there is practically a very wide range of contexts for diverse purposes in people's daily life. This interactive view of language teaching has its roots in second language acquisition (SLA) research studies that have examined how interactions contribute to SLA. So far, studies have reported how negotiation of meaning as an exchange between a speaker and listener to solve a comprehension problem affects language output of learners'. Research has been carried out to investigate interactions between native speakers and EFL learners as well as interactions exclusively between EFL learners. Social interaction between individuals and the interaction that occurs in their minds (e.g., the interaction among their knowledge of the first and second languages, the content and context of a message, and their knowledge of the world) have also been examined. During interaction, it is likely that learners will notice things about their language use that is different from a native speaker's or a more proficient nonnative speaker's use, which will cause communication break down. In such cases appropriate CSs are often

applied by either side in the interaction. This process in which both the listener and the speaker are actively involved in the negotiation of meaning actually promotes their communicative competence.

To apply CLT, the teacher and learners need to engage in activities that create conditions that foster authentic language use, which lead to further language development.

First and foremost, the teacher is the initiator of interaction, which does not mean that the teacher is always in control of the discourse, but that he/she is responsible for providing opportunities for interaction in which learners control the topics and discourse (Ellis, 1999). The teacher doesn't act as a model from whom the learners respond and imitate, and who provides feedback after that. Research suggests that language acquisition is aided when learners have control of the discourse topics and the discourse (Ellis, 1999). This in a way verifies what most teachers believe to be good English teaching practice: selecting content and classroom activities, based on learners' needs and interests, that are suitably challenging and promote language development (Florez & Burt, 2001). To create conditions for effective interactions in the classroom, the following approaches are suggested:

1. Plan lessons that are logically sequenced and that provide proper scaffolding — the instructional support that enables learners to make a leap in knowledge or skill — so that learners can be successful in their interactions (Florez & Burt, 2001).
2. Pass the control to the learners and step out of the role of class leader. Teachers let learners take the initiative for interactions, explore the target language freely, and take risks with it.
3. Facilitate learner-to-learner interactions. Teachers monitor and provide assistance when learners ask for it or when they are unable to repair communication breakdowns on their own.
4. Initiate and sustain interaction. Teachers use a variety of questions ranging from knowledge questions (e.g., yes/no; choice; or who, what, where, and why questions) to evaluation questions (e.g., opinion questions).
5. Understand that interaction does not solely refer to verbal ones. Teachers also need encourage learners learn by listening to others interact.
6. implement pair and small group work regularly to promote effective interaction.
7. Teach learners how to use CSs to negotiate meaning and compensate for language

breakdowns.

To create effective interactions, teachers also need to know when it is appropriate to mention language rules and when it is appropriate to let learners use language, and how to balance fluency and accuracy. Research suggests that there is an appropriate time and place for grammar-focused instruction and that direct grammar instruction can help acquisition for some learners (Larsen-Freeman, 1997). Many Researches seem to suggest that grammar instruction is most effective when it is focused on raising learners' awareness of how a structure is formed, what it means, and how it is used rather than on practicing drills for accuracy (Ellis, 1999; Long, 2000). Learners gain more understanding by processing what they hear and read into their interlanguage than learning an isolated grammar rule followed by pattern practice (Larsen-Freeman, 1997).

In China, the traditional and dominating English teaching method was the grammar-translation method. Having been learning English in such context for over ten years, many college English learners find CLT new and unacceptable, esp. at the very beginning. They already have expectations of how instruction should proceed based on their experience of previous language instruction. It may not be enough to provide opportunities for learners to experiment and try out what they have already learnt about English. Discussing with these learners the benefits of and the rationale for having them interact with each other during class time, in meaningful discourse, is another difficult but significant task faced by teachers.

