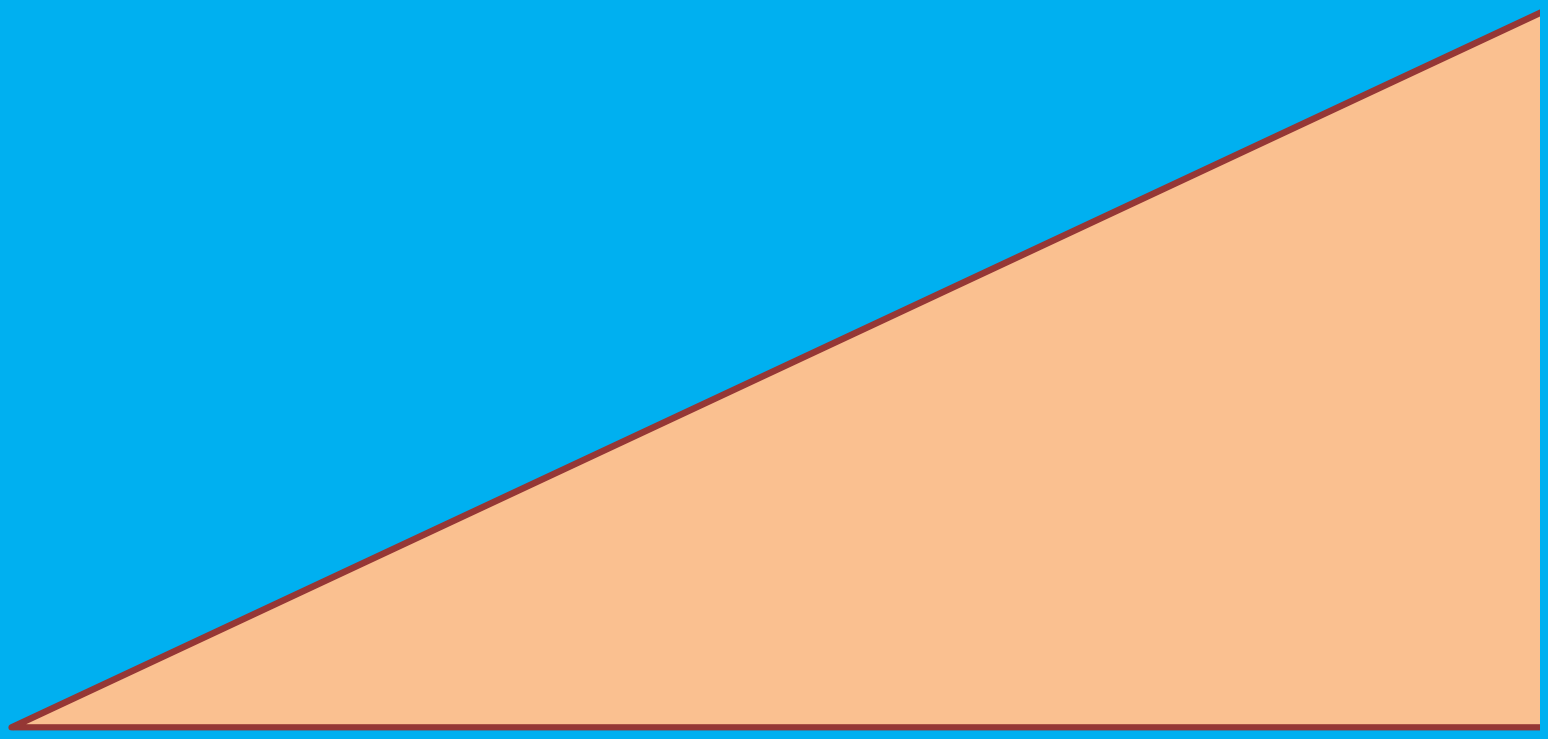
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Language learning in the Digital Age: teaching presence & pedagogy in virtual EAP classrooms

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WMUSK Walisundara [1]
General Sir John Kotelawala Defence University, Sri Lanka

Abstract

The focus of the current study was to investigate the effectiveness of teaching presence and pedagogy in virtual classrooms for English for academic purposes. The poor performance in academic writing of English as a second language undergraduates and the lack of innovative strategies and technology for language teaching and learning are major issues that should be addressed in language learning in higher education. The current study was conducted for thirteen weeks with 82 second-year undergraduates from General Sir John Kotelawala Defence University in Sri Lanka. Switching Replication was used for the research design. There were two randomly assigned groups and three waves of measurements in the study. Community of inquiry was used for the theoretical foundation of the current study and the data were analyzed qualitatively. The findings indicate that the participants preferred in-class teaching presence and pedagogy more than the virtual presence and pedagogy for academic writing skills. Nevertheless, for some instances, such as monitoring student participation, getting clarification and pointing out lesson objectives, the participants preferred virtual teaching presence and pedagogy more than the teaching presence and pedagogy in-class. It is believed that the knowledge obtained in this study can contribute to the field of computer-assisted language learning and applied linguistics.

Keywords teaching presence, pedagogy, English for academic purposes, computer-assisted language learning, English as a second language learners

1. Introduction

Virtual Learning is a system for delivering learning materials to students via the web. These systems include assessment, student tracking, collaboration and communication tools (Oxford University Press, 2016).

With new advances in the world, both research and teaching must keep pace with changes in technology. As Holyoke (2011) posits in virtual learning, the designed set of teaching and learning tools enhance students' learning experience with the support of computers and the internet. Yet, it is important to note that the computers and internet cannot substitute for teachers, but they can provide a richer and better learning experience for language learners (Sun & Chang, 2012, Zhytska, 2012).

Virtual learning can support students both on and off-campus, which supports students who find it difficult to attend lectures due to distance or time restrictions. It is accepted that working in a virtual learning environment is stimulating and has easy access even for the materials that are very appealing for both teaching and learning. The most significant advantage of virtual learning platforms like Moodle is that teachers and learners need one login and only one user interface. Moreover, teachers/instructors benefit from editing the courses and controlling learners enrolled for that particular course (Warth-Sontheimer, 2011).

[1] Bio: WMUSK Walisundara is a senior lecturer at General Sir John Kotelawala Defence University, Sri Lanka. Her interest of research covers such topics as SLA, applied linguistics, English language testing, CALL and ESP. Contact: uwalisundara@kdu.ac.lk

Even when giving feedback, all the modules are set to allow both learners and teachers to provide their feedback quantitatively or qualitatively (Brandle, 2005).

As Bunch, Kibler and Pimentel (2012) posit, English for academic purposes (EAP) writing skills in technology-based environments are rapidly expanding globally. The use of educational technology can facilitate EAP writing processes and interactions even beyond the traditional classroom setting (Elola & Oskoz, 2010). As Zhytska (2012) also suggests, computers can effectively motivate second language (L2) learners to improve their academic writing skills. Numerous studies conducted to find out difficulties/issues in the EAP writing competencies of ESL students have found out that the significant problems in academic writing are in the areas of cohesion, coherence, synthesising information, reviewing, critiquing, grammar, syntax and vocabulary. Further, limited knowledge in that specific area of study, anxiety in writing, first language (L1) interference, structural errors and difficulties in lack of practice and experience in writing skills are also hindered the writing skills of ESL learners (Al Badi, 2015, Cai, 2013, Chou, 2011, Evans & Greens, 2007, Fareed, Ashraf & Bilal, 2016, Giridharan & Robson, 2011, Lee & Tagino, 2008, Ntereke & Ramoroka, 2015).

It is stated that the experience of working in virtual learning platforms can make a significant impact on language learning (Beatty, 2010, Grgurovic, 2010, Reinders & Hubbard, 2013, Szendeffy, 2008, Warschauer, 1996). As Williams (2003) states, computer-assisted language learning (CALL) would be the best method for teaching EAP. This method can cater to different levels, and learners can access it during their convenient time slots. Hyland (2006) also talks about the benefits of incorporating EAP teaching materials with new technologies. As he mentions, this will enhance student-centred learning and the interaction between the teachers and students. As Chen (2011) discusses, educators should also perceive computers as an essential tool in language teaching and learning because their devices, tools, and processes would undoubtedly improve learners' writing skills. Thus, in the current study, the researcher intends to investigate the effectiveness of teaching presence and pedagogy in CALL for enhancing ESL learners academic writing skills.

Stemming from the overall objective of the study, which is to investigate the effectiveness of teaching presence and pedagogy in CALL in enhancing EAP writing skills, the following research question was formulated;

To what extent the teaching presence and pedagogy are effective in the CALL platform for enhancing ESL learners' academic writing skills?

1.1. Theoretical Foundation

1.2. Community of Inquiry Framework

According to Garrison, Anderson and Archer (2000), a very satisfactory education occurs within a community of inquiry consisting of teachers and students. Education takes place due to social, cognitive, and teaching presence. In the current study, only the teaching presence in virtual learning environment was focused.

In this framework, Garrison et al. (2000) have grouped cognitive, teaching, and social presence into several subcategories to give each element a more precise idea. The following table shows the categories and indicators mentioned only under the teaching presence.

Table 1

Community of Inquiry Coding Scheme (Garrison et al., 2000, p. 89)

Elements	**Categories**	**Indicators** (examples only)
Teaching Presence	Design & Organization Facilitating Discourse Direct Instruction	setting curriculum & activities shaping constructive exchange focusing & resolving issues

As illustrated in this framework, there are three subcategories in teaching presence: instructional management, building understanding, and direct instruction. *Instructional leadership* is concerned with planning or addressing structural matters before and during the educational setting. The second element, *building understanding*, supports the acquisition of knowledge. This is very much concerned with building collaborative communities, which leads to sharing expertise and effectively understanding the meaning. Through these efforts, teachers can identify less active participants, draw their attention to work harder, give due credit for supportive contributions, and create an effective learning environment. *Direct instruction* is used to evaluate the course and the whole educational process. The teacher's responsibility here is to make sure the learners get the fullest benefits from their learning and further strengthen their learning through feedback and giving more assessments (Garrison et al., 2000).

The community, highlighted in the community of inquiry framework, explains that when learners get a secure, encouraging environment to learn without any fear of discouragement and unwanted judgment, they learn with interest, leading to success (Shea, Li & Pickett, 2006). As Swan, Garrison and Richardson (2009) view, it is challenging to construct knowledge collaboratively, and it also challenges managing the responsibilities of a teacher in virtual learning platforms. To have a stress-free learning environment for learners, educators should initially meet with students and brief the course. Teachers should also design well-structured and organized content to promote critical and reflective thinking. It is in the hands of the educators to construct and design a proper syllabus to achieve course objectives and learner satisfaction (Tekiner Tolu, 2010, 2013). Building a community of inquiry is very important in designing, facilitating, and giving instructions.

1.2. Literature Review

1.2.1.English for Academic Purposes

With globalization, most non-native speakers, immigrants and refugees gain university entrance in countries where English is spoken L1. For them, EAP was an unfamiliar concept, and this was one major reason for the rapid increase of the value for EAP. Another major influence for the increased popularity and acceptance of EAP is English as an instructional mode in universities situated in countries where English is spoken as an L2 or third language. Most international tertiary level students globally undertake EAP courses that help immensely in completing their academic programmes successfully. Furthermore, EAP plays an essential role in theory development and innovative practices in teaching ESL/ other languages (Hyland, 2006).

Hyland (2006) defines EAP pedagogy as “specialized English-language teaching grounded in the social, cognitive and linguistic demands of academic target situations, providing focused instruction informed by an understanding of texts and the constraints of academic contexts” (p. 2). Teaching EAP is very practical and effective because learners who learn a foreign language through their academic content see the importance of learning it and learning it with keen interest (Ardeo, 2012). Jordon (1997) explains that to perform better in

EAP courses, the courses should include formal teaching programmes, self-access situations, distance-learning materials or CALL.

As explained by Sim and Shing (2011) EAP evolved as a result of the understanding by English for specific purposes practitioners that undergraduates' English language proficiency levels differ from learner to learner and that their needs should be addressed and fulfilled using different components including a syllabus to match the requirements and language competence levels of the learners. According to Lee and Subtirelu (2014), the primary objective of designing EAP courses is "to assist academically-oriented L2 learners in gaining literacy and skills necessary to navigate a diverse range of complex academic discourses and be successful participants in the academy" (p. 01). ESL practitioners, therefore, have a challenging role to play in EAP classrooms. With new advances globally, research and teaching must also keep pace with these changes. Research in this field has grown, focusing on pedagogical approaches that could address the needs of students and professionals, such as learner autonomy, advances in new technology and the use of English as an international language both in academic and professional fields (Ypsilandis & Kantaridou, 2007).

EAP as a means of discipline, as a research activity and as addressing issues in teaching, materials development and curriculum planning is proving itself to be a very flexible and extensive field that greatly supports understanding of the different ways language is used in academic communities (Bruce & Lyons, 2015). Competency in EAP writing supports mastering technical and formal aspects of the genres and improves thinking more abstractly. Moreover, getting the tacit conventions in EAP writing is the prerequisite for membership in the academic discourse (Jou, 2017).

1.2.2. *Curriculum Development for EAP*

The primary objective of designing an EAP course is "to assist academically-oriented L2 learners in gaining the literacy and skills necessary to navigate a diverse range of complex academic discourses and be successful participants in the academy" (Lee & Subtirelu, 2014, p. 01). Designing a syllabus, teaching it to the students and learning it is a complex process (Nunan & Lamb, 1996). Thus, language lecturers and syllabus designers should prioritize the needs of the ESL learners before setting a syllabus for academic writing (Chou, 2011). Needs, aims, means and variables are the most significant factors considered when designing an EAP syllabus (Jordan, 1997).

Before developing a curriculum for EAP, it is essential to have a course rationale that answers the questions of "who is this course for?, what is the course about?, and what kind of teaching and learning will take place in the course ?" (Richards, 2001, p.145). Course content should also cover specific needs and the finalized set of objectives. Selection of content will depend on "subject-matter knowledge, the learners' proficiency levels, current views on second language learning and teaching, conventional wisdom, and convenience" (Richards, 2001, p.148).

Creating a syllabus is very time-consuming but satisfying, both professionally and creatively. It has been noted that the most frustrated group in course designing will be the novice teachers who have no prior experience working on materials development. At the same time, this is a time consuming and

challenging task for them (Akyil, 2006, Doneley, 2006, Hardy, 2006). The best approach is to design a course by considering the feedback of previous courses and modifying them according to the perceived needs and constraints. A needs analysis will be instrumental in this task, especially when including the learners' most difficult or needed specific areas (Jordan, 1997).
Course designers, tutors, material writers should also be aware of the advances in information technology to meet and fulfil the needs of the learners (Nesi, 1998). As Walker (2014) claims, EAP teachers should prepare the students to adapt to technology-based learning environments, and teachers themselves should enhance their teaching skills using technology and the internet. Ypsilandis and Kantaridou (2007) also suggest that the fields of education and strategic needs should be promoted through electronic sources.

1.2.3. Virtual Learning

> Virtual learning is a set of teaching and learning tools designed to enhance a student's learning experience by including computers and the internet in the learning process (Holyoke, 2011)

In the early 1990 internet was introduced, which followed so many tools and products to make full benefits out of the new emergence. The mid- 1990s marks when the academic crowd started to use virtual learning platforms that targeted to better facilitate both teaching and learning across the internet (O' Leary, n.d). Computer-mediated communication which came into the field in the 1960s has become popular in the last five years.
Many educators want to take advantage of the benefits offered by the internet to support their teaching activities. Working in virtual learning platforms is stimulating and has easy access even for the very appealing materials for both parties. Virtual learning can also support students both on and off-campus, which supports students who find it difficult to attend lectures due to distance or time restrictions (Warschauer, 1996).
Sun and Chang (2012) point out that virtual learning is one form of technology that is vital for language learning. Even Embogama (2016) states that integrating computers and internet use into EAP has proved very effective in higher education. Thus, CALL is one such web-based technology that assists teaching presence and pedagogy of academic writing.

