CHAPTER 2
REVIEW OF RELATED RESEARCH AND LITERATURE

2.1 Communication Strategy

Most of the research studies conducted about the nature of communication strategies (CS) focused on the various types of CSs used to communicate an intended meaning x in situations where the speaker believed that the requisite meaning structure was not shared. Then the central issue would become "what alternative strategies may be used to communicate that meaning?". Various typologies of these alternative means, or communication strategies, have been proposed by various researchers.

The term communication strategy was introduced by Selinker's article on interlanguage in 1972. The author defined the notion of second language communication strategies as an identifiable approach by learner to communicate with native speakers. However, this definition was opaque and unintelligible because it did not describe the learners or the situations clearly. As a result, much of the subsequent discussion of communication strategies was concerned with the attempt to establish a rigorous enough definition to serve as a basis for empirical research.

Based on Selinker (1972) notion of this kind of strategies, Váradi (1980) and Tarone (1977) provided a systematic analysis of communication strategies *"if the fossilized aspects of interlanguage are the result of an identifiable approach by the learner to communicate with native speakers of the target language, then we are dealing with strategies of second language communication"*. Váradi (1980) and Tarone (1977) introduced a classification of communication strategies that would be used in subsequent research. Tarone (1997) defined her taxonomy as a system which seems to provide the best tool to make sense of the behavior of my subjects in this communicative situation.

Later, Tarone expounds in her study (1980) that work on communication strategies which has been shown to occur in interactions of interlanguage speakers with others. This phenomenon consists of the fact that second language learners are able to use their restricted interlanguage in such a way as to transcend its limitations. For example, if a learner lacks a lexical item, he/she may use other items or syntactic structures or mime to get across the intended notion or to achieve the communicative goal. The other

researchers have adapted Tarone (1977) typology and introduced other strategies (Paribakht. 1985). However, this fact has promoted the existence of a rather confusing multitude of different strategies of ambiguous validity.

Research in communication strategies reached its peak in the 1980s, when there were flurry of papers describing and analyzing communication strategies. Faerch and Kasper (1980) have developed a different typology, dividing CS into achievement strategies (attempts to solve the communicative problem) and functional reduction strategies (attempts to reduce the communicative task) and relating these to psycholinguistic models.

In the latter half of the 1980s, some researchers at Nijmegen University (Kellerman, Bongaerts and Poulisse. 1987) criticized the existing typologies of communication strategies as being product-oriented, since these showed a tendency to illustrate strategy types with isolated examples, rather than demonstrate how these typologies could be applied to cohesive speech or writing. They focused on the linguistic product, so these typologies were merely descriptive.

From their opinion, the product-oriented taxonomies of communication strategies have some deficits, which involves that it is a failure to distinguish the psychological process from the linguistic product, as well as to consider the linguistic and non-linguistic constraints that influence the choice of a particular strategy. For these reasons, they proposed an alternative taxonomy of communication strategies, which has based on the assumption that identifying the cognitive process that underlie the choice of a strategy is essential, as well as, taking into account the factors involved in such selection.

Kellerman (1991) characterizes this process-oriented typology considering three fundamental conditions that are reflected in such taxonomy. The first one makes reference to its psychological plausibility, which means that the strategies included in this taxonomy are compatible with cognitive processing and problem-solving behavior. The second condition is parsimony. This point out their preference for taxonomy with few strategy types, provided these are consistent with data. Finally the third condition involves the fact that taxonomy should be a generalizable across tasks, items, languages and learners. This means that no strategies should be uniquely associated with certain tasks or certain items.

Poulisse (1993) criticizes the above typology of Kellerman (1991) by arguing that the distinction between conceptual and linguistic strategies does not refer to different processes involved in the production of these strategies, and he also points out some other deficiency. For these reasons, Poulisse presents an alternative typology of communication strategies.

This taxonomy fulfills all the criteria, which in the author's opinion, any of the CS theory should meet. Kellerman (1991) stated that these criteria include "*it should allow one to define CS use and to operationalize the distinction between strategic and nonstrategic language use; it should capture the differences between the CS types that have been distinguished in a theoretically satisfying manner; and it should enable one to explain empirical findings that have been obtained to date and to predict future findings*".