To help EFL learners acquire communicative competence in the classroom, Stern (1981) proposes the following language curriculum:

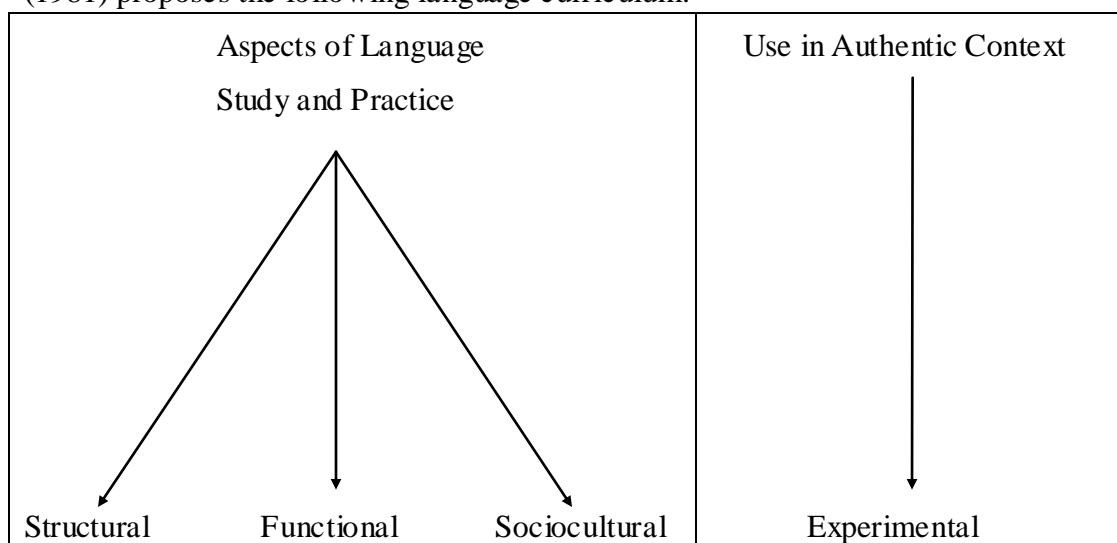


Figure 4.1

Stern maintains that language teaching can and should approach language learning objectively and analytically through the study and practice of structural, functional, and sociocultural aspects. It should offer opportunities to live the language as a personal experience through direct contact with the target language community. (Stern, 1981)

Similarly, Rivers (1972) proposes methodological distinction between “skill-getting” and “skill-using” activities. She presents the educational framework in a slightly different way.