1.2.4. Computer-Assisted Language Learning

CALL is "an approach to language teaching and learning in which the computer is used to aid the presentation, reinforcement and assessment of material to be learned, usually including a substantial interactive element" (Davies, p.460). CALL can also be defined as any process in which a learner uses a computer and, as a result, improves his/her language competency. CALL as a tool supports teaching and learning, and it is closely related to many disciplines. CALL has become amalgamated with research and general skills such as reading, writing, listening and speaking, and autonomy in teaching (Beatty, 2010).
CALL facilitates language learning and teaching. Monitoring the learners' behaviour and progress is important in the learning process, which has been

made easier through CALL (Reinders & Hubbard, 2013). Further, computer language learning promotes better interaction with the teacher and classmates. At the same time, the learners engage more in language learning than in some other teaching-learning classroom environments (Szendeffy, 2008). In addition, it is stated that CALL can be used as additional support for the brighter and weaker students to enhance their language competency. Hypertext, hypermedia, and multimedia also support learning a language that provides variation compared to traditional teacher-centred learning. CALL's delivery methods include individual computers either at home or in the language learning classrooms, language labs, online instructions, e-mail, wikis, blogs, and other interactive sites and services. Further, mobile phones and personal digital assistants in language learning classrooms, while combining them with portable keyboards, digital cameras and modems with access to the internet, could make language learning more interesting and exciting than traditional teacher-centred classrooms (Beatty, 2010).

Materials designed to be learnt in CALL can be either existing material or materials prepared specially for teaching in CALL (Beatty, 2010). The materials should support learners' "linguistic knowledge, content interests, learning style, and metalinguistic awareness" (Chapelle, 2006, p. 78), but this mainly depends on how the CALL materials fit the needs of the learners. Chapelle (2001) defines learner fit as "the amount of opportunity for engagement with language under appropriate conditions given learner characteristics" (p. 55). There are four principles to be considered before designing CALL materials. Initially, the teachers should have a proper understanding of the linguistic difficulties of the learners, second is to select the relevant content to be taught, and third is to teach and interact with the learners in a way that enhances their learning style and finally to recommend learners to do further studies after going through their assessments.

CALL should be applied and used properly because its effectiveness depends on the message instead of the medium (Warschauer, 1996). A study that Ramachandran conducted (2004) focusing on integrating technology in improving ESL learners' EAP literacy skills at the University of Toronto indicates that technology supports improving the participants' critical thinking and logical conclusions. Furthermore, the use of computers and the internet supported the participants to enhance their collaborative skills, which positively impacted their academic literacy skills. With nine ESL undergraduates from a major Midwestern research university, Hegelhemier (2006) conducted a study to investigate the effectiveness of *i*WRITE, an online resource, in improving ESL learners' grammar competency in academic writing. The findings indicate that working in the online programme improved participants' competency in grammar. They were very positive in their attitude towards technology for improving accuracy in grammar. In conclusion, it is mentioned that more research is needed to investigate the utility value of resources like *i*WRITE and the effectiveness of integrating electronic resources in language teaching and learning.

Most learners often use computers to browse the internet and work on personal documents, so it is indeed a challenging task for lecturers to change this habit of learners in their use of computers for educational purposes (Chapelle, 2006). Identifying the areas/skills learners need to improve would

support in deciding the categories and subcategories they need to be learnt in CALL. It is recommended to have different interfaces for diverse learning styles to accommodate other learning skills (Beatty, 2010). Teachers should use the necessary strategies to incorporate social skills into the curriculum, helping students use interactive social skills appropriately to succeed in virtual learning language skills. Educators should employ every effort to make learners perceive computers as an essential tool in language learning because undoubtedly its devices, tools and processes would improve their writing skills (Chen, 2011).

2. Methodology

2.1 Participants and Context

The study participants were chosen from the General Sir John Kotelawala Defence University (KDU) in Sri Lanka, a state university that the Ministry of Defence governs. The participants were selected from the Faculty of Allied Health Science (AHS) mainly because AHS is the only Faculty that has only local day scholars who speak English either as an L2 or third language. If there had been international students whose L1 is English in the sample, the researcher would not have been able to achieve her main research objective, gauging to what extent there is an improvement of the academic writing skills of ESL learners.

2.2. Research Design

For the research design, Switching Replications (SR) was adopted. This hybrid experimental design is considered one of the strongest experimental designs (Martella, Nelson & Marchand, 1999). SR is a two-group design consisting of treatment and control groups with random subjects and three waves of measurement, as shown in Figure 1.

R O X O O

R O O X O

Figure 1. Switching Replications Design (Trochim & Donnelly, 2015, p. 171)

R= random sampling X= intervention O = observation

According to this research design, the treatment is replicated, and in the replication of the treatment, the control group and the treatment group switch roles. Due to this replication, both groups have received the treatment at the end of the second phase. Simultaneously, the replication provides additional data for analysis, strengthening the research findings. Moreover, the replication supports generalizability and reproducibility (Trochim & Donnelly, 2015, Yoders, 2017). As noted by Shadish, Cook and Campbell (2002), the use of switching replication design "control most of the threats to internal validity and it enhances external and constructs validity" (p. 192).

2.3. Procedure

The current study was conducted without disturbing the participants' ongoing two-hour language learning programme. Initially, after getting the consent of the participants, they were divided into two groups using the random assignment method. After that, both control and treatment groups were given a needs analysis and a learner analysis. In the third week, a presentation on research design, procedure, and study objectives was given to both groups. Collaboration among participants in EAP writing skills was encouraged by guiding them to use the five elements in Johnson and Johnson's (1986) Social Interdependence theory.

Before the first phase, only the original treatment group was guided on how to work in Moodle, but the original control group (Group B) was assured that they would also experience the same programme after the switch in the second phase. A pre-test was given for both groups before the intervention. From week four to week seven, participants were allocated to the first phase, in which group A got the treatment while group B worked for in-class. After each lesson, they completed an assignment. Mid-test was given for both groups at the end of the first phase. Week eight was allocated to complete the post-questionnaire and community of inquiry survey and interview the twelve randomly selected participants.

In the second phase, the original control group (group B) worked online while the original treatment Group (group A) worked in-class. In both phases, all the participants were closely monitored by the researcher. At the end of the second phase, all the participants were given the post-test. They also completed the post questionnaire and community of inquiry survey, and the same 12 participants who were interviewed in the first phase were again interviewed after the second phase.

The lesson materials and videos were uploaded for the treatment group and for those who were in-class, the printed materials were distributed, and videos were e-mailed. Six days were allocated for the learners to study the writing materials individually, and on the seventh day, they had to work on the given activity/s in groups. One hour was allocated for both groups to complete the given activities. At the end of each task, those who worked in the physical learning environment submitted their answer sheets to the researcher whereas the treatment group uploaded their answer sheets into Moodle.

2.3.1. EAP Writing Materials

"Knowledge of the students and their needs, a set of goals and objectives and a personal view of the nature of language and learning" (Nunan & Lamb, 1996, p.45) were considered when designing and planning the syllabus for the current study. As Jordan (1997) states, needs, aim, experience and motivation of students, their attitudes and expectations, need for variety, a belief in learning by doing, and feedback of the previous courses were also focused. The process of identification and designing the materials according to the needs of the participants consisted of four steps as shown below:

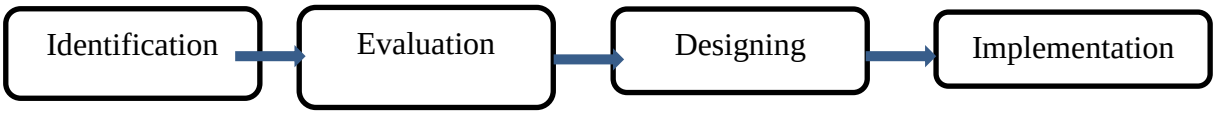


Figure 2. the process of identification and designing materials

2.3.1.1. Identification

Before designing the lessons, the researcher conducted a needs analysis to identify the participants' language needs which should be addressed mainly in writing lessons.

2.3.1.2. Evaluation

It was anticipated that the collection of data and its corresponding analysis could provide the researcher with an insight into the participants' English language needs for EAP writing.

2.3.1.3. Designing

The evaluated result was used to design the EAP writing materials. Jordan (1997) and Baily (2011) were mainly referred to when selecting the sub-skills in EAP writing.

2.3.1.4. Implementation

Newly designed materials were used to meet learner needs and innovative teaching pedagogy during the new EAP writing curriculum implementation.

2.4. Learning Management System

Moodle was used for the learning management system. The researcher uploaded the selected academic writing materials and exercises into Moodle and enabled the forum discussion facility for group discussions. After logging into the course designed for the current study, the course objectives and a small introductory video to academic writing were displayed.

After the Introduction to EAP Writing, the lessons were also uploaded during the relevant week. The uploaded lesson materials, videos, and activities were used to understand the chosen topics to the participants comprehensively. Specific objectives were mentioned under each lesson, and the forum facility was opened to make the participants communicate with their group members and discuss and complete the given activity/s. The first two lessons are given below to show how the lessons were uploaded into Moodle.

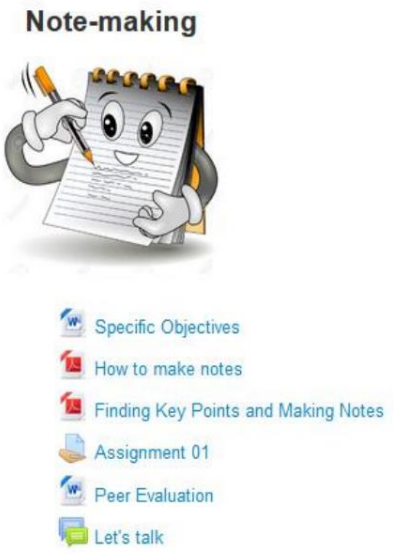


Figure 3. Lesson one



Figure 4. Lesson two

2.5. Data Collection Instruments

A learner analysis questionnaire collected demographic information on the participants' first-year language learning experience and computer experience. Participants' present situation in writing, target situation in EAP writing and the strategy/s that they need in learning EAP writing skills were collected through a needs analysis. Community of inquiry surveys and interviews were used to measure participants' satisfaction with virtual teaching presence and pedagogy.

Finally, the data were analyzed qualitatively.

3. Findings and Discussion

3.1. First Phase

The original treatment group worked online in the first phase, and the original control group worked in class. Both groups worked in collaboration in their learning platforms. The participants' satisfaction with online and in-class teaching presence in the first phase is shown below in Figure 5.

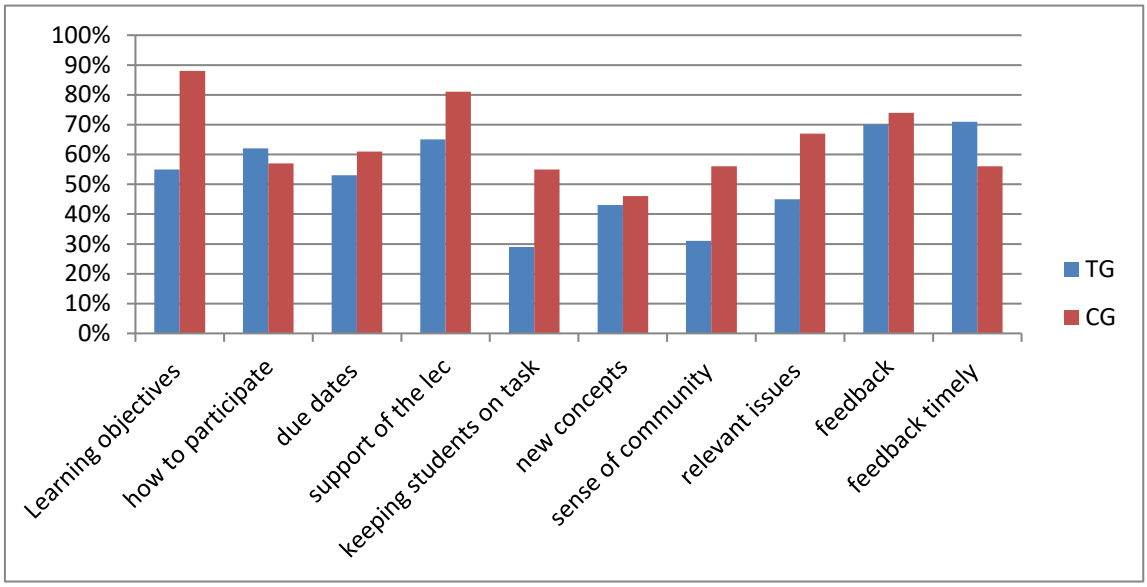


Figure 5. Teaching presence in phase one

3.2. Second Phase

In the second phase, after the switch, those in the original treatment group shifted into in-class, and those in the original control group shifted into the treatment group. In the second phase also both groups were assigned to work collaboratively. The participants' satisfaction with online and in-class teaching presence in the second phase is shown in Figure 6.

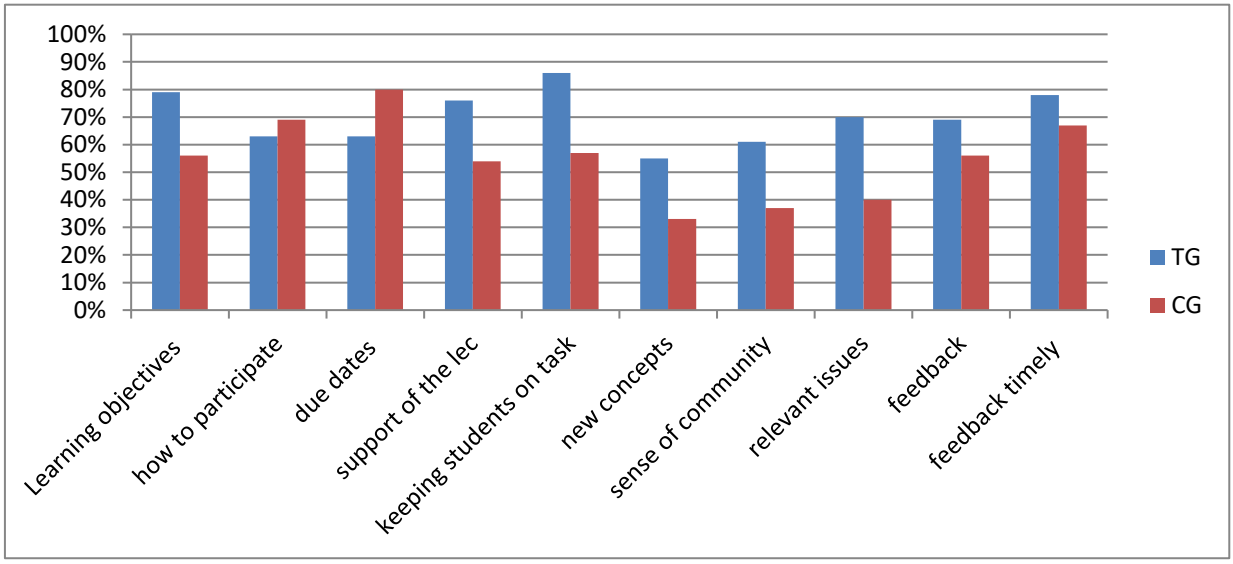


Figure 6. Teaching presence in phase two

According to the findings in the current study, both in the first and second phases, the participants were satisfied with the teaching presence in class more than online. In the first phase, an average score for overall satisfaction for teaching presence online was 52% and 64% for those who worked in class, and the disparity between the averages was 12%. In the second phase, the participants were also more satisfied with the teaching presence when they worked in class. The total average for satisfaction on teaching presence online

was 55%, and in-class; it was 78%, and the disparity between the average scores was 23%.

In the teaching presence, the students preferred the lecturer's presence in class when pointing out the objectives of each lesson and instructing them how to participate in each activity. Further, support of the lecturer was preferred and found to be satisfactory when the participants worked in-class, as they have stated, for clarifications, when exploring new concepts and to keep students on task; the participants preferred teaching presence in-class more than online. Yet, in the post questionnaire, it was stated that the ability of the lecturer to monitor the participation closely was an added advantage online, as sometimes when working in-class personal discussions distracted the group members in contributing equally for the success of the teamwork. This agrees with Collins (1991), who points out that teachers can observe the participants and support individual issues when students work on computers. The teacher can monitor their students more closely than in traditional teacher-centred classrooms. This also supports assisting the weaker students who are shy in class to ask for clarifications.

