

# COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES EMPLOYED BY EFL LEARNERS

Indawan Syahri  
Universitas Muhammadiyah Palembang  
indawansyahri\_ump@yahoo.co.id

## Abstract

*Communication strategies have something to do with ends and means. This current study attempts to answer the questions "What types of communication strategies were used by the speakers in speaking activities?" and "What were the functions of the communication strategies produced by the speakers in their interactions in performing the same tasks?" The investigation was conducted to the subjects taking Speaking Class at the English Study Program, Faculty of Teacher Training and Education, Universitas Muhammadiyah Palembang. The findings show that there were eleven types of communication strategies used by EFL learners in their interactions stimulated by the reading passages and pictures specifically utilized for data collection. Communication strategies were used by the speakers not only because of compensating for insufficient means, but also the need of communication.*

**Keywords/ phrases:** *Conversational analysis, Communication strategies, EFL learners*

## A. INTRODUCTION

Communication skills do not only depend on the speaker's accurate use of grammar, but also on other factors, such as social relationship, gender, social status, and educational background of the participants in communication (Broughton, et al., 1978). Hymes (1972) also claims that communicative competence, especially speaking proficiency is not only influenced by the speaker's grammatical knowledge, but also by other factors, such as, his mastery of the subject matter, his addressee/audience or the interlocutor, the time, and the situation when he is having a conversation. For example, the speakers of English will not form a

polite request with *would* when he asks his close friend to help him because he knows that it is not appropriate to do so. The form of polite request using *would* such as in "*Would you like to help me?*" will sound funny, if it is used in such a casual situation. In other words, communicative competence does not only involve linguistic or grammatical competence, but also other components of competence. They are sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence, and strategic competence (Savignon, 1983; Canale and Swain, 1980; Canale, 1983; and Brown, 1987). Moreover Peccel (1999:4-7) gives examples of how communication depends on these four components as follows:

- (a) Matt : Do you want some  
          cake?  
      Chris : I'm on a diet.  
(b) Jane : Coffee?  
      Steve: Sure!  
      Jane : White?  
      Steve : Black.

Example (a) shows that Matt offers Chris some cakes, then Chris regrets by saying *I'm on a diet*. Linguistically, *I'm on a diet* is not the answer because the question starts with 'Do'. The correct answer is *Yes, I do* or *No, I don't*. Example (b) shows that the utterances used do not consist of full sentences yet are entirely understandable in the context. It is clear that the success in communicating and understanding the messages does not only depend on linguistic competence. In harmony with the contexts, the interlocutors are successful to choose the effective and appropriate utterances to express the intended meanings. They apply their socio-linguistic, discourse and strategic competences.

There are two studies that are closely related to this topic. They are "Communication Strategies in East-West Interactions" by Tarone and Yule (1987) and the results are written in Smith (1987) and "Code-Switching in a Turkish Secondary School" by Eldridge (1996).

The first study deals with the types and differences of communication strategies produced by both English native speakers (NS) and non-native speaker (NNS). The NNS subjects were South American and Asian. The subjects were given the same tasks, i.e., to talk about a serial photographs A, B, and C as visual stimuli. The findings showed that communication strategies produced

were classified into two general categories. The first category consisted of the strategies that were already documented in the literature, e.g., **circumlocution**, **approximation**, **avoidance**, **message abandonment**, **mime** and **literal translation**. These strategies occurred in NNS-NNS interactions. The second category consisted of the strategies that are newly observed, meaning that not previously noted in the literature in the study. They were three communication strategies in this category: **repetition**, **explicitation**, and **over-explicitness**. However, two strategies that were already documented in the literatures, did not occur: **language switch** and **appeal to authority** (for assistance).

The second study specifically deals with language-switch strategy. The study used another term, code switching, which refers to **language switch** (see Tarone, 1978). The code switching appears to be a natural and purposeful phenomenon, which facilitates both communication and learning. There were three conclusions dealing with Eldridge's study on "Code-switching in a Turkish Secondary School". First, code switching was a strategy that yields in short-term benefits to the second/foreign language learner, but with a risk of hampering long-term acquisition. Second, its manifestation could be analyzed in term of interlanguage. The third was that there might be a strong relationship between learners' style, ability and code switching.