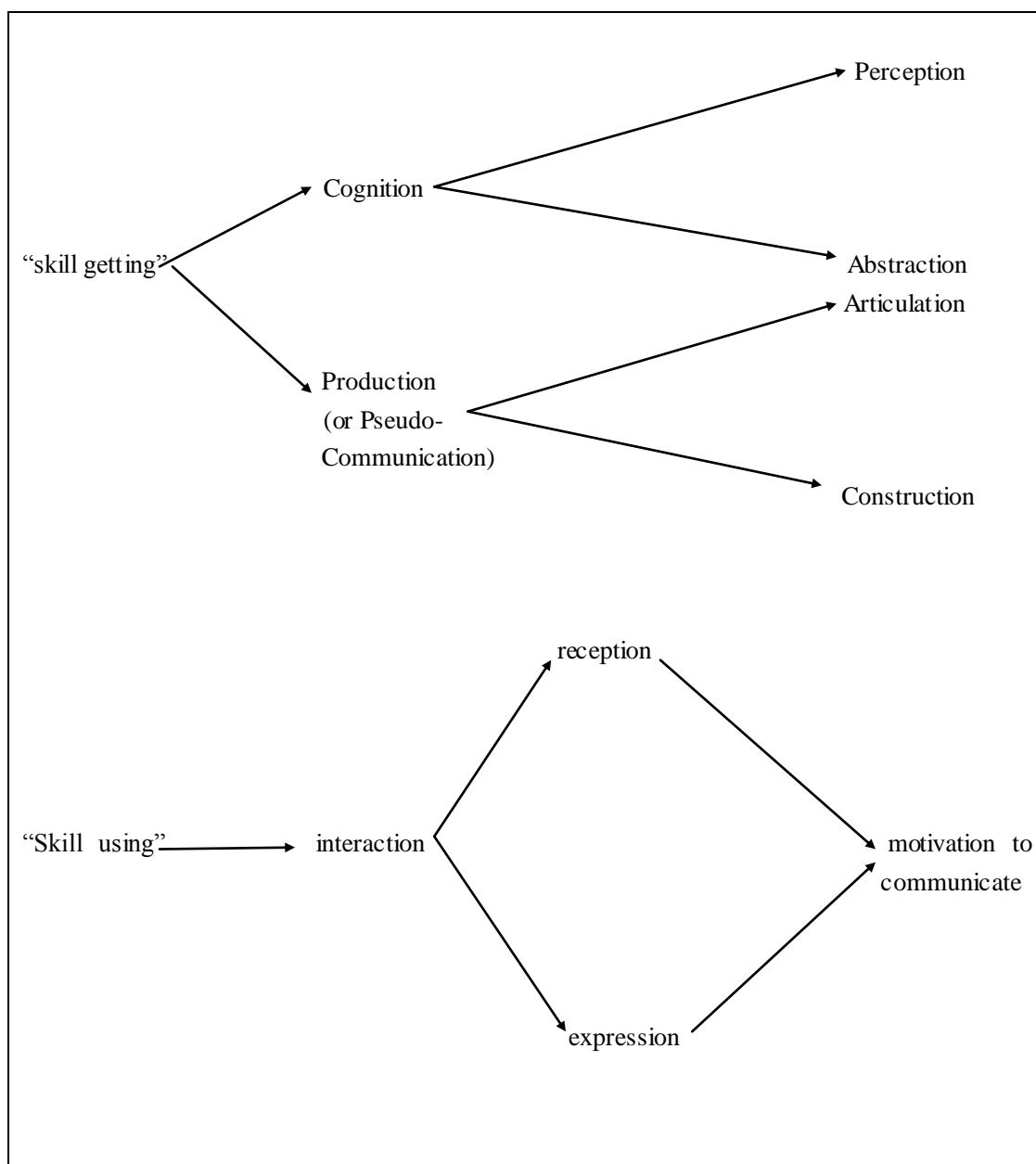


Figure 4.2

Through “skill-getting”activities, the teacher isolates specific elements of knowledge or skill that compose communicative ability, and provides the learners with opportunities to practice them separately. Thus the learners are being trained in separate steps of communication skills rather than practicing the total skill to be acquired. In the “skill-getting” stage, as Rivers points out, “the student must learn to articulate acceptably and construct comprehensible language sequences by rapid associations of learned elements.”(Rivers, 1972)The communicative drills developed by Paulston (1974) could be utilized. She groups drills into mechanical drills, meaningful drills, and communicative drills.

However, Rivers points out that no matter how much we relate these activities to real-life situations, this practice rarely passes beyond pseudo-communication. It is extremely directed, not self-originating. Rivers maintains the importance of “skills-using”activities. In this stage, the learner should be on her own and not supported or directed by the teacher. She may be working one-on-one with another student or with a small group of students. In this type of practice the student would be allowed to use anything she knows of the language and any aids (gesture, drawings, pantomime, etc.)to express her meaning when she is “at a loss for words.” Consequently it offers an opportunity for language acquisition. As Stern points out, the activity “offers the learner a chance of developing coping techniques that the learner needs when he finds himself alone in the new language environment.”(Stern, 1981)

4.3 Strategic Competence Training

The communicative approach to language teaching has been welcomed and adopted in many parts of the world. As a crucial component of communicative competence, strategic competence is often neglected by some Chinese EFL teachers who believe the training of using CSs is not necessary, not feasible, or even a total waste of time. Strategic competence is relevant to both LI and L2, since communication breakdowns occur and must be overcome not only in a foreign language but in one's mother tongue as well. However, since CS refers to strategies and skills to be used when communication is difficult, they are of crucial importance for foreign language learners. In fact, for the Chinese EFL learners, the linguistic environment for English acquisition is not ideal at all. Most learners do not have much chance to practice speaking English in class, not to mention after class. Even

some with a firm knowledge of grammar and a wide range of vocabulary get stuck and are unable to achieve their goal of communication from time to time, due to a lack of strategic competence. In writing, too, teachers may find some students “give up” very easily when they encounter a language difficulty, such as a word or an idiom that cannot be retrieved. They may leave a blank, use a wrong word, or even fill Chinese words in its place. On the other hand, there are learners who can communicate successfully with only one hundred words—they rely almost entirely on their strategic competence.