For getting feedback also the participants preferred teaching presence in-class more than online. According to them, getting feedback when the lecturer is in class is more convenient than online. As the researcher perceives, the students must have more practice to take more responsibility for their learning than relying on their teacher very often. Hence, online would be an ideal platform where the lectures can allocate extra work for students to complete off-campus in a learner-centred environment. This agrees with Hyland (2006), who states that incorporating EAP teaching materials with new technologies will enhance student-centred learning in collaborative learning environments. Also, students must be convinced that the feedback they get online can be stored for a more extended period on computers and could be referred to very often. As for the due dates, the participants stated that it is easier for them to submit the assignments to the lecturer when she was in class than submitting them online. Since the late submission is not accepted in Moodle and the mentioning of the time frame is very systematic online, the researcher recommends the virtual learning platforms for students where they would not be able to make late submissions and would be more disciplined in their submissions.

As is the case in the community of inquiry framework for better facilitating teaching presence, the teacher should construct and design a proper syllabus to achieve course objectives and learner satisfaction (Tekiner Tolu, 2010, 2013). Hence, in the current study, the four principles outlined by Chapelle (2016) were used to design the course materials and guide the participants for their self-improvements.

Most learners often use computers to browse the internet and work on personal documents, so it is indeed a challenging task for lecturers to change this habit of using computers for educational purposes. To accomplish this task, initially, the learners must be exposed to online learning to get familiarized with the teaching and the learning environment before introducing learning tasks. Suhendi and Purwano (2018) stated that to make teaching and learning successful, learners should be allowed to construct meaningful knowledge.

4. Conclusion

The participants preferred the in-class learning environment in both phases concerning teaching presence. As indicated by the participants, the majority felt more comfortable with the lecturer's presence in class than in CALL when pointing out the objectives of each lesson and instructing them how to participate in each activity. As for monitoring progress, participants preferred CALL mainly because they were satisfied with the lecturer's close monitoring because off-task discussions negatively impacted the group members contributing equally to the success of the teamwork. It was also observed that learners who did not ask for clarifications in-class asked questions more comfortably when they worked in CALL, which highlights learners' preference for getting feedback/clarifications through CALL more than in class. It must be noted that the change of the role of the teacher from instructivism to constructivism where the teacher became a facilitator, and the learners were advised and guided to take the active role in the process of knowledge construction was more effectively introduced and practised in CALL.

Thus, it is evident that even though the participants preferred in-class for teaching presence and pedagogy, there are significant advantages for teaching presence and pedagogy when learning academic writing in CALL.

5. Implications and Recommendation

To increase the satisfaction in teaching presence and pedagogy in CALL, the language lecturers should continuously monitor the learners' progress to improve learner performance. To achieve this target, it is recommended that the objectives for each lesson and due dates be clearly mentioned before working on the allocated task. Feedback should also be offered systematically to improve the learners' academic writing skills. Further, how the lecturer handles the students in CALL should reinforce a sense of community among group members. To make teaching presence in CALL more exciting and compelling for academic writing, lecturers can support students to focus on relevant issues in a way that helps students to learn and to apply the knowledge more productively. Encouraging the learners to explore new concepts in lessons with the support of new technology will vary the teacher's presence more than in regular language learning classrooms. Giving clear instructions in CALL successfully is also vital for learners to be satisfied with the instructions they get in CALL. It would be better if the language lecturers could also be trained to work in Moodle to get familiar with the new teaching-learning environment.

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"Este, bueno, repite por favor...": teaching of communicative strategies in the Spanish language classroom

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Mariandreína Kostantinov[1]
University of Florida

Abstract

This study aims to investigate the effect of communication strategies (CSs) instructions used by English speakers, learners of Spanish at a low intermediate level during a 13-week course. One classroom (n = 20) received explicit instruction of CSs, as part of the regular instructional material; whereas, participants in the other classroom (n = 12) did not receive this specific information but otherwise had the same instructor, syllabus, and course material. The five CSs in the experimental classroom are followed by Dörnyei and Scott's (1997) taxonomy. The pre-tests showed no difference in the use of the CSs between the two groups. The results after the treatment showed an effect of the explicit teaching of the CSs, as the experimental group used a greater number of CSs resources when solving communicative issues. The study also reported that task type had an effect on the number and type of CSs produced by the learners. This phenomenon can also be explained in terms of task type and time constraints. The differences observed in both groups can be attributed to explicit CS instruction, thereby resulting in pedagogical implications for language teachers.

Keywords Second Language Acquisition, Communitive Strategies, Strategy training, Foreign Language Context, Face-to-Face Interaction

1. Introduction

Second language learners repeatedly experience linguistic breakdown when expressing an idea or concept in their second language (L2). When these deficits occur in natural speech, they must resort to an array of strategies in order to aid comprehension. For example, in a real-world situation, when asking for directions in a Spanish-speaking country, the language learner may hear *"siga derecho*/keep going straight*"* or *"a dos cuadras*/two blocks away*"* hence, to find a place. The learner can resort to a clarification request such as *"no entendí, puedes repetir por favor*/I did not understand, could you repeat, please.*"* Unlike a natural setting, which often compels second language learners to employ communication strategies, such as paraphrasing or circumlocution, the classroom context is different as it may not necessarily trigger or motivate the use of these strategies. The present

[1] Bio: Mariandreína Kostantinov is a Ph.D student in the Department of Portuguese and Spanish Studies at University of Florida. She is teaching Writing Skills, Critical Thinking, and Spanish currently. Her research interests cover ESL, Spanish language, and Spanish as a Second Language. Contact: mkostantinov@ufl.edu

study explores both the use and benefits of communicative strategies among L2 learners of Spanish.

The concept of communicative strategies was introduced by Selinker (1972) in his article about learners' inter-linguistic errors. Later, other studies elaborated a systematic analysis of CSs (Faerch, 1983; Sukirlan, 2014; Tarone, 1977; Váradi, 1980) and the teaching of CSs (Alibakhshi & Padiz, 2011). A communicative strategy (CS) is viewed as a conscious and intentional attempt to convey meaning in a face-to-face situation when linguistic problems occur in the target language (Alibakhshi and Padiz, 2011; Dörnyei, 1995); Maldonado, 2012). For example, it has been observed that "verbal and non-verbal [CSs] may be implemented to compensate for communicative breakdowns during a conversation with a colleague (Kennedy and Trofimovich, 2016). Also, can be related "to insufficient competence," that is when the learner lacks a range of linguistic resources to deliver a message effectively (Ghout-Khenoune, 2012; Tavakoli, Dastjerdi, & Esteki, 2011).

Early empirical studies have carried out a great deal of investigation in Second Language Acquisition, and much research has focused on communicative strategies, instruction, and practices (Kennedy & Trofimovich, 2016; Razmjou & Ghazi, 2013; Tavakoli et al., 2011). From the foreign language perspective, scholars have investigated the benefits of explicitly teaching communicative strategies in language classrooms (Alibakhshi & Padiz, 2011; Mirsane & Khabiri, 2016; Sukirlan, 2014). Still, this phenomenon remains largely unexamined in Spanish as second/foreign language classrooms. Following previous research by (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997) Taxonomy, this study will focus specifically on the five CSs (clarification request, comprehension check, paraphrasing/circumlocution, self-repair, and filled pauses).

1.1. Taxonomies of Communicative Strategies and Definitions

Early definitions of communicative strategies in the L2 setting is referred to the learners' ability to communicate their ideas effectively within the context of a communication breakdown or an interlocutor misunderstanding. Later, the traditional view of communicative strategies was introduced as "problem solving" mechanisms to help the learner to overcome linguistics issues when communicating an idea (Smith, 1979). More recently, the definition of communicative strategies was expanded upon by introducing an interactional point of view, in which these strategies are viewed as the tools used in face-to-face interactions to negotiate meaning between speakers (Tarone, 1980).

Dörnyei and Scott (1997) on communicative strategies proposes a learner-centered and interactional taxonomy used in this study. This taxonomy includes two defining criteria: "problem-orientedness" and "consciousness" (p. 183–184). Problem-orientedness is characterized as the lack of congruency between a communicative strategy and the linguistic devices in the L2 learner, leading to an interruption of effective communication. The notion of "consciousness" relates to one a speaker conscious of communicative barriers to achieving a goal and who intentionally applies a communicative strategy in order to negotiate meaning. In other words, the

learners have control over the communicative strategies and intentionally apply the selected one to deliver a message effectively (e.g., consciousness as awareness of the problem). Because such language issues involve interaction between speakers, this study will only adopt five communicative strategies from "problem-orientedness" mechanisms (further explain at the end of this section).

Within problem-orientedness, several types of issues arise. These include a) Resource deficit problems, which are defined as the realization of something said incorrectly or at least partly correctly by the speaker. These types involve self-repair, self-rephrasing, and self-editing (Dörnyei, 1995; Savignon, 1972; Tarone, 1980). b) Own-performance problems can also be something related to the interlocutor's utterance problems, mostly related to thoughts or ideas to have been said incorrectly or misunderstood by the speaker. The mechanisms associated with negotiating strategies can include clarification requests and comprehension checks (Canale, 1983; Dörnyei & Thurrell, 1992; Dörnyei, 1995). c) Processing time pressure, which is defined as the time the L2 learner needs to process and plan speech. The strategies associated with processing time pressure include the use of fillers, hesitation devices, and self-repetitions (Canale, 1983; Dörnyei & Thurrell, 1992; Dörnyei, 1995; Savignon, 1972).

Empirical studies investigating communicative strategies that focused on proficiency as a factor have demonstrated a relationship between level of proficiency and the type of communicative strategies employed (Dobao, 2001; Garcia Nuñez, 2006; Littlemore, 2003). For example, reports show beginners to use a higher number of CSs, due to the lack of L2 linguistic resources. Conversely, more proficient learners do not seem to use these types of strategies due to their broader L2 repertoire. These relationships are also demonstrated when comparing other groups, such as beginners and advanced learners (Dobao, 2001; Hyde, 1982; Si-Qing, 1990). The results show that beginner levels are more inclined to use communicative strategies related to their first language (L1), such as code-switching, foreignizing, avoidance mechanism, as well as message abandonment. Interestingly, another mechanism associated with this group is the use of processing time pressure, such as filled pauses, since the L2 learners need more time to plan speech. However, more advanced learners demonstrate more reliance on achievement mechanisms, such as self-repairs, paraphrasing, and approximation.

However, studies comparing beginning and intermediate learners in the use of communicative strategies did not show any significant differences. Nevertheless, after performing further analysis of the results, the results reported that beginner groups employed more reduction mechanisms, whereas the intermediate group showed stronger preference for the use of achievement devices, such as paraphrasing (Garcia Nuñez, 2006). Similar findings were reported in (Prebianca, 2009), which investigated the effect of proficiency level by intermediate and advanced groups of learners' uses of communicative strategies. The results showed no meaningful differences across groups in the use of these strategies. The study claimed that the reason for this outcome was due to the 'monologic' nature of the task, which seemed to elicit fewer demands.

Taking into consideration the views of communicative strategies above, this study examines the effect of communicative strategies on English speakers' intermediate level of Spanish. The researcher adopted five strategies from Dörnyei and Scott (1997), including clarification request, comprehension check, paraphrasing/circumlocution, and self-repair. If one student requests to another student, an explanation or repetition when comprehension breaks down, the student has made use of 'clarification request' strategy (e.g., "*no comprendo, no entiendo*/I don't understand"); if one student asks a question to check that the interlocutor understands, the student has made use of 'comprehension check' strategy (e.g., "*sí, (te) entiendo, (te) comprendo*/yes, I understand you"); in a situation when a student is required to exemplify, illustrate or describe a property of the target object or action, the student has employed 'paraphrasing' strategy (e.g., "*…salió con su… la mamá de la mamá (bisabuela) …*/she/he left with the … mother of the mother (great-grandmother"); but if the student makes a self-initiated correction in his/her own speech, then the student has employed 'self-repair' strategy (e.g., *"…deseo una casa muy ahm, ahh…que no sea carro…que no sea caro* [wrong adjective form]…I wish a very big house ahm, ahh…that is not car, that is not expensive"). Finally, during a conversation when the student's voice repeats frequently, making the conversation run smoothly, by using words or phrases that repeat many times, then the student has made use of the 'filled-pause' strategy (e.g., "*este, pues, pero, entonces…*/well, I mean, so, like…"). The five communicative strategies are shown in Table 1 below.

Table 1
Description of the Five Communicative Strategies.

Strategies	Description
1. clarification request	When a student requests an explanation from another student or repetition when comprehension breaks down (e.g., "*no comprendo, no entiendo*/I don't understand")
2. comprehension check	When a student asks a question to check that the interlocutor understands, (e.g., "*sí, (te) entiendo, (te) comprendo*/yes, I understand you")
3. paraphrasing	When a student is required to exemplify, illustrate or describe a property of the target object or action (e.g., "*…salió con su… la mamá de la mamá (bisabuela) …*/she/he left with the … mother of the mother (great-grandmother")
4. self-repair	When a student makes a self-initiated correction in his/her own speech, (e.g., *"…deseo una casa muy ahm, ahh…que no sea carro…que no sea caro* [wrong adjective form]
5. filled pauses	When a student's voice repeats frequently, making the conversation run smoothly, by using words or phrases that repeat many times (e.g., "*este, pues, pero, entonces…*/well, I mean, so, like…")

In the current study, these communicative strategies were included due to the interaction they elicit between speakers, they relate to three main types of communicative strategies (Own performance problem, other performance problem and processing time pressure) of (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997) taxonomy,

and they align with the demands of task type needed for the activities included in the study, such as picture description tasks (e.g., circumlocution).

1.2. L2 Research on Communicative Strategies and Task Type

Investigations in the field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) have emphasized the pedagogy and development of communicative strategies (Rabab'ah, 2016; Savignon, 1972; Tarone, 1977; Tarone, 1980; Tarone, 1981). The instructions of these strategies have been the subject of controversy among researchers. Opponents state that L2 learners do not necessarily need to develop a special strategy in L2; instead, they can use their L1 strategic competence. Such views believe "…what one must teach to the learners of a language is not strategy, but language," or, "…teach the learner more language, and let the strategies look after themselves" (Kasper & Kellerman, 2014). On the contrary, those in favor of communicative strategies argue that teaching CSs provides growth for development on strategic competence (Dörnyei, 1995; Faerch, 1983; Faerch & Kasper, 1984; Maldonado, 2017; Rabab'ah, 2016; Tarone, 1980). These studies suggest communicative strategies as the central function when negotiating meaning through an array of tasks such as visual communication games and oral speech in the form of monologues, as well as oral-video tape analysis, among other activities, thereby helping increase awareness of the learner's own speech production.

Current SLA studies are convinced that different task types can be effective pedagogical tools to develop learners' communicative strategies. Generally, tasks are defined as "a piece of work which involves the learners in manipulating, comprehending, producing, and interacting in the L2, while their attention is focused on meaning rather than form" (Ghout-Khenoune, 2012; Nunan, 1991). Tasks are regarded as the learner's window of opportunity to experience target language (TL) as it is used outside the classroom setting. For example, during a task activity, the learner can take on an active role by helping their partners, negotiating meaning, and clearly articulating themselves while making use of communicative strategies.

The teachability of communicative strategies was investigated by (Rabab'ah, 2016) on EFL learner's strategic competence. This study included different task types, such as role-play, group audio-video analysis, while examining communicative strategies during a 14-week course. The 80 learners were divided into 2 groups, one (n = 44) received the CS training program, and the control group (n = 36) received the normal communicative course instruction. Pre- and post-IELTS (The International English Language Testing System) tests were administered to find out the effect of explicit instruction of CSs, as well as language proficiency. The results indicated that the experimental group outperformed the control group in their International English Language Testing System (IELTS) scores. The experimental group significantly outperformed the control group. In the post-test, the experimental group used many more CSs when communicating in English as a Second or Foreign Language (EFL) context, and the speaking test indicated that the experimental group effectively used more achievement strategies (e.g., circumlocution and self-repair) and interactional strategies

(e.g., clarification, confirmation request, asking for repetition, guessing and appeal for help), hence, to maintain the flow of conversation. The study indicated positive implications for language teachers and syllabus development.