Communication strategy is the component of strategic competence in speaking activities that is helpful in sending messages effectively, balancing and compensating for the speakers' weaknesses/shortages in

other competence mastery. Based on the three functions of communication strategies above, the problems dealt with the following questions: (1) what types of communication strategies were used by the speakers in speaking activities? and (2) what were the functions of the communication strategies produced by the speakers in their interactions in performing the same tasks?

## **B. RESEARCH METHOD**

The subjects of the study were the students of English Education Study Program at Faculty of Teacher Training and Education, the *Muhammadiyah* University of Palembang. They were semester IV students who took Speaking IV course. Among the four classes, I took one, that is, Class B consisting 30 students. Recruiting them as the subjects, I assumed the technique of collecting data was relevant to the teaching techniques and materials used in the class. The study was simultaneously conducted with the teaching program by the lecturer teaching the class.

The data were collected by means of *elicitation techniques* and *observation*. The first techniques aimed at obtaining the data by means of a stimulus, for example, a picture, a diagram, as well as those based on questionnaire, survey, and interview data (Nunan, 1992). For the stimuli I used some pictures and reading passages. The tasks were to discuss about the topic stimulated by the pictures and reading passages. So, the basic data contained the verbatim forms of the conversation and talks produced by the subjects that reflected categories of communication strategies. The second technique was proposed to obtain the

information about the types and the functions of communication strategies used by the subjects.

The followings were the steps and instruments that I used for applying the procedures in collecting data.

### **1. Recording**

By conducting the elicitation technique, the subjects were expected to be active in participating in discussion and conversations. They were motivated to make sentences or utterances which were related to the stimulus provided. Since the data were not in written form, recording technique was used. The utterances produced were recorded. The instruments used were tape-recorders and blank-cassettes. The tape recorders were used to record the talks and discussions occurred in the classroom. There are four types of data in form of transcripts that were collected.

The first corpus is the transcript collected from the discussion on "Who gets the Heart?" The subjects were asked to discuss which patient would be put on the first to sixth priorities to receive the heart. The subjects were given roles as the members of a heart transplant surgery team at a hospital. There were six critically ill patients that needed to be considered. They had chances of living, but could die at any time.

The second corpus contained the data collected from the discussion on 'Telling about the pictures'. There were 12 pictures of post-card size used for this purpose. Twelve pictures were given to the subjects. Every two students were given a picture then they talked about it. After discussing about it

with their partner, they told the class about the pictures. Some subjects talked about the pictures directly. Others talked about some characteristics or properties of the pictures then asked the others what the pictures were about.

The third corpus contained the data collected from the discussion on 'What Articles to Take?' The subjects were asked to discuss about what a war-journalist should take to cover a place where battles or riots occurred. They were given two lists of articles. The first list consisted of ten articles that the war-journalist would take. The second list consisted of twenty-six articles. The subjects were asked to select another ten articles from twenty-six articles. The subjects, after selecting the articles by themselves, discussed with their partners, that is, paired-group discussions; then, they discussed their selection in small groups. Finally, they had classroom discussions. The corpus that could be transcribed was only classroom discussions.

The fourth corpus contained the data collected from the discussion on 'Woman's Work'. It was a short discussion done before they read a reading passage about Woman's Work. There were no paired-group and small group discussions on this topic. When they got the text and were elicited by 'the differences between men and women's jobs' they directly responded. Some of them said that there were no differences, but others said there were differences between men's jobs and women's jobs. The discussion continued and their ideas remained in dichotomies, that is, agreement and disagreement on

'genders influence the chances of getting jobs'.