Thus we can see the mastery of CS is important to Chinese EFL learners. Now the problem is how to make them achieve this competence. Paribakht (1985), for example, found that strategic competence in LI is transferable to L2 learning situations, and thus adult learners often enter the L2 learning situation with a fairly developed strategic competence. And there have been many researches home and abroad which indicate CS can be taught or trained with fruitful result. Wildner-Bassett(1986) provides evidence, for example, that explicit instruction can increase both the quality and quantity of time-gaining fillers used by students. Faerch and Kasper (1986) and Tarone and Yule (1989) report on four different classroom projects that successfully incorporated strategy training into foreign language instruction. Rost (1994) conducted a questionnaire survey among teachers of conversation-based L2 classes, in which they were asked to indicate to what extent they considered certain (primarily interactional) communication strategies to be useful and teachable. Several strategies, including using conversational fillers, were considered highly teachable.

O'Malley's (Dornyei & Thurrell,1991:18) research provides some evidence for the teachability of CS:

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

According to the study this paper presents, the following are the key points of carrying out strategic competence training.

1. Raising learner awareness about the nature and functions of CSs. This means

making learners recognize strategies already in their repertoire, sensitizing them to situations where these strategies could be applied appropriately, training them to appropriately and skillfully use these strategies in interactions. A full introduction of CSs based on Tarone et al.'s classification is necessary at the beginning of the training. Opportunities for the learners to practice using these strategies need to be created. Pair work is a recommendable approach. One learner tries to give definition to a given word or to offer description of an object and the other learner merely listens and guess what that word or object is. In writing, examples of well-used CSs should be exhibited to the learners, and teachers can assign some short writing practice which involves some language difficulties for the learners to overcome.

2. Encouraging students to be willing to take risks and use CSs. This means creating atmosphere where they can manipulate available target language without being afraid of making errors.
3. Providing target language models of the use of certain CSs. This can be done through demonstrations, listening materials and videos. Teachers need to make learners identify, categorize, and evaluate strategies used by native speakers or other English learners. For example, a taped dialogue goes like this:
Native speaker: ... what did you do at the party?
Learner: I...well...I drink some... what...果汁怎么说?
After listening to this dialogue, the learners are asked to list CSs used in it. In writing the teacher can provide the learners with a sample essay with apparent CSs used in it, so that the learners can identify these CSs and get a deep understanding of them.
4. Providing opportunities for practice in CS use and encouraging the use of certain CSs over others. The function of CSs as immediate first aid devices can only be fulfilled if their use has reached an automatic stage. Learners need to know that breakdowns in communication is inevitable, thus the practice of using CSs is quite necessary. They also need to know that certain CSs, especially the achievement strategies, requires higher-level of language proficiency than the reduction strategies. This can be realized by making a comparison by themselves when the teacher provide them with some sample dialogues or essays with language breakdowns to analyze. The basic principles are: 1) encouraging the use of achievement strategies and discouraging the use of

reduction strategies; 2) circumlocution, approximation are favored over other achievement strategies; 3) appealing for help is also a way of getting the message across, but it should be carried out in English.

5. Highlighting cross-cultural differences in CS use. Teachers need to make learners conscious of the different degrees of stylistic appropriateness associated with CSs (e.g., some particular CSs that are quite common in Chinese may be seen as indications of bad style in English), differences in the frequency of certain CSs in the learners' s mother tongue and English and differences in the verbalization of particular CSs.

As a crucial part of communicative competence, strategic competence largely determines the learners' target language fluency and skills. The training of learners' strategic competence is necessary and feasible. After all, CSs have already been developed in the learners' mother tongue. Activities that allow and encourage learners to transfer these strategies to their target language communication are effective training of their strategic competence. This kind of training not only develops confidence in the learners, but only facilitates their linguistic creativity. Moreover, to many learners, it is enjoyable.

4.4 Revelation to Syllabus Construction

Knowing a language means knowing how it fulfils communicative function. Many EFL teachers have realized that it is inadequate for learners to possess knowledge about language rules and forms. No doubt that EFL teaching is to cultivate students' communicative competence of using English. As a country with the largest population learning English in the world, China is deeply involved in communicative language teaching, which often uses a functional-notional syllabus.

A communicative syllabus aims at developing the learner's communicative competence. Based on a notional-functional syllabus, it teaches the language needed to express and understand different kinds of functions and emphasizes the process of communication. Janice Yalden (1983) lists ten components of a communicative syllabus:

1. As detailed a consideration as possible of the purpose for which the learners wish to acquire the target language.
2. Some idea of the setting in which they will want to use the target language (physical aspects need to be considered as well as social setting).