Similar results can be found in the study conducted by (Alibakhshi & Padiz, 2011). The study investigated the effect of explicitly teaching CSs to 60 Iranian language learners of English using three types of tasks: group discussion, short story re-telling, and picture description. The ten-week treatment of CSs was collected through a series of oral data in the experimental group by means of group discussions. General findings showed improvement in the use of number of CSs used, indicating a positive impact employed by the experimental group's oral performance compared to the control. General findings showed improvement in the number of CSs used, indicating a positive impact employed by the experimental group oral performance compared to the control. The first post-test reported an improvement in the number of all CSs used by the experimental group. Seven out of the nine communicative strategies were used by the experimental group, outperforming the control group. Significant differences were found between groups providing evidence of an increase in almost all communicative strategies attributed to the instruction, including avoidance, approximation, language switch, appeal for assistance, circumlocution, and self-repetition. Findings for the second post-test demonstrated that three months afterward, the treatment had influenced the frequency of strategies used by the experimental group. The CSs instructed remained stable after the instruction was administered. Three of the communicative strategies: approximation, appeal for assistance, and self-repetition were reportedly used more frequently compared to the control group. Findings for the second post-test results indicated that these CSs lost their effect while the frequency of their use decreased. The remaining CSs — avoidance, restructuring, word coinage, and self-repair — were maintained after the treatment. Overall results showed beneficial gains of CSs in learners while having pedagogical and theoretical implications for language teachers.

Additionally, (Sukirlan, 2014) investigated the effects of teaching CSs (e.g., approximation, circumlocution) on the types of CSs employed by 23 students at intermediate level speaking classes in a pre-test and post-test design. The study found that the explicit teaching of CSs promoted students' communicative skills through an increase in the level of speech comprehensibility. The post-test shows a significant increase in the use of the CSs compared with the pre-test (e.g., approximation used 13 times vs. 5 times; circumlocution 290 times vs. 97 times, respectively); and a decrease of frequency use of CSs (e.g., code-switching, avoidance, appeal for assistance). The findings can be explained in terms of explicit instruction of CSs, not only having helped increase the use of CSs but also helping the learners gained confidence when expressing their thoughts and ideas in face-to-face conversation. The findings of the study demonstrated the positive impact of teaching CSs in language classrooms. Learners who have acquired more communicative strategies can successfully solve communicative problems when linguistic breakdown arises. It emphasizes the need for the

explicit teaching of communicative strategies to help learners communicate their message effectively.

Considering the supporting review above, in comparison to the study of CSs in English as a Second or Foreign Language contexts, scant research has been conducted in Spanish language classrooms (Maldonado, 2012; Maldonado, 2017). Maldonado's study investigated the effects of Spanish L2 learner's proficiency with regards face-to-face CSs, specifically analyzing two types of interaction: L2 learners of Spanish (*n* = 18–26) with Native speakers of Spanish (NSs/*n* = 20–35), and two groups of L2 learners of Spanish. Data were collected via two jigsaw activities and a free-conversation task and followed close analysis from (Dörnyei & Kormos, 1998) taxonomy. The results of the study reported that most learners 'confirmed to help/correction' by means of positive response and that the CS most frequently used within was response-repeat. This means that one student attempted to express part of the intended message by retrieving a word (e.g., *líquido*/liquid), s/he realizes that it was the incorrect word, so the student indicated this uncertainty to the interlocutor by expressing the s/he does not know the word or by laughing. This action was repeated by the speakers to make sure the interlocutor confirmed assistance in his/her comment. Although this occurred on a few occasions, the study suggested that this strategy was not always successful, as the learner did not always receive a confirmation to get help when s/he needed it. Maldonado indicated that this strategy behavior was due to the mismatch in the speakers' linguistic status, in which the interlocutor was not able to provide the appropriate help the speaker needed during the conversation.

In the current study, three task types were administered: a brief self-description task and two post-test discussion tasks, Effective Communicative Assessment (ECA) and Oral Exam. All tasks, pre-tests, and post-tests were activities part of the Spanish course ("Appendix A"). The students were asked to converse as naturally as possible, with the hope of providing a context that reflected authentic conversation on various real-life themes. These forms of discussions allowed the students the opportunity to practice language use by expressing comparisons and opinions along with interlocutor positions.

Notably, while explicit instruction of CSs has been examined in several EFL/ESL contexts, this phenomenon remains largely unexamined in Spanish in second foreign language classroom (Alibakhshi & Padiz, 2011; Bialystok & Fröhlich, 1980; Ghout-Khenoune, 2012; Maleki, 2010; Mirsane & Khabiri, 2016; Tavakoli et al., 2011; Wang, Lai, & Leslie, 2015). In order to contribute to the antecedent work on the benefit of explicit instruction of CSs, this study focuses specifically on the explicit teaching of the five CSs to uncover the benefits of communicative strategies used on English speakers who are learners of Spanish. The five CSs include clarification request, comprehension check, paraphrasing/circumlocution, self-repair, and filled pauses ("Appendix B").

The present study investigates the effect of explicit instructions communication strategies on Spanish learners at low intermediate levels. Guidelines from The American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Language (ACTFL) describe speakers at low intermediate levels as individuals who can

handle a limited number of uncomplicated communicative tasks while building linguistic skills during social interactions. For example, this includes topics related to self and family, some daily activities, immediate needs, such as ordering food. The changes will be related to the participant's strategy usage at the end of the 13-week Spring semester. This paper aims to answer the following question: "What are the similarities and differences in the patterns of use of CSs after the treatment between the control and experimental groups with regards to the different oral tasks that elicit spontaneous speech?"

2. Methodology

2.1. The participants and context

The participants were enrolled in a three-credit, 13-week intermediate Spanish course during Spring 2019. The participants in the control group (*n* = 12) and experimental group (n = 20) were undergraduate students. The class met 50 minutes three times a week, Mondays, Wednesdays, and Fridays. Each class consisted of a single continuous 50 minutes session. The aim of the Spanish course was to develop L2 communicative skills while enhancing social and cultural awareness of the Spanish-speaking world. The participants in the experimental group (*n* = 20) consisted of 16 females and 4 males, ages between 18 and 20 years old. This class received explicit instruction of CSs. The participants in the other classroom (*n* = 12), 9 females and 3 males, with the same age range, did not receive this specific information on strategies but had otherwise the same instructor, syllabus, and course material as the other classroom. Since the total number of male students in both groups was only 6 — two male students in the control group and four in the experimental group — gender was not considered a variable in the current research. The two sections were selected because they were taught by the same instructor.

2.2. Materials

The textbook used throughout the semester for both groups was a five-chapter textbook containing themes of social contexts from daily life to more universal ideas like family, love, social roles, and issues, etc. The students engaged in oral activities while making comparisons between their own and other people's perspectives, values, and beliefs in relation to the Spanish communities and culture.

2.3. Treatment

The experimental group, which was comprised of 20 participants, received explicit instruction on the five CSs in order to help them convey meaning when faced with communication breakdowns and while also offering awareness of the importance of the CSs. The five CSs were selected and explicitly taught by the instructor, following an explanation of the course material and syllabus, and research guidelines (for full information on Dörnyei and Scott Taxonomy, see "Appendix F"). The selection of these five strategies was based on proficiency factor research. Prior research on the use of communicative strategies by intermediate learners has been inconclusive. Some studies demonstrated that groups of L2 learners resort

more to "problem orientedness" achievement devices, such as paraphrasing or self-repair, whereas other studies have reported no significant differences in the use of communicative strategies such group.

In order to keep students fully aware of the five communicative strategies, students were given a strategy sheet that included not only definitions of the strategies but also the CS examples, facilitating their use when communicating. Prior to administering the CSs, the students were introduced to the material and were told the importance of learning the strategies in order to motivate them. The control group, which was comprised of 12 students, received no explicit instruction on CSs.

2.4. Classroom CS Instructions

The explicit instructions on the five communicative strategies selected and implemented by the instructor and researcher consisted of using these communicative strategies during the oral activities. These activities were aimed to practice and develop vocabulary on different themes of Spanish multilingual communities at home and around the world.

The CS instructions consisted of two parts: part 1. Presentation and explanation of the 5 CSs; part 2. Using communicative peer/group activities with a focus on CSs and peer feedback evaluation of CSs used, and part 3. Recording.

Part 1 – Presentation and explanation of the 5 communicative strategies.

Once a week, at the beginning of class, instruction was presented on one communicative strategy. It was explained, practiced, and analyzed for about 10 minutes. First, a copy of the CS definitions was provided to each student. The instructor explained these concepts alongside a PowerPoint slide. While the instructor reviewed the CSs, the students were asked to have their own copy on the desk during the instruction in order to refer to it when practicing. For example, when expressing nonunderstanding, in a situation when a learner did not understand something verbally, causing communication breakdown, students used the performance related to L1-L2 based CS by asking for clarification or repetition (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997). Similarly, when students were trying to recall something, they resorted to filled pauses, such as *este, bueno, pues,* etc.

Once the last of the five communicative strategies was taught, then a new communicative strategy instruction started again. This means a different communitive strategy was reviewed each week over the course of five weeks. One week's instruction was entirely devoted to self-repair, the following week's instruction focused on clarification request, the third week's instruction focused on filled pauses, and so forth. The instruction of communicative strategies was also maintained the second half of the semester in the same manner as explained in this section above.

The explanation of the CSs was also accompanied by short, spontaneous clips from *Dialectoteca del español* as well as samples drawn from ACTFL Communication Oral. The clips were presented in class at the end of the week. The students were asked to watch and identify the targeted CS used by the speakers in the video clip. The video clip was played two times: the first students were instructed to listen, while the second time, students were

asked to write down the type of CS observed. The observations made by the students were shared, first in groups, then as a whole class.
Part 2 – The use of communicative activities with a focus on communicative strategies.
In peer/group activity, students engaged in oral activities already designed and pre-established in the course syllabus. An example of a picture description activity is explained below:
Activity 1 – The students were asked to bring to class an image that presented the chapter topic being reviewed in class. For example, in the case of the chapter that discussed a social inequality situation, students brought pictures depicting the roles of women and native people. In pairs, one student described the image to the partner without revealing it. The latter student drew this image in their notebook and kept a record of the type(s) of communicative strategy(ies) used by the partner, as they were encouraged to use them. Each student took an opportunity to provide a description of their image. At the end of the exchange, the group showed their drawings and decided whether it was a good representation of the description uttered while negotiating meaning or when reaching an understanding. At the end, the students were asked to evaluate each other in the use of communicative strategies based on types(s) and how much Spanish their classmates employed.
(Rabab'ah, 2016), states that only through the learner's own awareness of the existence of such difficulties when communicating can they overcome or solve these issues. (Maldonado, 2017; Poulisse, 1990) also state that promoting collaboration and assistance from their peers can help and convey meaning during oral speech.
In order to make sure that the instructions were followed, the instructor walked through the classroom during the oral activities to check and assist the groups. This type of picture description activity was performed five times at the beginning of each of the five chapters of the textbook. Other oral activities involving the use of the CSs, was based on short films reviewed in class as part of the course material. In pairs or groups, the students provided the description of the characters of the film and plot while comparing views with their own understanding of Spanish culture.
Part 3 – Recordings. The students were recorded while carrying out the oral tasks for the two post-tests, ECA and Oral Exam. For both tasks, the students were required to converse spontaneously with a partner on a variety of topics studied to that point in class (e.g., the family and romantic relationships, social role of women, and issues with regards to the Spanish communities).

2.5. Speaking Tasks

A total of three interpersonal oral tasks were used to examine the explicit instruction of CSs, in both classrooms, at different times in the semester. The interpersonal tasks included a pre-test, and two semi-guided tasks (a mid-test/ECA and a final test/Oral Exam), on CSs used. Prior to administering the CSs, the pre-test was performed. The students were asked to converse with a partner of their choice about who they were, where they were born, and what they expected to gain from the Spanish class at the end

of the course semester. The oral data were collected using recorders on their smartphones and submitted to the instructor via Dropbox. Each task lasted approximately two minutes per group for both the experimental and control group (for excerpts of pre-test samples, see "Appendix C"). It is worth noting that the different formats of these tasks were already built as part of the Spanish syllabus course.

The mid-test was also an interpersonal task. The Effective Communication Task, or ECA, was administered a month after CSs were taught. This task required the student to converse spontaneously with a partner on a variety of topics viewed during class. For example, they were asked to discuss relationships, to talk about characteristics that they value in people, describe what type of relationship(s) they wanted to have in the future, share their opinion on traditional and modern attitudes of being single, etc. The experimental group was asked to use the five CSs taught in class.

The control group, used as a baseline, was asked to perform the same three speaking tasks as the experimental group. The instructions for this task were projected on a PowerPoint slide. For the experimental group, the topics were projected alongside the explicit five explicit communicative strategies. The students were recorded while the instructor walked around the classroom, evaluating each interaction in a non-intrusive manner. The students' partners were selected randomly by the instructor using their names tag. The groups were provided with 35 minutes to carry out their discussions (for an excerpt from ECA samples, see "Appendix D").

The final test or Oral Exam was a seven-minute oral interaction: two minutes to strategize the topic and five minutes to spontaneously enact it with the partner. Prior to the Oral Exam, the students were asked to select their own partners two weeks in advance. Unlike ECA, the students were provided with a less contextualized scenario consisting of only one topic per group. For example, they were asked to discuss immigration/deportation, to express their opinion and feelings on the topic while demonstrating control for grammatical forms, such as past tense, imperfect, and subjunctive. In pairs, the groups were provided with five envelopes containing a paper with the topics inside. The envelopes were randomly given to the groups so they could select one. The topics were selected by the groups until they unsealed the envelope, and the conversation was recorded using a Handy Recorded, H4n Pro (for excerpt Oral Exam samples, see "Appendix E").

2.6. Data analysis

The data for the current study were collected adopting a qualitative research tool, namely elicitation tasks. The tasks were manually coded and transcribed by the researcher. The speaking tasks were transcribed for the identification and confirmation of the communicative strategies used by the learners. Preliminary identification of the learner's communicative strategies made use of Dörnyei and Scott's (1997) taxonomy, which allowed to decide and make the necessary adaptations. Following this, descriptive procedures were employed to present and create descriptions of the findings. In order to calculate the frequency of the communicative strategies, the total number for each strategy was calculated in the whole corpus. Furthermore, in the

description, frequencies and percentages were presented in a table for every communicative strategy.

3. Findings

Research Question: "What are the similarities and differences in the patterns of use of CSs after the treatment between the control and experimental groups with regards to the different oral tasks that elicit spontaneous speech?"

In response to the question, the results indicated that the experimental group made use of the five communicative strategies noted in this study and adopted from Dörnyei and Scott (1997). From the grand total (228), the experimental group produced 180 instances of communicative strategies, while 48 were counted for the control group. It appears that the most prevailing strategy was self-repair, 86 instances by the experimental group to only 27 instances across tests. This means that by mid-test, the learners self-initiated correction 68.52% of the time, compared to 5.48% of the time when describing or exemplifying an object during the interpersonal speaking tasks. In the same interval of time, the use of the comprehension check, paraphrasing, and comprehension request averaged between 21% to .60%, whereas filled pauses were the least preferred achievement device. The experimental group resorted to this strategy only 3.18% of the time and increased its use to 50% of the time by post-test. It worth noting that the control group did not produce any filled pauses across tasks. It could be that this strategy is the last to acquire and that the learners still resort to other achievement mechanisms in their L1, such as "uh," "ahm," and "so." The percentages and frequency of each of the five CSs, beginning from the most to the least frequently used, are exhibited below in *Table 2. The Use of Communicative Strategies Across Task Type.*

Table 2
The Use of Communicative Strategies Across Task Type

Strategy type	**Observed frequency across oral tasks**					
	N. of instances and *(%)*					
	Pre-test		**Post-tests**			
			ECA/mid-test		**Oral test**	**Exam/final**
	CG	**EG**	**CG**	**EG**	**CG**	**EG**
Self-repair	2	1	27 *(5.48)*	86 *(68.52)*	2 *(.42)*	5 *(3.94)*
Clarif. request	1	0	2 *(.40)*	26 *(20.71)*	3 *(.63)*	3 *(2.36)*
Para-phrasing	0	0	6 *(1.21)*	17 *(13.54)*	1 *(.21)*	5 *(3.94)*
Comp Check	0	0	3 *(.60)*	16 *(12.74)*	2 *(.42)*	2 *(1.57)*
Filled pauses	0	0	0	4 *(3.18)*	0	15 *(11.84)*
Total instances =	**2**	**1**	**38**	**149**	**8**	**30**
Grand Total =	**3**		**187**		**38**	

Table 2 also shows that prior to the explicit teaching of communicative strategies, both pre-test groups only used two of the five communicative strategy types included in this study. The control group (CG) only employed two self-repairs, whereas the experimental group (EG) used only one self-repair. An explanation for this small sample of CS is the nature of the task. This task demanded that the learners converse only in three areas: who they were, where they were from, and what they expected from this course. This task prompted an average time of 2 minutes across groups. Other elicitation questions, such as 'describe yourself and family members,' would have triggered more CS production in the learners. We recognize that this was one of the prime limitations of this task. This is oral task did not encourage the learners from assisting their peers through negotiation of meaning exchange. This can be observed through the small samples of speech production by both groups. Therefore, the pre-test was excluded from further analysis.