## **2. Field-noting**

Field notes were the written accounts of what the researcher heard, saw, experienced and thought in the course of collecting and reflecting on the data in qualitative study (Bogdon and Biklen, 1982). In this study, field notes contained written accounts of what I observed during the study especially the strategies dealing with communication strategies. Then the field notes were crosschecked to the recordings. I found it useful to use this technique. When I transcribed the recordings, the field notes reminded me about the situations in which the interlocutors used the communication strategies. They were significantly used for deciding the functions of strategies the interlocutors used. As a result, the interviews were used only for confirming the functions of communication strategies.

## **3. Transcribing**

The recorded talks and discussions were transcribed into verbatim forms (Hitchcock and Hughes, 1989). This technique was applied to identify types of communication strategies, then to classify them based on the groups of communication strategies and finally to find the functions of communication strategies used by different groups of subjects. Since transcribing was not easy and time-consuming, Hitchcock and Hughes (1989) proposed the mechanics of transcribing, which I applied in the study, i.e., to listen through the complete recording at least twice without attempting to write anything down, to listen again

by using headphones to get the researcher or transcriber close to the data and to eliminate any distracting extraneous background noise, to listen to short 'chunks' of talk and note it down, and to play and replay the tape backwards and forwards in order to get an accurate transcript, to listen to the tape again as a whole while going through its transcript and make any additions and corrections, stop the tape at the appropriate points in order to facilitate this, and to get another person to listen to the recordings and crosscheck the transcript.

The data collected were analyzed by means of conversational analysis. The conversational analysis emerged in a school of sociology known as ethnomethodology, and the rules and the procedures employed were sociological rather than linguistic in character (Nunan, 1992). This analysis was distinctive from discourse analysis. The discourse analysis studied textual factors, that is, the relationship between language and the contexts in which it was used, for instance, the use of reference and conjunction, which contributed to cohesive discourse (Levinson, 1983; McCarthy, 1991; Nunan, 1992). In relation to the study, the analysis covered communication strategies such as the management of turn-taking, repair strategies, the resolution of ambiguity, speaker selection, and the topic relevance. Specifically the talks and discussions recorded and written in verbatim forms as well as the data from the field notes were analyzed in ways of identifying and classifying communication strategies and their different functions that were used by the subjects.

In order to maintain validity and avoid biases in collecting and analyzing the data, I used triangulation technique. As commonly defined, triangulation is a validity check that applies more than one methods of data collection within a single study (Stubbs, 1983). Hitchcock and Hughes (1991) pointed out triangulation refers to two techniques of checking validity. The first was that 'between methods' triangulation referred to the technique which applied more than one methods of data collection within a single study. The second was 'within methods' triangulation which refers to replication of a study using the same techniques of data collection. Related to the study, I used the first technique, so that, I used another technique, i.e., *interviews* for this purpose. The interviews were used to confirm the functions of communication strategies that had been identified.

## **C. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS**

### ***1. The Types of Communication Strategies***

The findings show that there were eleven types of communication strategies used by the subjects in their interactions stimulated by the reading passages and pictures specifically utilized for data collection. **Repetition** was most frequently used, i.e. 22 (27%) of all strategies applied. **Approximation** was 17 (21%), **Language Switch** 12 (15%), **Explication** 8 (10%), **Literal Translation** 7 (8%), **Circumlocution** 4 (5%), **Message Abandonment** 3 (4%), **Repair** 3 (4%), **Over-explicitness** 3 (4%), **Appeal for Assistance** 1 (1%), and **Word Coinage** 1 (1%) of 79 strategies appeared (see Table 1).

Table 1 Frequency of Strategy Occurrences

No	Types of strategies	Frequency	Percent
1	Repetition	22	27
2	Approximation	17	21
3	Language switch	12	15
4	Literal translation	7	8
5	Explication	8	10
6	Message abandonment	3	4
7	Word coinage	1	1
8	Repair	3	4
9	Over-explicitness	3	4
10	Appeal for assistance	1	1
11	Circumlocution	4	5
		79	100

## 2. *The Functions of Communication Strategies*

Related to the linguistic means, the speakers used the communication strategies because of having insufficient linguistic means or to adapt to the listeners' communicative competence. The speakers wonder whether or not the listeners get the messages they were conveying. Both are the general reasons why the speakers use the strategies. In this study I observed more specific functions of communication strategies. I present the functions of each category of communication strategies occurring in interactions that were the results of conversational analysis and the interviews with the subjects

### a. Repetition

Repetition had several functions in the interactions. The functions were the reasons why the subjects utilized repetition strategy. It was evident that repetition was used as one type of the strategies in interactions for three main functions, that is, the message-based, interlocutor-based, and management-based functions.