3. The socially defined role the learners will assume in the target language, as well as the roles of their interlocutors.
4. The communicative events in which the learners will participate: everyday situations, vocational or professional situations, academic situations and so on.
5. The language functions involved in these events or what the learner will need to be able to do with or through the language.
6. The notion involved, or what the learner will need to be able to think about.
7. The skills involved in the “knitting together” of discourse: discourse and rhetorical skills.
8. The variety or varieties of the target language that will be needed, and the levels in the spoken and written language, which the learners will need to reach.
9. The grammatical content that will be needed.
10. The lexical content that will be needed.

As a crucial part of the communicative competence, cultivating learners' strategic competence seems to be neglected in the above list. As an important means of communicating successfully when speakers are faced with a production problem due to their lack of linguistic knowledge, CS should be part of English language teaching and ELT syllabus. a systematic strategic competence training should be integrated in the normal English teaching course. Offering learners help towards accomplishing their communicative goal with various CSs, and leading them to use more of the CSs that requires higher-level of English proficiency is a worthy objective of communicative language instruction.

4.5 Assessment of learners' Communicative Competence

Long gone are the exclusively teacher-centered classrooms. However, when we look at the English examinations in most Chinese universities, strong evidence can be found to suggest that the way of assessing learners' language level is still ruled by the traditional view of language skill assessment. For example, the final examinations are mostly taken within 3 hours with emphasis on the correctness of written word. What is being assessed is actually the learners' grammatical competence. Other elements of communicative competence, esp. strategic competence, can hardly be assessed in such kind of tests. Since language learners are required to acquire a practical mastery of

target language for the natural communicative use of it, finding an effective way to assess their communicative competence as a whole is a hard but beneficial work.

Rod Ellis discusses a way of evaluating communicative performance in a second language in his article *Communication Strategies and the Evaluation of Communicative Performance*. Rather than focusing on correctness, intelligibility, or style, he suggests that attention should be paid to **communication** strategies. The article goes on to describe a study in which an attempt was made to assess communicative performance from this point of view. According to Ellis, the notion of CS can be a useful means for evaluating L2 communicative performance. By attending to the degree to which learners avoid reference to important items of information, and paraphrase information they choose to encode, teachers may be able to form a fairly reliable assessment of learners' performance, and this assessment can be obtained informally by attending impressionistically to the CSs that the learners use.

Task-based assessments as a means of implementing communicative competence assessment are recommended in that it is accessible and meaningful both to teachers and learners. In the process of this kind of assessment, the assessment tasks need to mirror real-life events, and to test the students' ability to use their grammatical, sociolinguistic, strategic and discourse competence within a practical and plausible context. For example, for writing assessment, the teacher may create a scene in which the learner gets a letter in English from a pen pal asking for information about traveling in China, and the learner need to respond to it in English; and for speaking, the learner prepares to talk on a certain topic to a native English speaker, in the meantime prepares to deal with reactions such as questions, disbelief, etc.. One advantage of these task-based assessments is that assessment tasks can be tailored to the needs and interests of learners in various English learning programs. Most importantly, this is an effective way to test learners' communicative competence.

The assessment of a learner's communicative competence must include tasks or programs to assess his or her grammatical, sociolinguistic, strategic and discourse competence. Thus when the teacher is making the assessment, he or she should judge in these four aspects. Figure 4.3 below is an example of how to test a task performance. The criteria for assessment include the four aspects of communicative competence, and can be graded from 1 to 5 with one meaning "never" and 5 meaning "always".

Speech/writing is grammatically correct	1	2	3	4	5
Adjust style and content of speech/writing according to the communication partner & situation	1	2	3	4	5
Speech/writing is understandable even when the topic is unknown	1	2	3	4	5
Use the correct vocabulary	1	2	3	4	5
Use vocabulary that is socially appropriate	1	2	3	4	5
Communication goal is achieved even when there are language difficulties for the speaker	1	2	3	4	5

Figure 4.3

Conclusion

Ever since Hymes proposed the idea of communicative competence and Canale & Swain discussed its implications for language teaching, Communicative Language Teaching has achieved prominence. Notions about how to teach English as a foreign language have changed over the years and have been influenced by research in how second languages are learned. More and more linguists and language teachers have realized and accepted the concept: language is learnt to communicate. Cultivating learners' communicative competence not only involves training of the four skills--listening, speaking, reading and writing, but also include other competences such as strategic competence, which involves the mastery of communication strategies. Communication Strategy refers to the linguistic or sometimes non-linguistic signals used by speakers who encounter breakdowns in communication in place of the linguistic expression which they desire to use. The taxonomies offered by various researchers vary according to different overall categorizing principles. Following Tarone *et al.*'s taxonomy of CS, an experiment was carried out in this study to obtain statistics on the choice of CSs of a class of English majors in their English communication. Through contrastive analysis of the data collected from the experiment, the author aims at finding out whether the learners' target language proficiency level influences their application of CSs and how this influence functions, if any.