On the contrary, from the number of communicative strategies used in the mid-test by both groups, we might conclude that this task elicited a larger sample of communicative strategies. This task required the learners to converse on various topics (e.g., family, romantic relationships, social issues) and were given 35 minutes to converse. The EG group resorted to a higher frequency of the five communicative strategies instructed in this study, whereas the CG used few instances of four communicative strategies. Out of the five strategies, self-repair was the most preferred by both groups. The EG used this strategic mechanism 58% of total instances (149), whereas the CG used it in 70% of the total instances (38) for this task. In other words, the CG resorted more times to self-repair or restructuring mechanism compared to the EG. We might suppose that it seems intuitive to self-initiate correction to one's speech when a breakdown of communication occurs.

Table 3 presents the results of ANOVA analysis of the use of speaking mid-test. The experimental group achieved higher scores than control groups on the five communicative strategies test components. The experimental group scored 29.8, while the control group 7.6. This shows that the experimental group outperformed the control group in the speaking mid-test, which in turn can be attributed to the positive impact of explicit instruction. The results of statistical analysis showed that the group differences were highly significant with a strong effect (F (1 , 8) = 2.105, $p < 0.1$), which can also be attributed to communicative strategy explicit instruction. Figure 1 Shows the results of the communicative strategies obtained from the speech samples of both groups in the mid-test.

Table 3
Means and Standard Deviations of the Speaking Mid-term Used by both Groups

Groups	**Mean instances**	**SD**
Control group	7.6	11.05
Experimental group	29.8	32.37

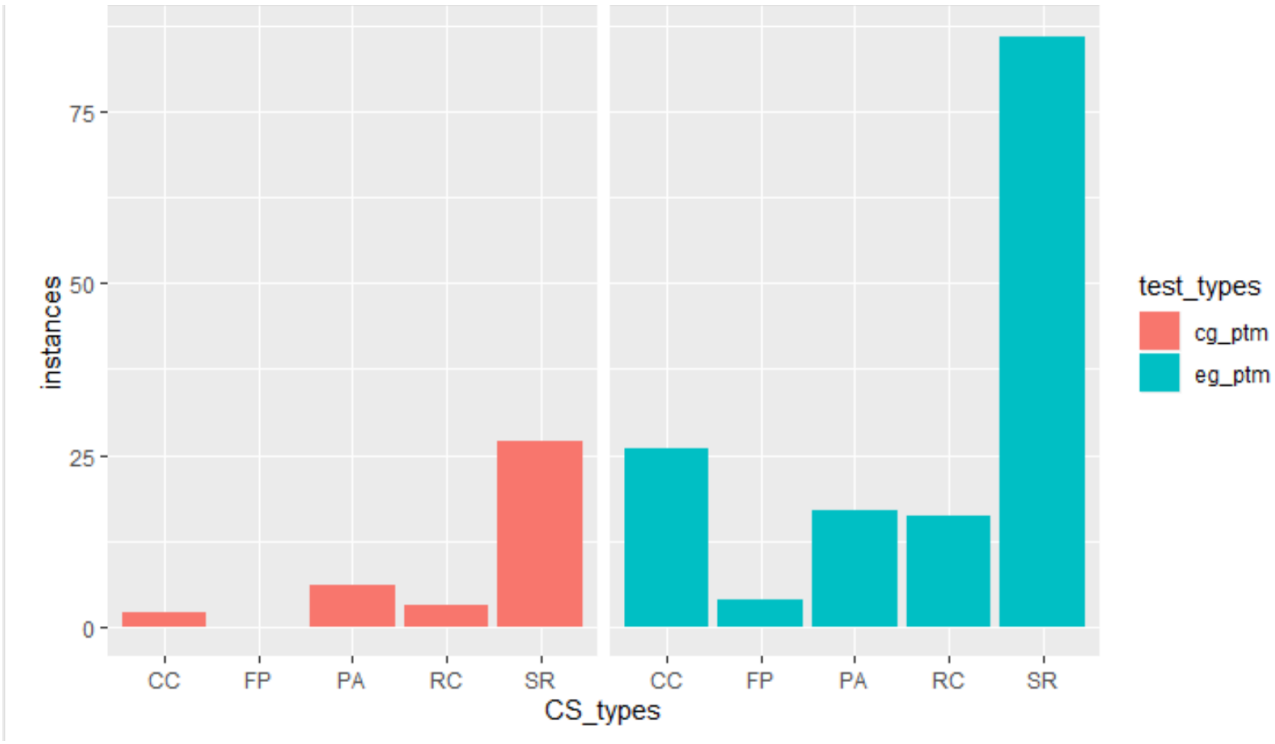


Figure 1. Communicative Strategies of the Speaking Mid-test Produced by both Groups

In the case of the experimental group in the turquoise bars, the self-repair communicative strategy was produced on average 86% of the time compared to the control group, which made use of this strategy 27% of the time. The comprehension check was produced 26% of the time to 2% of the time; paraphrasing was produced 17% of the time to 6% of the time; requesting clarification 16% to 3%, while filled pauses were produced 4% of the time compared to no production by the control group.

With regards to comprehension check, paraphrasing, and comprehension request were the other communicative strategies most used by both groups, after self-repair. However, EG used proportionally more of these strategies, compared to CG resorting to them on few occasions. These data indicate that the CG was more restricted to one type of achievement mechanism, compared to the EG, which was strategically more diverse in the use of all five communicative strategies during this task. These data might also suggest that such outcomes for the EG might be due to an atmosphere of competition, as the students knew that they were being graded during this task.

The results presented in (Maldonado, 2017) align with the results of this study. In her study, she states that the intermediate group tends to use more complex mechanisms, such as 'approximation' and 'self-repair' strategies (e.g., synonym or antonym), allowing them to restructure their speech. The dominance of filled pauses during the OE by the experimental group indicates that more controlled tasks elicited more time-gaining mechanisms, as it relates to higher demand of attentional resources, while time is needed for L2 processing. Additionally, recent studies revealed that intermediate-level learners are more inclined to use more frequent

achievement mechanism devices related to paraphrasing and restructuring (Garcia Nuñez, 2006).

Results from the post-test revealed that task demand and time constraints seemed to be the most relevant aspects of this task. It should be recalled that this task required the learners to converse on one topic (e.g., agree/disagree on immigration) and were provided a total of seven minutes to perform. From the number of communicative strategies, we see that the EG used 15 instances of filled pauses, meaning 50% of the time, the learners resorted to this strategy during this speaking task, while the CG did not use this type of strategy. What might explain the quantitative differences between the two groups is the complexity of the task.

Table 4 presents the results of ANOVA analysis of the post-test given to both groups. The experimental group scored higher mean scores than the control group on the five communicative strategies test components. The experimental group's mean score on the post-test awarded was 5.8, whereas the control group was 1.6. This shows that the experimental group outperformed the control group in the speaking mid-test, which in turn can be attributed to the positive impact of explicit instruction. The results of statistical analysis showed that the group differences were highly significant with a strong effect (F (1 , 8) = 3.041, $p < 0.1$), which can also be attributed to communicative strategy explicit instruction. Figure 2. Shows the results of the communicative strategies obtained from the speech samples of both groups in the post-test.

Table 4
Means and Standard Deviations of the Speaking Post-test Used by both Groups

Groups	**Mean instances**	**SD**
Control Group	1.6	1.14
Experimental Group	5.8	5.26

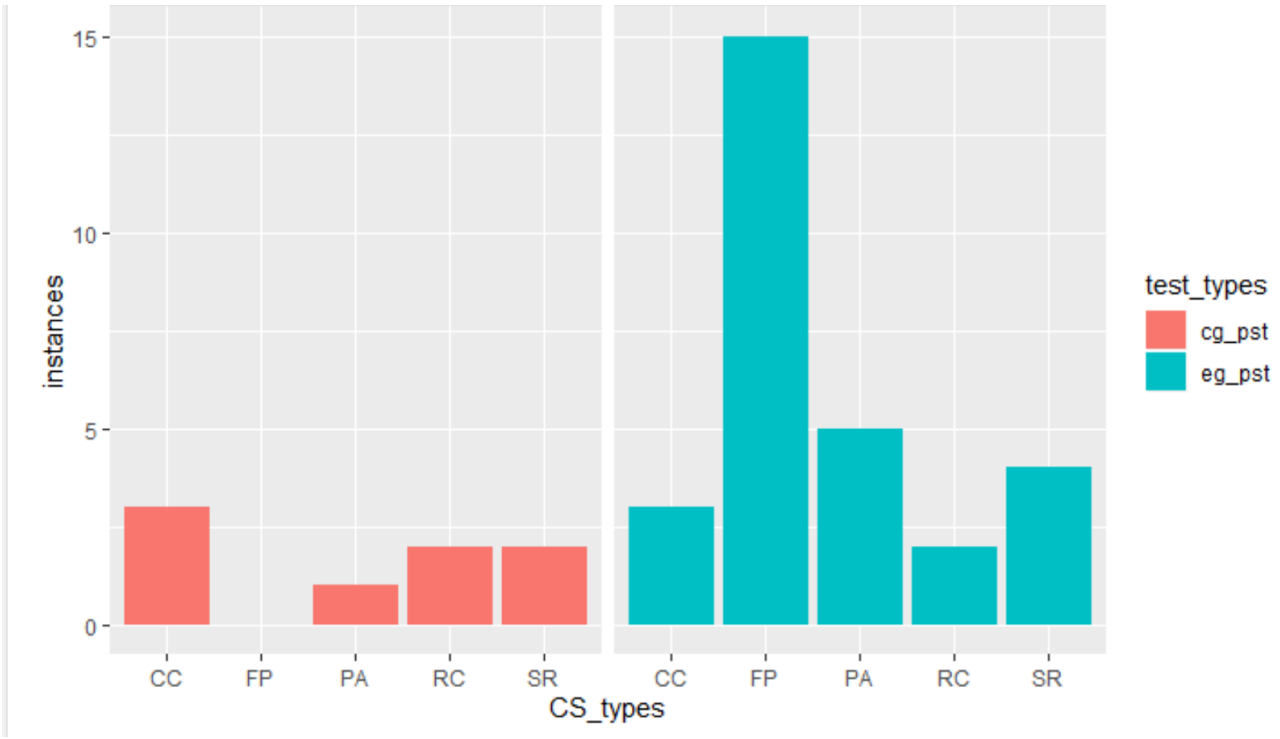


Figure 2. Communicative Strategies of the Speaking Post-test Produced by both Groups

In the case of the experimental group in the turquoise bars, the filled pause communicative strategy was produced on average 50% compared to the control group that makes no use of this strategy during the test. Self-repair and paraphrasing were produced 16.66% of the time to 2% of the time, whereas comprehension check, self-repair, and requesting clarification were produced .63% and .42%, respectively, by the control group.

Another difference observed is related to task complexity. The post-test was more complex, compared to the mid-test, in terms of time and number of topics to be discussed, leading to more cognitive taxation from the learners, as time-gaining mechanisms, such as filled pauses. This strategy is typically used when L2 processing requires more attentional resources and time to plan to deliver speech. The fact that the EG produced different types and frequencies of every communicative strategy explicitly taught across tasks can be attributed to the explicit teaching of CSs. The results observed on both oral tasks are in line with previous research (Ghout-Khenoune, 2012; Maldonado, 2017; Poulisse, 1990; Rabab'ah, 2016), which reported that their participants used different types of CSs across different tasks (e.g., picture description, interviews) and interlocutor type. In their studies, they also explained that the nature of the task type, context, task demands, time constraint, and even interlocutor type are important factors to consider when explaining this phenomenon of quantitative difference of CSs.

4. Discussion and Conclusions

The current study made it possible to analyze the effect of communicative strategies' explicit instruction on English speakers, Spanish learners at the low intermediate level during a 13-week course. The results of this study provided evidence of the effect of CS teaching, as the experimental group

showed progress in terms of language acquisition because of the communicative strategies teaching. The quantitative results obtained confirmed that the experimental group utilized a wider range of these strategies and that the types of CSs used strongly depend on time and number of topics to converse about. Although, we also observed a decrease in CS production from the mid to post-test by both groups. As stated earlier, this outcome might be related to the time provided to perform each task or variety and types of topics to converse. But we are also inclined to think that the learners experienced an increase in vocabulary size, narrative, fluency, and discourse abilities while less focus on form at post-test. Lafford (2004) also affirms in her study that by the end of the semester, her participants used fewer CSs, especially in the group studying abroad. This was attributed to gain the of fluency and discourse ability. Because it remains unclear regarding what might have caused the decrease of CSs used by the learners in this study, an investigation needs to be carried out in order to further discern the causes.

Also, further research should include a delayed post-test to examine whether the communicative strategies are maintained after the explicit teachings. For example, the study conducted by (Alibakhshi & Padiz, 2011) evaluated the stability of the communicative strategies after three months. This study reported that although some of the strategies (e.g., approximation, self-repetition) lost their effect, they remained stable even after the explicit CS teaching. The study indicated that only 'language switch' showed stability in this interval of time. Future studies should also focus on both first language and second language communicative strategies — that is, what communicative strategies the learners already produce in their first and second language communicative strategies to better examine if any correlation exists and better define their relationship.

Finally, even though the current study was a small-scale research project, and its findings cannot be generalized, this research reveals the importance of the explicit teaching of communicative strategies. Language teachers should teach communicative strategies, not only these types of CSs but also make observations about the acquisition of these strategic mechanisms, hence, allowing them to help the learners in their communicative achievement. Although the communicative strategies included in this study were carefully selected and described by the researcher, a one-to-one interrater reliability should have been conducted in order to reduce biases in the results.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Pre-test speaking task

Ask your partner the questions below. Once you are done, upload it via Dropbox into a folder called *"Conoce a tu compañero(a)"* (you will receive an email with this instruction soon after you start this activity)

Make sure to take turns. Ask the following:
1. His/her name and what he/she is studying
S1: ¿Cómo te llamas? S2: Me llamo…
S1: ¿Qué estudias? S2: Yo estudio…
2. where he/she is from and describe the region
S1: ¿De dónde eres y cómo es? ¿Cuál es tu ciudad natal?
S2: Soy de … y es …
3. ¿Qué esperas aprender de este curso?
S1: Espero aprender ….

Appendix B: 5 Communicative Strategies Used in the Study

5 Estrategias Comunicativas Spring_19 SPN 2200 –

1. **Para solicitar aclaración o repetición - *Requesting an explanation or repetition when comprehension breaks down.***

   S1: "¿A qué hora comes todos los días?" / "*What time do you eat every day?"*

   S2: "Ahmm … **no comprendo, no entiendo. ¿Puede(s) repetir, por favor?** / *"I don't understand. Could you repeat, please?"*

2. **Ensuring comprehension/*Comprehension check - Asking questions to check that interlocutor understands.***

   S1: "la desigualdad social …es también, educación, trabajo, justicia y ahhm, **¿(me) entiendes?**, **¿(me) comprendes?**, **¿me copias?**" / "*social inequality…is also, education, work, justiciar y ahm. Do you understand (me)?"*

   S2: "Sí, sí, sí… **(te) entiendo (pefectamente), (te) comprendo (perfectamente), te copio (perfectamente)** "/ "*Yes, yes, yes…I understand (you)".*

5 Estrategias Comunicativas Spring_19 SPN 2200 –

3. **Parafraseando (Circomlocución)/*Paraphrasing (Cirmcumlocution)* - Exemplifying, illustrating, or describing the properties of the target object or action.**



S: "…salió con su … **con la mamá de la mamá** (bisabuela) …" / "*she/he left with the … mother of the mother (great-grandmother)".*



4. Auto-reparación/*Self-repair* - Making self-initated corrections in one's own speech.

S: "…deseo una casa muy ahmm ahh…que no **es** grande…**sea** grande" / "*I want an apartment that is not so ahmm ahh … would be big … not so be big".* (Descripciones de los objetos que tienen que traer. 1st describe, 2nd partner drawing, 3rd show the object. Dates: 14 (kitchen) y 30 (lover representation) de enero, 15 (inmigration/refugees) de marzo, y 3 de abril (women and/or indigenous).