The first function was to emphasize or stress the messages that the subjects conveyed. They thought that the messages were important for the speakers to send to their counterparts. They needed to repeat the messages because they thought that by repeating the words or expressions they would be able to achieve the communication goals, i.e., to share the meanings. They repeated some expressions to show how important the messages were and hoped their counterparts knew the intended meanings.

- (1) *I'm sorry\* / sorry / Sorry, I think the tree are very / very fertilizer..., and I think the tree are very. very fertilizer...*

The second function was to compensate their insufficient linguistic means. They wanted to express their ideas, but they did not have adequate linguistic competence to do so. This strategy may be followed by avoidance behavior. They repeated the words or expressions then stopped the turns and avoided talking about the same things as shown in excerpt (2).

- (2) ... for example / ELENA RODRIGUEZ // the first / and FRANKLIN as the third // *and so on / and so on / okay!*

Another reason why the speakers used repetition was to make sure whether or not the listeners caught the messages as in (3)

- (3) ... in *our opinion / our opinion...* and *\*this kind of island\* // this kind of island.*

In these cases, the speakers took the listeners' attention. They used repetition to adapt themselves to the listeners' competence. In addition, repetition was also used to show specific-intended meanings. It was found that one subject repeated 'may be' for several times, for example, ...she / he / still have wife // *may be* has insurance // money and *may be* / she got money too // from his factory / *may be*. She repeated 'may be' for three times to show her uncertainty and probability in the information being conveyed to her counterparts.

As the third function, they used repetition as their strategy to manage themselves in harmony with their fluency,

- (4) ...*Okay / thank you / you / you know the reasons // seven. /children. Between eight and twenty-two / to think and ... yes / but I / I don't what /what mountain is / the name of the mountain...*

The speaker repeated 'you' in the first example and 'I' in the second example for several times. It was evident that the speaker used repetition not only to compensate his linguistic means, but also to manage himself in order to suit his fluency.

Repetition was also used to confirm that the messages were received or understood

- (5) *\*I see / I see\**

### b. Approximation

It was evident that approximation was used to compensate the subjects' insufficient linguistic means. They failed to utter the correct items, but they produced other items. For example, they said

- (6) 'grown' for *a plant*,  
(7) 'rolling wheels' for *roller coaster*,  
(8) 'cultivating' for *ploughing or plowing*,  
(9) 'small jungle' for *bush*,  
(10) 'Waterfall' for *fountain*.

They knew that the words or phrases were not correct, but they did not know the correct ones. In other words, this strategy was used to compensate the speakers' insufficient linguistic means.

### c. Literal Translation

The subjects translated the native language word for word to English because they failed to express their ideas in English appropriately. Notice these examples:

- (11) *Before you born your ideas*  
(12) ... *how much the gold*

The subjects produced some expressions that were directly translated from their native language, for examples, *before you born your ideas* (translated from *sebelum kau melahirkan gagasan*) and ... *how much the gold* (translated from *berapa banyak*). This strategy was used to compensate the speaker's insufficient linguistic resource.

#### d. Language switch

Language switch was used in the interactions because of the speakers' insufficient ability to make the communication alive. The speakers were unable to express their ideas in English, for examples,

- (13) '*preman*' for *an unemployed person*,
- (14) '*lereng-lereng*' for *valleys*,
- (15) '*tiang*' for *pillars*,
- (16) '*kampung*' for *village*.