The result of this study indicates a clear link between learners' target language proficiency levels and their application of CSs in speaking and writing. Generally speaking, the less proficient learners would more likely to turn to reduction strategies, while the more proficient learners would more frequently use achievement strategies. The study also suggests that a shift in a learner's level of target proficiency would affect his use of CSs. That is, learners seem to abandon or adopt certain CSs, and alter their proportional use of certain strategies as they approach the target language. A clear tendency reflected by the data is the more proficient a learner becomes, the less reduction strategies he would use.

This link between target language proficiency and CS use has many implications. First, strategic competence develops with the learner's increasing language experience in his L1, and is freely transferable to L2 learning situations without causing interference; the implementation of strategic competence depends upon the

availability of other competencies (e.g. grammatical and sociolinguistic competence) in the target language and other knowledge areas such as contextual, world, and paralinguistic.

Second, the development of learners' target language proficiency affects the actual realization of their CS. Although the learners may share strategic competence, they differ greatly in implementing that competence, for their strategies interact with their different levels of proficiency. Low target language proficiency may exclude the adoption of certain achievement strategies which require more target language knowledge than the learner has already acquired. On the other hand, among the strategies used by the learners of lower proficiency level, there is often a lack of grammatical accuracy that may diminish the informative value of these strategies. These facts may cumulatively affect the learner's successful and effective use of CS in conveying meaning.

Third, in language teaching area, it should be accepted that communication, communicative competence and communicative language teaching are all key concepts. Cultivating learners' strategic competence is important and can go hand in hand with their regular language learning curriculum. Syllabus and classroom teaching need to involve programs cultivating learners' strategic competence, exam designers also need to take the assessment of this competence into consideration.

Two limitations to this study must be noted. First, subjects chosen for this study are relatively small in number. Thus this study only shows on a small scale the interaction between target language proficiency and the choice of CS of the English majors. Furthermore, although there are interviews to get data for CSs actually used in speaking, there are no compositions used as an instrument to collect data for CSs actually used in writing, because in the learners' compositions, certain CSs such as topic avoidance and approximation cannot be easily and scientifically detected. It may be fruitful for further studies to focus on the scientific ways to identify the different types of CSs used in writing. It is the author's sincere hope that this research would be helpful for further studies on communicative competence and communication strategies.

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Appendices

Appendix 1

英语专业学生交际策略运用调查问卷 (一)

年齡:

性别:

一、请在你认为最符合你实际情况的选项番号上打勾

1. 交际策略是指语言学习者在遇到由于语言资源有限而无法表达某些信息的情况时，为了克服交流障碍而采用的技能。你是否曾经听说过这个概念？
A. 没有 B. 听说过
2. 你是否曾经参加过专门的交际策略培训？
A. 没有 B. 有
3. 上英语课时，老师是否讲过在口语交流中遇到希望表达而又没有学过的词汇时该怎么办？
A. 从没提过 B. 讲过一点 C. 很系统地讲过方法
4. 你认为自己从进入大学到现在，练习英语口语的机会多吗？
A. 几乎不练 B. 基本只有上课时说 C. 课外常常练习
5. 在英语口语交流中，遇到不知道如何用英语表达自己某个观点时，你认为自己是否有很多方法让对方仍然能明白自己的意思？
A. 不，我完全没有办法 B. 不会很多方法，但会用一两个 C. 是的，我很有办法
6. 你在英语写作时，会担心遇到不会写的生词或短语吗？
A. 从不担心 B. 有时担心 C. 经常担心