5. **Muletillas/*Filled-pauses. The voice that repeats frequently during speech making the conversation smooth. It sometimes refer to things I recently said and I am trying to recall (what was I saying?)* - Voz o frase que se repite mucho durante el habla y hacen el habla más armoniosa. Refiere a cosas como:** ¿de qué estoy hablando? ¿Qué dije hace rato?



"**este**…, **bueno… ajá**…, **pero**…, **pues**… **osea**…, **como**…, **y**…, **entonces**… **¡No te creo!** / *uh…, ah…, um…, well…, I mean…, like…, and…, then…I don't believe you*

Appendix C: Raw Excerpt Pre-test by the Experimental Group (106 w/C)

J: como te llamas?

A: me llamo [redacted] y tu?

J: Me llamo [redacted] Que estudias?

A: Yo estudio matemáticas y español. Y tu que estudias [redacted]

J: Yo estudio sociología. De donde eres?

A: Soy de Florida y tu?

J: Soy de Kansas. Cual es tu ciudad natal y como es?

A: Mi ciudad natal es Boca Raton y yo creo que es muy aburrido. Y tu?

J: Mi ciudad natal es Atlanta. Es muy loco y tiene la población grande. Ah y que esperar aprender en este curso?

A: Me gustaría aprender mas vocabulario y gramática. Y tu?

J: Ah.. espero aprender mas vocabulario.

Excerpt Pre-test on the Control Group (129 w/c)

M: ¿Cómo te llamas?

S: Me llamo [redacted]

M: ¿Qué estudias?

S: Yo estudio microbiología

M: ¿Cuál es tu ciudad natal y cómo es?

S: ah… mi ciudad natal es Orlando y es muy grande

M: ¿De dónde eres?

S: Soy de Englewood Florida

M: Y ¿que esperas aprender en usted no un en este curso?

S: Espero aprender más vocabulario y ah …comprehension

M: Si.

S: ¿Como te llamas?

M: Me llama [redacted]

S: ¿Qué estudias?

M: Yo estudia women studies

S: ¿Cuál es tu ciudad natal y cómo es?

M: Cómo es Napel Florida, muy caliente

S: ¿De dónde eres?

M: De dónde eh oh *I'm sorry* … **es** de Napel, **soy** (**CS4-Self-repair**) de Napel

S: ¿Y qué esperas aprender de este curso?

M: Espero aprender …español

Appendix D: Raw Sample Excerpt for the Effective Communication Transcript (ECA) by the Experimental Group (in 133 w/c)

G: Si entiendo. Las características en las personas que yo valoro es ahm son si son ah son (**CS4-Self-repair**) las personas confianzas y simpáticas y tienen muchas cosas que ellos ahm pueden hablar sobre. Me gusta hablar con personas

R: Si,. Ah… Pienso que todo de las características que necesitamos son características de compatabilidad.

G: **no entiendo. Repita**. (**CS 1: Requesting repetition**)

R: ahm … la compatabilidad. Cuando una persona y otra persona ahm ahm son buenos por la otro persona ah…ah

G: pienso que la compatabilidad es muy importante por una relación ah de amistad y ah relacion romántica.

R: **Si, si entiendo**.

G: perfecto. ¿Qué es tu opinión de la soltera y especial especialmente las neosolteras?

R: ah

G: **¿me entiendes?** (**CS2**: Ensuring comprehension)

R: **si, si entiendo** (**CS2**: Ensuring comprehension)

Sample Excerpt for the Effective Communication Transcript (ECA) by the Control Group (in 181 w/c)

J: ah una cosa es comunicación ah es más importante para la salud en una relación ah y confianza esos cosas más importantes para mi ah esas cosas **como se dice *besides***? …. Nadish. **Como se dice *radish*?**? (**Interactional Strategy, direct appeal for help**) ¿Qué es tu opinión sobre soltera?

M: (**she did not attempt to answer his Q**) ah ahora me gusta la soltera

J: es muy bueno?!

M: si… por porque no hay muchas responsabilidades, tengo mucha independencia. Ahmmm… También ah no soy muy ocupado ahm con un otro ah con otro otra persona (**CS4-Self-repair**) ahm pero en el futuro yo quiero una relación, pero ahora es más fácil estar soltera. Y tu?

J: si lo mismos…. mas fácil … no tengo las responsabilidades **como se dice *worry***? (**Interactional Strategy, direct appeal for help**) Sobre amiga en ah en otra persona ah pero puedo todo ah la mundo es ah es my **como se dice *oister***? (**Interactional Strategy, direct appeal for help**) creo que

M: ¿Crees que es mal estar soltera? ¿Crees que la soltera es mal o bueno?

Appendix E: Raw Excerpt Oral Exam Transcript on the Experimental Group (181 w/c)

L: **repite por favor** (**CS#1 – RE**)

A: ah ok pues tu tu jugabas ahm por el verano futbol si que que otra otras que que? 26

L: **¿deportes?** (**CS#2 – Comprehension check**)

A: que otras hacias, deportes o actividades durante en el verano?

L: me gusta ah ah jugar las cartas con mis amigos

A: ah si

L: ah ah vamos a la playa y **juega juegamos** (**CS#4 – Self repair**) con las cartas y ahm

A: en la playa?

L: en la playa pero no en la mal en la tienda

A: oh si si si si en la arena… ok

L: si y ¿tú que otras actividades?

A: ahm mi familia y yo asistíamos asistíamos a la playa también

L: si

A: ahm pero nunca jamás ah jugaba carta no sé por qué, pero en la playa mis toda mi familia cocinabamos ahm cocinános carne con con pan …**no se la palabras**

L: si si

A: si **hamburguesas** (**CS#3 – Paraphrasing**)… en la playa porque en la norte de la carolina del norte? Ahm por ¿por tu puedes ah man mandar mandar

S: ahmm hacer…La deportación 33

N: si si

S: Si pero creo que puedes hacerlo de una manera más ahm simpática y muy *you know*

N: si si

B: si y ahm pueden tratar a las personas que llegan a reportarlos como malos si 35

S: Si con respeto

B: Si

S: Si ahm porque *yeah* ah Pierre estaba llorando 37

N: si si

S: y su madre su padre estaban tratando de hablar con los oficiales y ah dar sus papeles de trabajo pero los oficiales no no no escu escucharon

N: si si oficiales ahm beben ahm deben tien or deben acto or muy simpático (tatsh) 40

S: si.. pero esa es una problema más grande de este vecindario *or* este vecin si *yeah* .. hay un problema de este país con inmi inmigrantes y ahm las tratamientos de este país con los inmigrantes en Tejas ahora porque hay muchos inmigrantes que son que están viviendo **como se dice ga?te? ..pero ? En condiciones malas (CS#3 – Paraphrasing)** 41

N: si si… ahm creo que inmigración ahm es no malo ahm porque inmigración ahm trabajo en ahm or

Appendix F: Taxonomy of the Five Communicative Strategies (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997).

APPENDIX

COMMUNICATIVE STRATEGIES (BASED ON DÖRNYEI & SCOTT, 1997): EXAMPLES FROM THE CIEE PROJECT DATA

The coding of the data is as follows: an initial S indicates Spain, an initial C indicates Colorado; the second two letters represent the participant's disguised initials; the following two-digit number refers to the individual participant; for extracts taken from the pretest or posttest, the final initial and number indicate the following: A = pretest, B = posttest, 1 = the first extract, and 2 = the second extract. For extracts from the role play, the last letters are either PRE for the pretest or POST for the posttest.

Direct Strategies

Resource deficit-related strategies: L1-based

SW: Code switching (language switch): Including L1 words with L1 pronunciation in L2.

SCA07A2: *No sé como se dice en español Nosotros* (scuba dive) (SW); "I don't know how to say it in Spanish. We scuba dive?"

FO: Foreignizing: Using L1 word by adjusting to L2 phonology, morphology, or both.

CBI03B2: *Me gusta* (like) *diversitía* (FO); "I like (like) dayversitia." [based on English pronunciation of *diversity*]

LT: Literal translation (transfer): Translating literally a lexical item, an idiom, or a compound word or structure from L1 to L2 (*calque*), and false cognates.

CDA07PRE: *quiero asist . . . asistencia* (LT) *para mi plana*. "I want assist- assistance for my plan."
Interviewer: *¿y algo más?* "and anything else?"
CDA07PRE: *dos . . . uh . . . cuartos de cama?* (LT/AC); "two rooms of bed" [for *bedrooms*]

Resource deficit-related strategies: L2-based

AO: Approximation: Single alternative lexical item, such as a superordinate or a related term, that shares semantic features (e.g., synonym or antonym) with the target word or structure.

CDA07PRE: *Por favor, pones mi en la, la papel, el papel* (AO) *de esta avión*. "Please, put me on the, the paper, the paper [for *passenger list*] of that plane."

DR: Derivationally related word: Word(s) derivationally related to target word by form and meaning—not in Dörnyei and Scott's (1997) taxomony.

SCL10A1: *El es un inglaterra?* (DR/AC); "He is an England?" [for *Englishman*]

AW: All-purpose words: Using "empty" lexical item for vocabulary deficits.

CWE36B2: *El centro no quiere, quiere que ah usar uhm algo* (AW) *como ah . . . no sé como se dice en español . . . algo* (AW) *como ah . . . un, un minu, un momento* (SR) *solo cuando estás, cuando ellos están* (SR) *horrible* (PA). "The center does not want, want ah to use um . . . something like ah . . . I don't know how to say it in Spanish . . . something like ah . . . a, a minu- moment alone when you, when they are horrible."

SS: Similar-sounding words: Use of lexical item whose form is similar to target.

CFO11A2: *En la escuela secundaria yo, yo hice muchos divertido?* (SS/AC) *diportivos?* (WC/AC); "In high school I, I did a lot of fun? sports [pronounced incorrectly]?" [*Divertido* "fun" sounds like *deportivos*, adjective form relating to sports.]

WC: Word coinage: Creating a novel L2 word by L2 rule formation patterns.

CBA01PRE: *Oh, possible* (SW), *possible* (SR) *yo intere-san-to* (WC) *en otros apartamentos*. "Oh, possible, possible I (am) inte-res-ted [slows down] in other apartments."

OM: Omission: Leaving a gap when not knowing a word and continuing.

SC10A1: *él tiene dos hijos y yo . . .* _____ (OM) *como una, como su hija joven*. "He has two children and I . . . _____ like a, like his young daughter." [*Soy* "am" was not uttered.]

PA: Circumlocution (paraphrase): Exemplifying, illustrating, or describing the properties of the target object or action.

SCO10B2: *con su . . . con el hermano de su esposo* (PA); "With her . . . with her husband's brother. [for *cuñado* "brother-in-law"]

RS: Restructuring: Abandoning the execution of a verbal plan because of language difficulties, leaving the utterance unfinished, and communicating message with an alternative plan. In this study, RS also included Dörnyei and Scott's (1997) categories of message reduction and message replacement. RS includes cases where learners restructure due to lexical or syntactic deficiencies.

SDY15A1: *Estaba un poco difícil porque es, esco, echa- no . . . no sé mi familia estaba en Connecticut* (RS); "It was a bit difficult because I mi-mi . . . no (I don't know) my family was in Connecticut." [Learner wanted to say *echar de menos* "to miss" but could not retrieve it properly.]

MA: Message abandonment: Unfinished message due to some language difficulty.

CPE22A1: *(Amadeus) un . . . es una película sobre el vida de Mozart y su . . . su* I don't know (MA) *. . . y describe un um . . . otro músico*. "(Amadeus) a . . . is a film about the life of Mozart and his, his . . . (I don't know) and describes a, um . . . another musician."

Own performance problem-related strategies: L1- or L2-based

SR: Self-repair: Making self-initiated corrections in one's own speech.

CCH05PST: Ah . . . *quiero un apartamento muy ah* (RS) *que no es cara . . . caro* (SR); "I want an apartment (that is) very ah . . . that is not expensive [incorrect adjective form], expensive."

RT: Retrieval: Saying a series of incomplete or wrong forms or structures before reaching the optimal form—Dörnyei and Scott (1997) categorized this under *resource deficit-related strategies*.

CCH05B1: *solamente ayuda con la oficina ah . . . con lo, la, el* (RT) *trabajo*. "Only help with the office ah . . . with the [three forms; searching for correct definite article] work."

SP: Self-rephrasing: Rephrasing a term already uttered by adding something or using paraphrase.

CPE22B2: *para ir a los discotecas?* (AC) — *Los clubs de bailar* (SP). "To go to the discotheques?—the dancing clubs."

Interactional Strategies

Resource deficit-related strategies: L1- or L2-based

DA: Direct appeal for help: Requesting interlocutor assistance with an explicit question about L2 knowledge gap.

CNO21: Oh dear. . . . *¿Cómo se dice "apartment" en español?* (DA); "How do you say 'apartment' in Spanish?"
Interviewer: *No puedo decirte eso*. "I can't tell you that."

IA: Indirect appeal for help: Trying to elicit help from the interlocutor indirectly by expressing lack of a needed L2 item (verbally or nonverbally).

SLA23A1: *Es muy ah . . . ah . . . no sé como se dice* quiet (SW) or shy (SW) . . . *no sé como se dice* (IA) . . . "She is very ah . . . I don't know how to say 'quiet' or 'shy' . . . I don't know how to say it . . ."
Interviewer: *Explícame con otras palabras*. "Explain it to me with other words."

Own-performance problem-related strategies: L1- or L2-based

CC: Comprehension check: Asking questions to check that interlocutor understands.

SJE21B2: *hablar con mis madre*, *padre*, *no tengo niños ah y ¿entiendes?* (CC); "to speak with my (Spanish) mother, father, I don't have children (in the house) Do you understand?"
Interviewer: *Sí*, *sí*, *sí. Te entiendo perfectamente*. "Yes, yes, yes. I understand you perfectly."

AC: Own-accuracy check: Learner indication of some degree of uncertainty, expressed with words or just with question intonation, about a self-produced form.

CQU25B2: *es un poco chidioso?* (WC) *¿Es una palabra en español?* (AC); "He is a little 'chidioso'? Is that a word in Spanish?" [Target was probably *childish*—talking about her horse.]
Interviewer: *No comprendo esa palabra*. "I don't understand that word."

Other-performance problem-related strategies: L1- or L2-based

NU: Expressing nonunderstanding: Expressing that the learner did not understand something properly either verbally or nonverbally.

Interviewer: *¿A qué hora tienes que levantarte?* "What time do you have to get up?"
CBA01A1: Uhm . . . *no comprendo.* (NU); "I don't understand."

CR: Asking for clarification or repetition: Requesting an explanation or repetition when comprehension breaks down.

Interviewer: *¿Qué desea Ud.?* "What do you want?"
CFR13PRE: *¿Cómo?* (CR-L2); "What?"

FC: Asking for confirmation: Requesting confirmation that comprehension was accurate.

Interviewer: *¿Puede decirme más o menos qué cosas son importantes para usted en un apartamento?* "Can you tell me more or less what things are most important for you in an apartment?"
CFR13PRE: *Ah . . . A mí ¿Qué es importante?* (FC); "Ah . . . For me, what is important?"
Interviewer: *Sí, porque tenemos diferentes apartamentos.* "Yes, because we have different apartments."

RC: Response-confirm: Confirming what the interlocutor has said or suggested.