Another reason was that the speakers wanted to keep the communication alive. They said some expression in then native language in order to make the interlocutors enjoy the communication. They laughed while discussing, for example, '*susu*' for milk, '*duren*' for durian, and '*sapi*' for cow. When the speakers uttered those words most subjects laughed chorally.

The other reason was that the subjects switched into their vernaculars which mostly into Bahasa Indonesia because their counterparts seemed not to understand what were said. They assumed that the listeners had problems to understand. In order to make the expressions catchy they expressed their ideas in their vernaculars. For examples, the speakers said

- (17) '*pondok*' for *hut*
- (18) '*...dak bawak KTP. bawak ATM bae*' for *if not bringing ID card, bring ATM instead*.

The speaker actually said *hut* before saying '*pondok*'. It means that she could say the correct term, but she felt and assumed that the listeners had problems to understand. The second example, '*...dak bawak KTP. bawak ATM bae*' was preceded by

the expression in English *...the war journalist should bring ATM or credit card, in order to show herself or to change as identity card...* It shows that the speaker tried to express the ideas in English but he thought that the listeners did not understand.

In short, the speakers used language-switch strategy not only to compensate their insufficient linguistic means, but also for to maintain group identity or solidarity.

#### e. Repair

Repair strategy was used to make communication going. The subjects realized that they had uttered incorrect expressions and information. They wished their counterparts would catch what they meant by applying the repair strategy. The expressions that the speakers repaired could be the language and the messages. The subjects uttered incorrect words or sentences, but they realized that they had made mistakes or errors then they corrected by themselves, for example,

- (19) '*photo*' repaired by *picture*.

When the speaker said '*photo*' he realized that he had chosen the incorrect word, so that, he corrected by himself with the correct word. However, some speakers used this strategy to repair the information or messages, for example

- (20) *there is many boat // there is only four boats in here* ('many boat' repaired by *four boats*),
- (21) *...the article / the same articles...* ('thearticle' repaired by *the same articles*),
- (22) *for wo... uh for man* ('for wo...' repaired by *for man*).



The speakers corrected themselves so that the messages were correctly conveyed.

#### f. Message abandonment

The subjects used this strategy to avoid continuing expressing their ideas by stopping in mid-utterances. They planned to express certain ideas, but when they uttered some expressions containing the ideas they failed to continue their expressions. They stopped in mid-utterance and changed their ideas into other ideas, for example,

- (23) okay ...let me... after discussing together with my member, ... no / no / let me..., // let him speak first // okay come on ...and ...I think the story. very interest—the cross... I think that's enough.

The subjects avoided the messages and changed them into other messages or just stopped by giving stop-signal like *...I think that's enough*. The three examples above illustrate that the speakers applied their avoidance behaviors, that is, message abandonment.

#### g. Explication

Explication was used to keep communication going. The subjects expressed their ideas in details. They used this strategy to convey the meanings as complete as they planned. The speakers told about and explained the concepts in details. They used explication strategy for this purpose. They explicated the concepts that had been prepared by the speakers. The speakers need to tell the messages in details. They assumed that the messages were important; therefore, they needed to explicate the messages in order the

listeners knew how important the messages were, for example,

- (24) ...there is a play garden-a play garden is a place for entertainment.

Another reason was that the speakers were not able to simplify the messages, so that, they uttered the expression in complicated ways. They seemed to use explication, for example,

- (25) ...I think beside their house // to make easy / to keep a lot of fish // a lot of coconut / or their job or beside of their house // avoid / if one day / if sometime // there is a flood // because there is very very near...

These examples above show that the functions are based on message and speaker orientations. The first example shows that explication used not due to the speaker's insufficient linguistic means, but due to the need of detail explanation. While the second example shows that the speaker was unable to simplify the complicated messages, due to his insufficient linguistic means. In short the functions of this strategy were to explain the messages in details and to compensate the speakers' insufficient linguistic competence.