二、请在以下四个个选项当中选择最符合你实际情况的一项填在句子后的括号里。

- A. 这种方法我从来或几乎从来不用。
- B. 这种方法我偶尔会用。
- C. 这种方法我用得比较多。
- D. 这种方法我用得非常多。

7. 在用英语交谈时,遇到有不会表达的地方,我会停在那里,不了了之。()
8. 在口语交流中碰到不会表达的内容,我就省略一部分,表达大概的意思。()
9. 在口语交流中,发现一个话题表达起来会很困难,我会尽量避开讨论这个话题。()
10. 在口语交流中,发现接下来的单词不会说,我会用举例的方法尽量让对方明白我的意思,比如不知道“家用电器”“household appliances”怎么说,就用“tv set, washing machine, computer, dish washer, air-conditioner and so on”来表示。()
11. 在口语交流中,发现接下来的单词不会说,我会用具体描述的方法让对方明白我的意思,比如忘记了衣柜“wardrobe”怎么说,就解释为“a chest where you put all your clothes”;不知道三角架“tripod”怎么说,就用“three-leg device”来替代。()
12. 用英语交谈时遇到不会表达的单词,我会设法找个近义词来代替,比如用“kind”替换“amiable”。()
13. 在口语交流中,遇到不会表达的英文单词,我会用它的上义词,也就是能代表整个这一类事物的词汇来替换它,比如想表达“He was killed by a cobra”时,用“snake”来代替“cobra”;想表达“They bought a minivan”时,用“car”来代替“minivan”,等等。()
14. 在口语交流中,遇到不会表达的单词,我会大胆地凭语感自己造一个英文单词或短语以达到交流的目的,比如把“完美主义者”“perfectionist”说成“perfecter”,把“定时器”“timer”说成“time-settler”,等等。()
15. 英语口语表达有困难的时候,我会借助身体语言(如手势,耸肩等)、面部表情、形体和声音的模仿、画图等等一些非语言的方式来帮助对方理解。()
16. 在口语交流中,如果找不到对应的英语表达,我会直接按中文的字面意思翻译成英语,比如用“yellow book”来表示“黄色书刊”,在表达“不客气地说,……”句型的时候用“impolitely speaking, ...”,等等。()
17. 在口语交流中,有无法用英文表达的词汇,我会用中文词汇来替代,比如“Today we had a class in a 阶梯 classroom。”()
18. 在口语交流中,遇到表达困难的时候,我会通过提问(如“What do you call...?”),或用疑惑的面部表情,停顿等暗示的方式,来向对方求助。()
19. 在口语交流中,一时想不起来该如何表达,我会用“well”,“let me see”,“as a matter of fact”之类的表达方式为自己的思考拖延时间。()
20. 在英语写作的时候,发现自己的某个想法很难用英语表达,我会写不下去了。()

21. 在英语写作的时候，有无法用英文表达的词汇，我会在相应的位置留下空白，然后继续写作。（ ）
22. 英语写作的时候，发现自己的某个想法很难用英语表达，我会放弃这个想法，转而写其他的素材。（ ）
23. 在英语写作的时候，遇到自己不知道的单词，我会用举例的方法来表达这个单词，如用“tv set, washing machine, computer, dish washer, air-conditioner and so on”来表示“household appliances”。（ ）
24. 在英语写作的时候，遇到自己不知道的单词，我会用具体描述的方法来表达这个单词，如用“three-leg device”来替代三角架。（ ）
25. 在英语写作的时候，遇到自己不知道的单词，我会另选一个意思相近的词来替换，比如用“lesson”来替换“curriculum”。（ ）
26. 在英语写作的时候，遇到自己不知道的单词，我会它的上义词，也就是能代表整个这一类事物的词汇来替换它，比如想表达“He was killed by a cobra”时，用“snake”来代替“cobra”；想表达“They bought a minivan”时，用“car”来代替“minivan”，等等。（ ）
27. 在英语写作的时候，遇到自己不知道的单词，我会自己造一个英文单词或短语以使写作可以继续下去，比如忘记了“汽球”的英文，便用“airball”来表达。（ ）
28. 在英语写作的时候，如果找不到对应的英语表达，我会直接按中文的字面意思翻译成英语，比如用“husband sings, wife follows”来表达“夫唱妇随”。（ ）
29. 在英语写作的时候，有无法用英文表达的词汇，我会在相应的位置用中文来替换它，以让写作得以继续下去。（ ）