SKL22PRE: *¿Es más barco?* (SS/AC) *¿No comprendo?* (CC for *¿no comprende?*); "Is it more boat? Do I not understand?" [for Do you understand?"]
Interviewer: *¿Más barato?* "Cheaper?"
SKL22PRE: *Más barato, sí.* (RC) "Cheaper, yes."

PT: Response-rephrase: Rephrasing the trigger as a response to an interlocutor.

SCO10PRE: *Y . . . ¿qué . . . qué cuatros* (AO) *es . . . es abierto?* "And . . . what . . . what rooms [for *apartments*] is . . . is open?"
Interviewer: *¿Cómo? No comprendo.* "What? I don't understand."
SCO10PRE: *Ah. ¿qué . . . ¿ cuántos casas tiene ahora?* (PT); "What . . . How many houses do you have now?" [for *apartments*]

RR: Response-repair: Providing other-initiated self-repair.

CDA07PRE: *¿Cuándo tiempo es el primero plano a Nueva York?* "What time is the first plan [false cognate with English for *plane*] to New York?"
Interviewer: *¿Plano?* "Plan?"
CDA07PRE: *Plano . . . avión, el avión, el avión.* (RR) "Plan . . . plane, the plane, the plane."

RE: Response-repeat: Repeating the original trigger or the suggested corrected form.

CBI03PST: una . . . ¿balquino? (AC/FO); "a balquino?" [foreignization of *balcony*]
Interviewer: *¿un balcón?* "a balcony?"
CBI03PST: *balcón* (RE); "balcony"

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Gricean Pragmatics and the English Language in Nigeria

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Kaseem Oladimeji Olaniyi[1]
Federal University of Lokoja
Josephine Olushola Oyinbo[2]
Federal University of Lokoja

Abstract

This paper is an aphoristic assessment of certain day-to-day, common and uncommon-place expressions in different domains in the Nigerian linguistic world. It is also a study of some cogent but differentiable pragmatic principles which may serve as the panacea for the inadequacies in Gricean pragmatics. A revision of the Gricean Cooperative Principle to foreground the strength of the theory and the observation of its weaknesses informed the mitigation of the wimpiness in it, with more entrenching approaches such as pragmatic presupposition, conversational implicature and common ground. The framework for the analysis of the twelve selected Nigerian English expressions is mainly Grice's (1975) Cooperative Principle. The samples were randomly selected from the social media chats and other informal settings. The concluding remark urges the user of the Grice's principle to possibly triangulate the theory with other context-dependent theories such as the Mutual Contextual Beliefs (MCB) or the Common Ground (CG) to mitigate the unidirectional approach of Grice's theory to meaning interpretation. Without a Common Ground shared by Nigerians in a multi-ethnic, multi-cultural contexture and relative affinity, accurate meaning interpretation and understanding of the English Language spoken and written by Nigerians may have been continuously unrealizable. Meaning interpretation amongst Nigerians is thus made possible because they share similar grounds of political history, culture and religion, among other ties.

Keywords Gricean pragmatics, English language, cooperative principle, conversational implicature, pragmatic presupposition, common ground

1. Introduction

Generally, meaning has been said to be "intractable in nature (Odebunmi, 2006, p.4)". The truth in support of this position is that meaning is primarily and ultimately social, and different people come into explicating it with diverse orientations. Inputs into the pool of meaning have come from philosophy, psychology, neurology, semiotics and linguistics. In the case of philosophers, they seek to know "how anything means something and what sort of relation must hold between X and Y for it to be the case that X means Y (Cruse 2000, p.11)". This thinking is not in a disparate sense from the reasoning of H.P. Grice and others who have contributed to natural and non-natural meaning in scholarship. To help draw a line between the incidental

[1] Bio: Kaseem Oladimeji Olaniyi is a Senior Lecturer in the Department of English and Literary Studies at the Federal University Lokoja. Kogi State, Nigeria. His research interests cover Nigerian English, Phonology, Sociolinguistics and Applied Linguistics. Corresponding author: kaseem.olaniyi@fulokoja.edu.ng

[2] Bio: Josephine Olushola Oyinbo is a Lecturer in the Department of English and Literary Studies at the Federal University Lokoja, Kogi State, Nigeria. Her research interests cover Pragmatics and Discourse Linguistics. Contact: josephineoyinbo@fulokoja.edu.ng

transfer of information, and communication proper, we have sought to appeal to an important idea of the philosopher, Grice (1957). Distinguishing between what he calls 'natural meaning' (as in palp water is palp), and non-natural meaning or meaning-nn (equivalent to the notion of intentional communication), Grice gives the following characterization of meaning-nn:

(1) S meant-nn *z* by uttering U if and only if:
(i) S intended U to cause some effect *z* in recipient H
(ii) S intended (i) to be achieved simply by H recognizing that intention (i)

Here, S stands for speaker (in the case of spoken communication; for sender or communicator in other cases); H for hearer, or more accurately, the intended recipient; "uttering U" for utterance of a linguistic token, i.e., a sentence part, sentence or string of sentences or sentence parts (or the production of non-linguistic communicative acts); and z for (roughly) some belief or volition invoked in H. In the words of Levinson (1995, p.16), "such a definition is likely to be opaque at first reading, but what it essentially states, is that communication consists of the 'sender' intending to cause the 'receiver' to think or do something, just by getting the 'receiver' to recognize that the 'sender' is trying to cause that thought or action".

The distinction between meaning and use has found many applications in philosophy, linguistics and artificial intelligence. Both the analytic/synthetic distinction, which relies on a conception of truth by virtue of meaning, and the idea of a conversational implicature requires for their full philosophical development a theory of meaning starting with his 1957 paper "Meaning" and elaborated in later papers (see Grice 1968. 1969, 1982). The basic idea was to distinguish two notions of meaning: what a sentence means in general apart from any use of it, and what a specific speaker means by using the sentence on a particular occasion. Grice sees the latter notion as entirely a matter of what the speaker intends. Grice's idea was to show that the abstract notion of sentence meaning was to be understood in terms of what specific speakers intend on specific occasions.

1.1. Conversational Implicature

Conversational implicatures are things that a hearer can roughly work out from the way something was said rather than what was said. People process conversational implicatures all of the time and are mostly, unaware of doing so. For example, if someone asks, "Could you close the door?" the hearer does not usually answer "Yes", instead they perform the non-linguistic act of closing the door. In this case, although the speaker used a form of words that is conversationally a question, the hearer can infer that the speaker is making a request.

Grice's theory of Conversational Implicatures proposes that participants in a communicative exchange are guided by a principle that determines the way in which language is used with maximum efficiency and effect to achieve rational communication. He called it the Cooperative Principle (2008). Grice (2013) writes an addendum to his earlier statements on implicatures by updating this knowledge with Material and Behavioural Implicatures having

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In the recent contribution to implicature, Grice mentions 'particularized conversational implicatures'. According to him, "in some cases, it is possible to reconstruct the inference from the explicit content of the utterance to the implicature without employing a premise to the effect that the speaker expressed that content (by means of an utterance)". Grice calls these 'material implicatures". Those whose reconstruction relies on a premise about the speaker's verbal behaviour, by contrast, I call 'behavioural implicatures'. After showing that the division is theoretically significant, I ask whether current pragmatic theory is able to accommodate it. I conclude that, while (neo)-Gricean pragmatics cannot do so straightforwardly, the distinction is already implicit in Relevance theory.

Grice (1975) comes up with four set of rules or rather maxims in an attempt to further streamline his standpoint. These maxims, he claims, should form the guideline for an effective communication.

i. Maxim of Quality: Do not say what you believe to be false. Do not say what you lack adequate evidence.
ii. Maxim of Quantity: Make your contribution as informative as is required; do not make your contribution more informative than is required.
iii. Maxim of Relevance: Be relevant. Make your contribution in relation to the topical discourse.
iv. Maxim of Manner: Be perspicuous; do not be ambiguous; avoid obscurity of expression.

These maxims according to Grice (1975) should be the prototype guideline in every human communication. In many of the Nigerian English expressions which we have exemplified in the data analysis' section, we may find that many interlocutors can fail to adhere to the maxims in a variety of ways, some mundane, some inadvertent (cf. Lindblom 2016, p.153). According to Leech (1980), the Gricean maxims are not as strongly regulative as grammatical rules and are therefore broken quite often. Therefore, these maxims can be broken into:

a. Flouting the Rules: A speaker blatantly fails to observe the maxim at the level of what is said, with the deliberate intention of generating an implied meaning. An example of an irrelevant response is given below:
   Chioma: Emeka, will you still marry me?
   Emeka: Is the Pope a Catholic?
b. Violating the Rule: A speaker utters misleading utterances
   Mrs. Abah: Amaka did you take some apples and oranges in the refrigerator?
   Amaka: Mummy, I …took some fruits.

The speaker has violated the rules of quantity, relevance and manner. She subtletly gave more than required information.

c. Opting Out: A speaker opts out of a maxim when he or she is unwilling to cooperate.
   Chukwu: What's your take on President Buhari's attitude towards insecurity in the South West?
   Daura: Well, I'll rather not comment on the insecurity situation all over Nigeria.
d. By Infringing: Though not deliberate, it is a speaker's failure to observe a maxim.

According to Bossan (2017:68), "sometimes it may be due to impairment or incompetence in the language in other respects, typical cases of implicature as regards the maxim of Quantity is often observed in *tautology*. The maxim of Quality is not adhered to in cases where irony, metaphor, sarcasm, etc., are being used."

In the last three decades, there has been a burgeoning number of researchers investigating conversational implicature and Grice's principles. These critics have attacked from two opposing directions. Some critics argue that Grice's maxims are not sufficiently worked out to explain many of the phenomena raised related to implicature. For example, in the sentence, "Joan believes that some of her students will fail, even though the contained sentence is not asserted. In another direction, Wilson and Sperber (1981) and separately, Bardzokas, argue that Grice's principles can be derived from more general principles and should be understood in the context of some version of relevance theory.

1.2. English Language in Nigeria

'Two sides of a coin' is a phrase suitable for the description of the terms, English Language in Nigeria and Nigerian English. While the former expresses the status and functionality of the English Language in Nigeria, the latter expresses the corpora and the usages of the language in Nigeria. In the present scheme, my interest is in relating Grice's (1975) theory of meaning in the communicative, interpersonal meaning-making processes to the unscripted conversations among Nigerians. Thus, there is a sense in which the Gricean maxims can adequately explain the written and spoken utterances of Nigerians.

According to Awonusi (2004, p.46), "the historical development of the English Language in Nigeria falls into three main circles:

(a) The period before the advent of missionary education; 1400-1842,
(b) The period after the introduction of missionary education to the time of the amalgamation of the Northern and Southern Protectorates into Nigeria; 1842-1914,
(c) The period beyond the amalgamation to the introduction of self-rule, during independence, the civilian republic and years of military interregnum; 1914 to 1990 (present day).

These periods accommodated the importation, the transformations and the unending metamorphosis of the English Language in Nigeria today. The trends of new usages and new meanings as well as the trends of new contexts have taken over from the years of purism and rule-governedness although still tenaciously being advocated and propagated by the likes of Ganiyu Bamgbose, a.k.a G.A.B., amongst many others. Thus, Nigerian English expressions are no longer controversial. Eka (2005, p. 53) sums up the issues validating the existence of Nigerian English when he states that: "the questions of "correctness" or "wrongness" have vanished into the annals of history "acceptability", "intelligibility" and "communicativeness" are the binding forces for all Englishes and for their projected existence as variants of the English language.

The reports of Iwara (2008) in his inaugural lecture titled: *The Linguistic Situation in Nigeria and its Implications for Sustainable Development* capture almost all the vital information (on the history, the politics, the sociology (see Akindele and Adegbite 1999), the growth and the unending pragmatic changes in the new Englishes) needed by upcoming researchers. In Nigeria, at independence in 1960, the burning question that agitated the minds of many people, especially politicians and politically-aware academics and journalists was: What language should newly independent Nigeria adopt as its national language? Newspapers published several comments and essays on the topic at the time, most of them opposed to the continuing use of the colonial language as the official language of the country. In particular, the *West Africa Pilot, the Daily Express* and the *Daily Times* all published articles calling for the selection of one indigenous speech form to serve as the national language. After all the nasty debates in the parliament, the *Daily Express* duly warned that "parliament should be more careful about involving itself in the language tangle into which it is now being drawn. English is the accepted official language, the one outward expression of all that unites the various peoples in the country…To seek to replace English with some vernacular at a particular date-line is asking for more than the greatest nationalist of them all can handle".

Akere (2004, p. 262) adds his voice to the status which the English Language assumes in Nigeria by saying that, "English became the language in which the educated elite of the different ethnic groups could communicate with one another". He expatiated further that "the gradual movement towards nationhood and the development of an intricate system of political, administrative, and economic organization necessitated a change in the status and a widening of the range of functional roles served by some of the indigenous languages. It became the language of communication across ethnic boundaries in addition to the multifarious functions it was being used to perform in both the public and the private lives of many Nigerians". Oyeleye (2016, p.20-21) insists that the English language is important for communication dissemination, information sharing, education, socialization, and creativity. Human feelings, thoughts and wishes are expressed through the use of language, and in fact language is used to exercise the authority vested in an individual. English as official language performs these roles for us in a linguistically pluralistic Nigeria".

The English Language has been described along the levels of linguistics: syntax, phonology, lexico-semantics and pragmatics. Of concern to us in this paper is the Gricean perspective of pragmatics and the exemplary platforms in the Nigerian day-to-day conversations. Egbe (2004, p.304) opines that "there is a wide gap between the effectiveness of communication with Nigerian English as medium, at the grassroots level in rural areas and among the other levels, especially the lower and middle social levels in urban areas. Messages are passed through easily because the people have a common background and more or less identical knowledge of the world (MCB and Common Ground, see Adeoti 2020). There is a close and immediate link between the people, their language and the world around them, and so they describe the world as it is, drawing heavily on nature. This therefore makes room for *pragmatic* creativity in their use of language"
A pragmatic summary of Egbe (2004) in his article titled: "Communication at Grassroots Level: A Variety of Language Use in Nigeria" has the following issues as fundamental to the entire identity of Nigerian English.

- Cultural Norms: Age, moral ethics, societal solidarity, family solidarity, avoidance of taboos,
- Concreteness of Language: objects in the world, universal philosophy,
- Effectiveness of Expression: expressiveness, lexical collocation, language security, vocabulary,
- Creativity in Language: Doing things with language, incantations, proverbs, praise songs, story-telling, naming,
- Current Conditions in urban areas: linguistic diversity, the choice of language, inhibitions in communication, socio-economic consequences, pidgin English.

Making a reference to Adetugbo (1979, 1980) and Balogun (1980), Ogu (1992) notes that diachronically, a variety of English (yet to be fully described) has been identified as Nigerian. Kachru (1995) also notes in his foreword to New English that the African cannon of the English language (of which Nigerian English is a variety) has been established and recognized and that it is indeed a vital component of World Englishes.
Obviously, there are features at every level of Language that could be marked distinctively as Nigerian (see Ufomata 1990, Jowitt, 1991, Egbe 1996). Rather than belabour the question of whether Nigerian English exists or not, Bamgbose, in an article published in the national concord of eleventh of July, 1986 proposed that the concentration should be on the interesting task of specifying, describing and analyzing the forms of the variety (cf. Jibril, 1982). After this publication, a lot has been done on the task of describing the Nigerian English in relation to phonology, syntax, lexis and semantics as mentioned earlier in this section. Notable scholars in these different fields have come out with different data to support their claims that there exists a variety of English that is Nigerian (see Kujore 1985, Ufomata 1990, Jowitt 1991, Banjo 1995). Jowitt claims that there is such an abundance of data that a sizeable team can collect and catalogue. In this paper, some Nigerian English expressions have been sampled for a pragmatic examination from

the theoretical school of H.P. Grice. English Language in Nigeria has continued to transform to forms which pragmatically reflect and mirrors the overall Nigerian society.