#### h. Circumlocution

Circumlocution was used to make communication alive. The subjects used this strategy to present the characteristics of the objects they told about. By presenting the characteristics of the objects, the listeners would know what the objects were. For instance,

(26) *this picture describe about scenery // scenery one of beach in. at Sulawesi // but I don't know // which Sulawesi // but I don't know exactly which Sulawesi / in this // because / it is not written / from this picture // there are a lot of coconut tree / coconut tree // I think / if the island have a lot of coconut tree // it's in south Sulawesi // it can be seen from this picture // there are a coconut tree at the fisherman village // fisherman village / it means / some of this...., and pay attention, please! I'll talk about the picture // this picture is about the scenery // it is very beautiful // I see coconut trees here // a top of mountain / rice field and garden // I see a man or farmer who is cultivating the rice field // he is cultivating the rice field / here // the flood and the two buffaloes here // yah / it's very beautiful from the picture // this place is in Indonesia // and it is very well for farming place in Indonesia // it's called paradise island / paradise island // you know?*

The subjects used this strategy to explain to the counterparts about what they saw in the pictures.

When the speakers got the pictures they tried to tell the properties of the pictures to their counterparts. They uttered some expressions dealt with the pictures then asked the counterparts to guess what the pictures were. In order to make the communication alive, they did not tell directly what the pictures were. They let their counterparts get what the pictures were.

#### **i. Word Coinage**

One of the subjects in interactions used word-coinage strategy.

He made up a new word to express their ideas.

(27) 'neclear'

The speaker said 'neclear' in communicating his ideas. When I tried to clarify what 'neclear' meant, he said he meant that *need to make it clear*, he explained that he produced that term unintentionally. It seemed to me that the speaker, though not on purpose, produced his own morphological construction, that is, acronym. He used acronym in order to shorten the long phrases.

#### **j. Over-explicitness**

The speakers explained something over-explicitly. They entailed their statements by saying the characteristics or elements of the concepts, for example,

(28) *...she is welfares she dies // they can continue // their life / because of being rich, ... because my rice field // my paddy / yah. my paddy here / look so fertile // then. I would be / no / I will be very very rich farmer // because my rice field so wonderful // so well // and the paddy so yellow...., and okay actually // the list above // yah / the articles // the articles listed above.*

The examples show that the function of this strategy was to emphasize meanings of the messages. It was on the basis of the need of informing the messages more explicitly. This strategy was used to emphasize or stress the meanings. By explaining the ideas over-explicitly, the speakers wished that their counterparts would understand the messages conveyed.

#### k. Appeal for Assistance

Appeal for assistance strategy was used to ask for the meanings that were conveyed. The speaker asked for the meanings of expressions directly. He did not understand what his counterpart said; therefore, he asked for help to tell what his counterpart meant. The way he asked was like to confirm by saying

(29) *he is –what?*

He did not know for sure what his counterpart talked about, that is why, he followed up by appealing for assistance. This strategy occurred due to psychological factor, that is, uncertainty. The speaker was doubtful whether or not he understood what the other said.

### C. CONCLUSIONS AND TEACHING IMPLICATIONS

The findings show that there were eleven types of communication strategies used by EFL learners in their interactions stimulated by the reading passages and pictures specifically utilized for data collection. The strategies were used to make the communication effective. Communication strategies were used by the speakers not only because of compensating for insufficient means, but also the need of communication. They were used to make communication alive and to maintain group identity or solidarity. The speakers could use strategies in order to make communication more communicative. They could use **repetition** to emphasize the meanings that they conveyed. They could use **language switch** to confirm whether or not the listeners understand what they had said and to make the interlocutors enjoy the communication. They used **repair** to correct the mistakes and

avoid communication breakdown. They used **circumlocution** to present the details of the objects. They used **explication** to explain the terms they meant. And they also used **over-explicitness** to fulfill the communicative goal that is, making the listeners know the details of the intended meanings.

They speakers also used the other types of communication strategies to compensate their insufficient linguistic means. They used **approximation** to keep communication going by using other items to substitute the unknown terms. They used **literal translation** to convey the meanings in English words and structures, but they were unable to express them in good English. The speakers used **message abandonment** to avoid continuing expressing their ideas due to unable to express them in good English. **Appeal for assistance** was also used in interactions. It was used to appeal the meanings by asking directly what the other speaker said. **Cord coinage** used to shorten the phrases. The speaker made up a new word by producing his own morphological construction.