However, this latter typology of communication strategies developed by Poulisse has been criticized by Ruiz de Mendoza and Otal (2002). These authors thought that despite the fact that Poulisse has attempted to present her taxonomy within an encompassing theory of communication, she has only deals with a part of communication strategies. As a result, we may assume that she presents a restricted and limited view of what taxonomy of communication strategies would include. Besides this, they also point out some ambiguous concepts from that taxonomy. Ruiz de Mendoza and Otal affirmed that human communication is guided by the Relevance Principle (Sperber and Wilson. 1986a), which is best defined in terms of contextual effects and processing effort. They characterize communication behavior as being intentional, goal-oriented and problematic.

These authors distinguish between that they have called local communication strategies and general communication strategies. The former are the basis of specific communication goals, and these only exist if the speaker is willing to take part in discourse. Due to this fact, they propose a typology of communication strategies which is not based on local but on general communication strategies, since these last do not only refer to contextual effects but they also take into account the interlocutors' processing effort.

Alcón (1997) criticized that the different approaches to explain the use of communication strategies only presented a partial analysis of what goes on in conversation. Most of the typologies are based on learners' output without taking into account both the speaker and listener's moves in conversation. The author suggests that further research is needed to see if there is a correlation between the learner's communication strategies use and the listener's signals of misunderstanding. In doing so, we could appropriately test the use of different strategies on second language development.

According to this, (Paribakht. 1985, Poulisse and Schils. 1989) addressed the issue of the relationship between the learner's proficiency level and the use of communication strategies. These authors paid more attention on the use of compensatory strategies, and they also consider the effect of the type of task in learners' CS use.

From Paribakht's study of comparing native and non-native speakers' CS use in a task to describe the concrete and abstract concepts, it was found that all subjects employed the same type of CS, although new learners draw more often on other knowledge sources different from the L2, than did advanced learners. The author assumed that there is some sort of relation between the learner's proficiency level and CS use.

However, Poulisse and Schils (1989) questioned the representative of the above research for involving only one type of task, and from their point of view, it couldn't be generalized to the other research. They argued that the type of compensatory strategy selected by subjects did not reveal any sort of relation with their proficiency level. Due to this fact, they point to the need of further research on the field.

Based on the development of Communication Strategies, researchers (Dörnyei and Scott. 1997, Ellis. 1994, Faerch and Kasper. 1984a, Nakatani and Goh. 2007) have traditionally distinguished two main communication strategy approaches: interactional and psycholinguistic. However, a third approach, the integrated approach, integrates these two perspectives. Three varieties of taxonomies focus on different points in communication strategies, however, we would say, the differences are in the terminology and categorization, rather than in the actual strategies themselves (Bialystok. 1990).

2.1.1 Interactional Approach

From the interactional standpoint of linguistic view, strategies are described in terms of negotiation of meaning, due to problems that have already manifested

during the course of the communicative interaction. The interactional view includes discourse strategies, which are listener-orientated and require the cooperation of an interlocutor. It takes a product-orientated approach, describing CS in discourse terms according to conditional relevance (Sperber and Wilson. 1987a). Research in this field has revealed much about the nature of interaction and has shown that strategies for meaning negotiation could facilitate SLA, as they could occur at the important moment when learners need to receive feedback, leading their attention to the problem in L2 and give learners opportunities to modify their output.

From the work with NNS-NS data, Long (1981) found that when NNS indicated difficulty in following a conversation, NS adjusted their message so that they would be understood better. The author argued that this type of negotiation leads to essential comprehensible input which was necessary for SLA. Long identified two types of interactional strategies, which is to avoid or prevent problems arising, such as selecting salient topics, treating topics briefly or avoiding topics, and to repair problems that have arisen, including clarification requests, confirmation checks and tolerating ambiguity. Generally, more attention has been paid to the latter group of strategies. Signal for negotiation are illustrated in the following examples. "Comprehension Check" (any expression a speaker use which checks that the listener has understood the meaning)

> A: "Taste" means the feeling about the food (sweet, spicy, sour, bitter, etc.)
> B: Oh ok.
> A: Do you get it?

Besides the research of input, the significance of output was also mentioned. Swain (1985) later argued that comprehensible input was not sufficient but comprehensible output was also necessary. It means that it was not only important for learners to receive comprehensible input but they also need to be pushed to produce "Comprehensible Output". If both interlocutors are language learners, these exchanges provide both learners with opportunities for comprehensible input and pushed output, for example:

> A: It's a fruit, yellow.
> B: Is mango?
> A: No, no, no. like orange.
> B: Lemon, you mean?
> A: No, is "permission" or something.

B: Oh, I know, persimmon. Yes?

A: Yes.