2. Method of Data Gathering and Theory

The sampled expressions for this study are phrases, clauses and sentences, about ten in number. The expressions were randomly selected from speakers of the English language in different contexts: domestic, formal, sports, media, classroom, and from research respondents. Grice's theory of pragmatics, called the Cooperative Principle (CP) is employed to capture the representation of selected Nigerian English expressions and show how Nigerians obey or flout the maxims in their unscripted conversations. As there are cultures and different sociolects, so are there meanings which differ from culture to culture and from group to group. Therefore, to mitigate the absolute reliance on Grice's theory in interpreting the Nigerian English expressions, the idea of Common Ground (see Clark 1996/2006) has been of great help as key to a smooth communicative endeavour. Gricean pragmatic theory serves as the tool for the explanation of the sampled expressions for this paper.

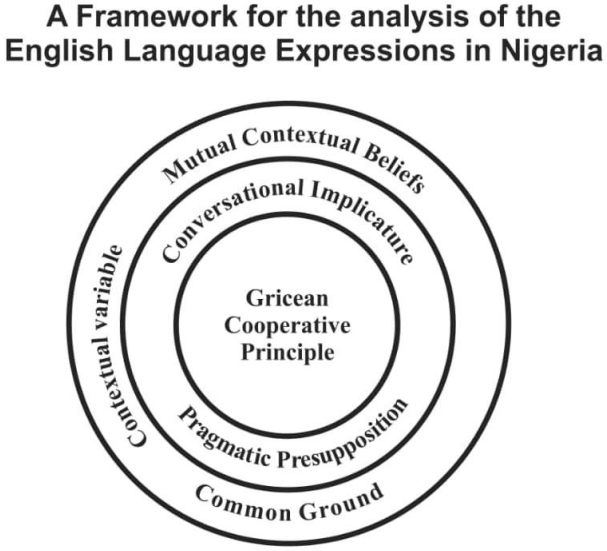


Figure 1. A framework for the Analysis of Nigerian English Expressions in Nigeria

The figure above has three eccentric circles. The inner circle is the wholistic Gricean Cooperative Principle. The outer circle comprises the subsequent contributions of Grice (1982) in his article on conversational implicature and pragmatic presupposition. These strategies are inadequate on their own without a corroborative involvement of contextual variables with mutual and common grounds between the parties involved in the conversational exchange. We must add that these additional strategies in the expanding circle are capable of taking care of texts and activities (Mey, 2001). The framework has been considered in the explanation of Nigerian English common usages sampled for this study.

3. Data Presentation and Analysis

This section presents the data and the analysis. The Gricean theory of pragmatics will sufficiently explain the sampled utterances collected for this paper. Grice's cooperative principle is a set of norms that are expected in conversational utterances. It consists of four maxims which we have to follow in order to be cooperative and understood: Maxim of quality, quantity, manner and relations. The analyses below are aimed at finding out if those involved in the conversations from which the utterances emanate actually seek to cooperate with each other to establish agreed meanings, through compliance or non-compliance with the principles.

3.1. Sample 1. "Are you back from work"

This is a hypothetical scenario of an individual returning from his or her place of work. It is quite common to here expressions like "are you coming from work"? This question is often treated as either a rhetorical question or regarded as downright unintelligent. However unintelligent, it may be safe to say such expressions are a common phenomenon in the English vocabulary of Nigeria. To examine this expression with the Gricean cooperative principle, one will have to x-ray the utterance with the CP.

i. Maxim of Quality: The speaker in this statement flouts the maxim of quality because he lacks adequate evidence of his neighbour's return from work. Although, the neighbour was actually back from office, the statement sounded ridiculous and stupid. There must have been an antecedent of returning very early or late from work which could have informed the speaker's confusion. The actor's response would have sarcastically been: "No I am just going to work", Idiot!

ii. Maxim of Quantity: There could be a misleading information from the speaker's statement. It also appears to be misrepresentational of the actor. Even in silence, there is communication. The speaker has not actually divulged much information about the personae but has succeeded in misleading the audience. Again, in this Nigerian English expression, the maxim of quantity is flouted.

iii. Maxim of Relevance: To the actor who is the receiver of the utterance, the speaker's utterance was irrelevant and nonsensical. Rather than welcome the actor, the speaker asked a foolish question which is peculiar of many speakers of Basic Nigerian English.

iv. Maxim of Manner: The manner in which the sampled question is being asked is perspicuous, ambiguous and obscure. Therefore, the speaker has flouted the maxim of manner. The question he asked the actor is sarcastic and provocative. This Nigerian English expression is common among the not-too-educated Nigerians.

3.2. Sample 2: "I am coming"

i. Maxim of Quality: There is a falsehood which the speaker or in general terms, speakers of this expression are unaware of. Many

people, regardless of their social status in the society use this expression on a regular basis in formal and informal contexts. The maxim of quality is therefore flouted in this sample.

ii. Maxim of Quantity: This statement is usually not informative. Assuming a Chief Executive is expected to respond to a query over a wrong judgement passed by the management of an institution, then the CEO rather than respond to the questions from a Governing Council, excuses himself or herself from the meeting by only saying "I am coming", there will be some confusion in the house. For instance, a colleague excuses himself from others during a postgraduate viva by simply saying, "I am coming", whereas he was leaving the venue of the examination. In most homes too, Nigerians use the expression to mean, they "will be right back". The statement is senseless and rude. That Nigerian English expression therefore flouts the maxim of quantity in several contexts of its usage. It is Nigerian and will make no sense to a native speaker of the English Language.

iii. Maxim of Relevance: In this case, the CEO in the illustration above did not react relevantly to the query put forward but rather behaved rudely by walking out of the committee sitting in council. "I am coming" whereas the speaker is leaving, is a direct opposite of the action being taken. The action and the utterance do not correspond and may leave a native speaker of English wondering the contradiction in the utterance since you are not actually coming but leaving. This is a Nigerian English expression which is pragmatically faulty.

iv. Maxim of Manner: There is actually no discrete or freestanding relationship between the action usually being performed when the statement, "I am coming" is uttered. There is no precise connection between the statement and the action. Thus, the utterance is obscure.

3.3. Sample 3: FG has settled all the lecturers and 75% of university lecturers have been paid all their salary arrears

i. Maxim of Quality: The term "settlement" is common amongst the Nigeria Police Force officers, civil service and other paramilitary communities where people must pay their way through to achieve whatever is their pursuit. In other words, "bribery" is synonymous with 'settling' illegal bills to pave way for a Nigerian where he or she found himself or herself stranded, helpless and vulnerable. The speaker in sample 3 and 4 is a white liar who resorts to propaganda in the bid to satisfy his employer, the Federal Government. He does not have the correct data of lecturers who were registered on the Integrated Personal Payroll System (IPPIS) but insisted that all lecturers in the Federal Universities have received their full salaries.

ii. Maxim of Quantity: The information being given by the minister who uttered the statement above is false and has neither contributed any vital information nor over provided any

information. He has succeeded in creating ill-feelings between the ranks of lecturers across the country.

iii. Maxim of Relevance: The statement was regarded as irrelevant by the generality of lecturers who knew they had not been paid salaries for months. The union of lecturers was on strike over the failure of the Federal Government to honour the agreement signed with the Academic Staff Union of Universities (ASUU) in the year 2009 and other failed promises from the FG. To complicate the matter the government was trying to force all the university workers into the IPPIS platform for the payment of salaries and allowances.

iv. Maxim of Manner: Obviously, the utterance is ambiguous. It is confusing to parents and students who did not understand why ASUU was on strike and why the universities remain closed. The statement has become a Nigerian English express which was not properly expressed.

3.4. Sample 4: Let me come and be going

i. Maxim of Quality: Literally, the expression is contradictory. It sounds as if the speaker is confused. The speaker does not know whether to go or come. Although, the original intention of the speaker is to leave the environment where he or she is almost embarrassed. This is a common Nigerian English expression.

ii. Maxim of Quantity: There is no concrete information in this expression apart from the resolve to vacate the environment where the speech was made.

iii. Maxim of Relevance: There is no relevance of content of the utterance to whatever is the topic of discourse. It sounds sarcastic and funny. The probable intention of the speaker is usually to create hilarity.

iv. Maxim of Manner: The statement is actually ambiguous. The word, "going" and "coming" are two antonyms which if used in a sentence may throw the audience off-balance. However, the deliberate use of the duo in a sentence especially among Nigerians is to create humour and to declare ones dumbfoundedness and decision to keep mute. Walking away is better than implicating oneself.

3.5. Sample 5: She is my younger sister's daughter/niece

i. Maxim of Quality: In Nigeria, only the brotherly and the sisterly relationships are popular. Only the very careful and educated ones will spell out relationships as cousins, nephews, nieces, uncles and aunts. A native speaker of the English language will not create a confusion by calling his or her niece a younger sister or sister's daughter. This is typical of Nigerians.

ii. Maxim of Quantity: quired; do not make your contribution more informative than is required. Nigerians are fond of supplying more information when describing their kinship relationships. A simple word, "nephew" or "niece" will spare a Nigerian the stress of using longer expressions to describe their relationships with other people.

iii. Maxim of Relevance: Be relevant. Make your contribution in relation to the topical discourse. Most times when Nigerians make a description of their family relationships, it may be irrelevant and out of place. A native speaker of the English language will hit the nail on the head.

iv. Maxim of Manner: Be perspicuous; do not be ambiguous; avoid obscurity of expression. Most times when Nigerians begin the very long description of kinship relations, their listeners may find it boring. It could be ambiguous and obscure to a native speaker of English who may be confused if the real word is not used.

3.6. Sample 6: You are blocking my view

i. Maxim of Quality: This is a common expression in classrooms and homes. A student who is unable to see the blackboard or whiteboard as the case may be may ask his classmates to leave his front in order for him to view what the teacher or lecturer has written on the board. At homes too, children ask their siblings to leave the front of the television by claiming their co-siblings are "blocking their views". Hence, the statement is Nigerian and pragmatically faulty since the "view" of the speaker cannot be blocked as a matter of fact.

ii. Maxim of Quantity: The statement is informative but not presented using the right lexical items. It is a common expression which cannot be criticized outrightly because it makes some sense.

iii. Maxim of Relevance: The relevance of the statement depends on the occasion or context of usage. It is therefore relevant if it affects another person's right to participation in an event, learning in a classroom and even in the family.

iv. Maxim of Manner: The manner in which the speakers spit out the expression will determine the perlocutionary effect it would have on the co-interlocutor. If it is clear, necessary and pleasant, the fellow standing in front of the speaker will admit the blockage and immediately shift or leave the space he or he is occupying and which obstructs the right of view of the other person.

3.7. Sample 7: Short Knickers

i. Maxim of Quality: This is a typical Nigerian phrase used to refer to a dress used to cover the lower part of the abdomen and the private part area. It is actually short and this informed the extension in the meaning from the standard, "knickers' to "short knickers". There is nothing qualitative about the expression. It is a common Nigerian English expression.

ii. Maxim of Quantity: The information unveiled in the expression is merely the fact that it is a short wear. The phrase has no information in any excess unless it is used to make a mockery of someone. "She is in a short knicker" instead of simply saying she dressed to fight someone.

iii. Maxim of Relevance: The relevance of the phrase depends on the purpose, the contexts and the users of the expression.

iv. Maxim of Manner: The manner of expression will determine if the speaker meant to appreciate or make a caricature of an enemy or someone whose attitude the speaker dislikes.

3.8. Sample 8: So therefore

i. Maxim of Quality: This is an expression common amongst many learners of the English language. In speech and in writing this expression is a mannerism commonly observed in so many essays and speeches of amateur writers and speakers. Quality is violated because of the redundant repetition of the two words. Semantic redundancy is a feature of English as second language learning in Nigeria.

ii. Maxim of Quantity: The expression is capable of boring the listeners or readers. The redundant expression," so therefore" is supposed to be a linker. It could be either used in isolation, separately or together. The form which is Nigerian is common with amateur speakers and writers of Nigerian English.

iii. Maxim of Relevance: Speakers or writers of English in Nigeria usually intend to play relevance ignorantly by repeating themselves in the phrase. Emphasis is the goal of repetition. Uneducated Nigerians use the expression in error.

iv. Maxim of Manner: The repetition in the bid to emphasize a point as commonly found in amateur writings is meant to avoid obscurity. However, it is peculiar to amateur speakers of Nigerian English.

3.9. Sample 9: Long trouser

i. Maxim of Quality: This is not different from the case of short knicker as discussed earlier above. A trouser is expected to be long. It is redundant, repetitive and unnecessary to use the word, 'long' while mentioning the word, 'trouser'.

ii. Maxim of Quantity: The repetitive nature of the expression has made it more informative than necessary.

iii. Maxim of Relevance: This could be used sarcastically too, to make a mockery of someone who has worn a long three-quarter trouser and calls it a knicker. The speaker may say, it is a 'long trouser'.

iv. Maxim of Manner: A trouser is expected to be long. This expression is common with many uneducated Nigerians and that makes it a Nigerian English expression.

3.10. Sample 10: Corona came from Wuhan-China

i. Maxim of Quality: The word, 'came' is the bone of contention in this sample. The Nigerian speaker of English in probably Variety 1 may find it difficult to use the appropriate word, instead of 'came' rather "evolved", "broke out", etc. A variety 1 speaker of the English Language according to Jowitt (1991) citing Banjo (1971/1979) lacks adequate vocabulary and has not mastered skills in pronunciation which will make him or her approximate native speaker-like variety of English.

ii. Maxim of Quantity: The maxim of quantity is flouted here because the speaker has not given enough information regarding the source of the COVID-19 pandemic.
iii. Maxim of Relevance: The statement is relevant in the wake of confusions as to who is culpable in the spread of the disease.
iv. Maxim of Manner: The statement is ambiguous. The audience may not know who caused the outbreak. The rumor surrounding it is that the World Health Organization (WHO) conspired with the Republic of China to create a serious health challenge which is capable of killing millions of people and thereby reducing the population of the world.

3.11. Sample 11: Let all the herdsmen vacate our forests: Akeredolu

i. Maxim of Quality: The word vacation is not backed by the law, neither is the world 'our' a legal statement. The eviction order could not secure uptake and had to be refined while journalists were accused of misconstruing the statement made by the governor of Ondo state.
ii. Maxim of Quantity: How much was said by the speaker made the statement to be inadequate and so lacks substance. The speaker flouted the maxim of quantity. The speaker ought to have made the statement clearer by explaining what 'forest reserves' connote and the category of occupants who are criminal elements and who should stop their nefarious activities in the Ondo forests.
iii. Maxim of Relevance: The statement was relevant at the time it was made. The maxim of relevance was not flouted.
iv. Maxim of Manner: The statement caused some reactions on social media and in the entire nation. The constitution of the country had to be interpreted to see if the governor's order was constitutional or not.

4. Discussion

From sample 1 to 11, a careful evaluation of the discussions on the maxims and the specimen Nigerian English expressions has revealed a number of findings. One of the findings is that the study of Nigerian English, transcends structuralism and formalism as many scholars have done over the years. Rather than examine scripted, daily usages of the English Language from home videos, markets, religious, media and medical discourses, Nigerian English expressions have sufficed to be pragmatically replete with meanings explicable as such.

To appropriately interpret the Nigerian English expressions, we observed that there is a relation between the utterance of a sentence and its context: physical and cultural. Thus, to presuppose a proposition in a pragmatic sense is to take its truth for granted, and to assume that others involved in the context do the same. The meanings of the Nigerian English expressions which can be stumbled on, on a daily basis on newspaper pages in Nigeria and online can only be compliant with the Gricean maxims if the participants in a conversational event share the same set of presuppositions

to avoid misunderstanding and to achieve successful and effective communication in the Nigerian brands of the English Language.

The 'colours' of the English language in Nigeria can be interpretable if participants in discourse recognize that certain maxims have been broken and with the hope that the hearer realizes that he (the speaker) is still conveying some extra information which is in line with the Cooperative Principle such that he (the hearer) can work out that information. These assumptions, Grice (1975) termed Conversational Implicature.

5. Conclusion

Gricean Cooperative Principle is a veritable attempt at exploring the English Language utterances in Nigeria. The study has enabled the researcher to observe that the theory appears impotent for the analysis of the various facets of meaning-exchanges in the numerous discourses available. The user of the Grice's principle may have to triangulate the theory with other context-dependent theories, one of which is the Mutual Contextual Beliefs (MCB) or the Common Ground to mitigate the unidirectional approach of Grice's theory to meaning interpretation. Without a Common Ground shared by Nigerians because of their cultural affinity, accurate meaning decoding would have been a difficult task.

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