However, some types of communication strategies were used to both compensate and make communication alive. The speakers used **repetition** and **language switch** to main the communication without changing the goals and compensate their insufficient linguistic means and change the original goals

Since teaching also means making learners conscious about aspects of their behavior, it is obvious that the teachers of English should teach them about strategies, in particular how to use communication strategies most appropriately

(Færch and Kasper 1983). Before the teachers can do so, however, they need more information about the functions of different types of strategies, as mentioned previously. Moreover, the choice of teaching methods should take into consideration learners' preference for strategies, as well as the relationships between learners' preference for strategies and teaching goals/methods. Thus, we might imagine that the learners would be induced to opt for reduction strategies if the FL teaching gives high priority to correctness and possibly penalizes errors against the L2 norm, even if there are results of achievement strategies

This study only covers two problems, i.e., the types of communication strategies and the functions of the communication strategies. I also suggest that other researchers, who are curious in this area, to carry out another study with deeper and broader scope. These following questions may be useful for such a study.

- a. How successful are communication strategies in transmitting intended information to the listeners in student interactions?
- b. How do communication strategies relate to speakers' proficiency?
- c. How do communication strategies relate to speakers' cultural and linguistic backgrounds?

## BIBLIOGRAPHY

Bogdon, R. C. and S. K. Biklen. 1982. *Qualitative Research for Education: An Introduction to*

*Theory and Methods*. Boston: Ally and Bacon.

Broughten, G. et al. 1978. *Teaching English as a Foreign Language*. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul.

Brown, H. D. 1987. *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching*. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall Regents.

Brown, H. D. 1994. *Teaching by Principles: An Interactive Approach to language Pedagogy*. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall Regents.

Canale, M. and M. Swain. 1980. "Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing." *Applied Linguistics* 1(1). 1-47

Canale, M. 1983. Communicative competence to communicative language pedagogy. In J. Richards and Schmidt (eds) *Language and Communication*. London: Longman.

Eldridge. 1996. *EFL Journal Volume 50/4, October 1996*.

Ellis, Rod. 1985. *Understanding Second Language Acquisition*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Færch, C. and G. Kasper. 1983. Plans and strategies in foreign language communication. In C. Faerch and G. Kasper (eds) *Strategies in Inter-*

- language communication. 15-21. New York: Longman Group Limited.
- Hitchcock, G. and D. Hughes. 1991. *Research and the Teacher: A Qualitative Introduction to School-based Research*. London: Routledge.
- Hymes, D. 1972. On communicative competence. In J.B. Pride and J. Holmes (eds) *Sociolinguistics: Selected readings* 269-293. Baltimore: Penguin. Pp.269-293
- Levinson, Stephen C. 1983. *Pragmatics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Markstein, Linda and Louise Hirasawa. 1983. *Expanding Reading Skills: Intermediate*. Rowley: Newbury House Publisher.
- McCarthy, M. 1991. *Discourse Analysis for Language Teachers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Nunan, D. 1992. *Research Methods in Language Learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Peccel, J. S. 1999. *Pragmatics*. London: Routledge.
- Savignon, Sandra J. 1983. *Communicative Competence: Theory and Classroom in Second Language Learning*. Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company.
- Stubbs, Michael. 1983. *Discourse Analysis: The Sociolinguistic Analysis of Natural language*. Oxford: Basic Blackwell.
- Tarone, E. 1978. Conscious Communication Strategies in Interlanguage: a Progress Report. In *TESOL 77*. eds. H. Brown, C Yorio & R Crymes pp. 194—203. Washington DC: TESOL.
- Tarone, E. and G. Yule. 1987. Communication Strategies in East-west Interaction. In *Discourse across Cultures: Strategies in World Englishes*, ed. Larry E. Smith. New York: Prentice-Hall Inc. pp. 49--65