Appendix 2

英语专业学生交际策略运用调查问卷（二）

姓名：

一、请在你认为最符合你实际情况的选项番号上打勾

1. 在本学期的英语口语交流中，遇到不知道如何用英语表达自己某个观点时，你认为自己是否有很多方法让对方仍然能明白自己的意思？
A. 不，我完全没有办法 B. 不会很多方法，但会用一两个 C. 是的，我很有办法
2. 你在英语写作时，会担心遇到不会写的生词或短语吗？
A. 从不担心 B. 有时担心 C. 经常担心

二、请在以下四个个选项当中选择最符合你实际情况的一项填在句子后的括号里。

- A. 这种方法我从来或几乎从来不用。
- B. 这种方法我偶尔会用。
- C. 这种方法我用得比较多。
- D. 这种方法我用得非常多。

在本学期的口语交流中：

3. 遇到有不会表达的地方，我会停在那里，不了了之。（ ）
4. 碰到不会表达的内容，我就省略一部分，表达大概的意思。（ ）
5. 发现一个话题表达起来会很困难，我会尽量避开讨论这个话题。（ ）
6. 发现接下来的单词不会说，我会用举例的方法尽量让对方明白我的意思。（ ）
7. 发现接下来的单词不会说，我会用具体描述的方法让对方明白我的意思。（ ）
8. 遇到不会表达的单词，我会设法找个近义词来代替。（ ）
9. 遇到不会表达的单词，我会用它的上义词，即能代表整个这一类事物的词汇来替换。（ ）
10. 遇到不会表达的单词，我会大胆地凭语感自己造一个英文单词或短语以达到交流的目的。（ ）

11. 表达有困难的时候，我会借助身体语言（如手势，耸肩等）、面部表情、形体和声音的模仿、画图等等一些非语言的方式来帮助对方理解。（ ）
12. 如果找不到对应的英语表达，我会直接按中文的字面意思翻译成英语。（ ）
13. 有无法用英文表达的词汇，我会用中文词汇来替代。（ ）
14. 遇到表达困难的时候，我会通过提问（如 “What do you call...?”），或用疑惑的面部表情，停顿等暗示的方式，来向对方求助。（ ）
15. 一时想不起来该如何表达，我会用 “well”, “let me see”, “as a matter of fact” 之类的表达方式来的为自己的思考拖延时间。（ ）

在本学期的英语写作中：

16. 发现自己的某个想法很难用英语表达，我会写不下去了。（ ）
17. 有无法用英文表达的词汇，我会在相应的位置留下空白，然后继续写作。（ ）
18. 发现自己的某个想法很难用英语表达，我会放弃这个想法，转而写其他的素材。（ ）
19. 遇到自己不知道的单词，我会用举例的方法来表达这个单词。（ ）
20. 遇到自己不知道的单词，我会用具体描述的方法来表达这个单词。（ ）
21. 遇到自己不知道的单词，我会另选一个意思相近的词来替换。（ ）
22. 遇到不知道的单词，我会它的上义词，也就是能代表整个这一类事物的词汇来替换它。（ ）
23. 遇到自己不知道的单词，我会自己造一个英文单词或短语以使写作可以继续下去。（ ）
24. 如果找不到对应的英语表达，我会直接按中文的字面意思翻译成英语。（ ）
25. 有无法用英文表达的词汇，我会在相应的位置用中文来替换它以使写作得以继续下去。（ ）

Appendix 3

2008—2009 第二学期实验班基础英语成绩

200811010601	苗吉	62
200811010602	杜彬	74
200811010603	赵一龙	77
200811010605	曾光	77
200811010606	李亚	76
200811010607	孙佳慧	60
200811010608	康清	78
200811010609	李丹	79
200811010610	张美思	85
200811010611	陈智	86
200811010612	沈丽虹	84
200811010613	郭君梅	74
200811010614	王玉娇	79
200811010615	黄雪梅	73
200811010616	尤璐	79
200811010617	樊芷君	70
200811010618	黄麟鸿	77
200811010619	齐藤	86
200811010621	孟玥	87
200811010622	樊亚飞	81
200811010623	吕晨	68
200811010624	刘玥	73
200811010625	王丹	87
200811010626	李小丽	77
200811010627	鲁阳益	81
200811010628	付静	68
200811010629	张鑫	72
200811010630	刘婷	85
200811010631	滕春艳	80
200811010633	朱寅婕	72