Pica (1994) explained the importance of negotiation of meaning strategies by showing that they promote SLA in three ways. First, learners obtain comprehensible input. When communication breakdowns occur, modifications made to split up the conversation input into parts that learners can process easily. Second, negotiation provides learners with feedback on their own L2 output, expressing what they think was meant in another way. Finally, negotiation pushes learners to adjust, manipulate and modify their own output. It can be seen that negotiation of meaning strategies plays a significant role in oral communication.

Within CS research, Tarone (1980) perspective is interactional. She provided the first classification of CS, most of which were later incorporated into other researchers' taxonomies, including those working from a psycholinguistic perspective. She claimed that CSs are seen as tools used in a joint negotiation of meaning where both interlocutors are attempting to agree as to a communicative goal. Tarone (1980) interactional view focuses on the joint negotiation of meaning between the interactants, suggesting that speakers are making conscious decisions based on their communicative intent, and communication strategies come into play when expressions are not available to one or both speakers in a conversation. For example, when the speakers have difficulty expressing the intended meaning, they may appeal for assistance or when listeners sense that their interlocutors have problems continuing with the discourse, they may offer help by filling in the gap. Tarone's Typology of Communication Strategies comprises lexical strategies such as Paraphrase (i.e. Approximation, Word Coinage and Circumlocution), Transfer (i.e. Literal Translation and Language Switch), Appeal for Assistance, Mime, and Avoidance (i.e. Topic Avoidance and Message Abandonment). Tarone's typology emphasis that both the speaker and listener are actively involved in using communication strategies to negotiate bumps in the communication. She distinguished between CS, which were for language use, and LLS (Language Learning Strategies), which were for developing linguistic and sociolinguistic competence. Tarone's work involved describing CS and

identifying factors which affect strategy choice such as L2 proficiency, personality, learning situation and the nature of task.

To sum up, interactional approach focuses on the cooperation between the speaker and the listener. Both the input and output of the information are important during the communication.

2.1.2 Psycholinguistic Approach

The psycholinguistic view is concerned with a non-linguistic approach. CSs are classified according to the internal cognitive process underlying them. In other words, observable behaviors are described according to their underlying mental process and grouped together according to these inherent similarities. In Faerch and Kasper (1980) psychological problem-solving framework, communication strategies are used by the speakers to solve their communicative problems when there are insufficient linguistic resources. For instance, speakers may describe the characteristics of an object when they do not know or cannot remember the name of the object or they may restructure the utterances when they cannot continue with the initial syntactical structure. The focus on this framework is on the speaker's use of the communication strategies to address a gap in communication.

The two representative scholars Faerch and Kasper (1983) divided CS into two broad categories: "Reduction Strategies and Achievement Strategies", based on the location of CS within a general modal of speech production consisting of two phrases: planning and execution. For these authors, CSs are characterized by problem orientation and consciousness. Learners express CS consciously because they lack the L2 resources to express the intended meaning or they cannot access these L2 resources.

"Reduction Strategies" involve changing the original communicative goal, for example, by avoiding language the speaker is unsure of, omitting a word or phrase during an utterance and continuing as if it had been said or completely abandoning a message. Reduction strategies are divided into formal reduction and functional reduction strategies. Formal reduction involves avoidance of L2 rules the learner is uncertain of whereas functional reduction involves avoidance of speech acts or topics.

"Achievement Strategies" involve sticking to the original goal but finding an alternative means of reaching it by using any available means. They are further divided

into "Compensatory and Retrieval Strategies". "Compensatory Strategies" involve replacing the original plan with a strategic one, like word Coinage or Code Switching; Retrieval Strategies occur when learners persevere with their original plan by trying to retrieve the item required.

Instead of the classification of Faerch and Kasper, Bialystok (1983) initially divided strategies into L1-based, L2-based and non-linguistic strategies. However, the author redefined the distinction between analysis and control, grounded in cognitive psychology. She argued that CS is a result of the cognitive mechanisms that operate on mental representations in linguistic processing. Within her framework, the two components of language processing, analysis of linguistic knowledge and control of linguistic processing, give rise to the two types of CS: "Knowledge-based and Control-based Strategies". In knowledge-based CS the learner adjusts the content of the message by exploiting knowledge of the concept, as in giving a definition or using a circumlocution. In control-based CS the learner holds the initial information constant and manipulates the means of expression by integrating resources outside the L2, such as in the use of gesture or the use of L1.

Later, the Nijmegen project, (Kellerman. 1991, Kellerman et al.. 1987, Poulisse. 1990) using the same theoretical framework as Bialystok, developed another psycholinguistic model named context-free process-oriented taxonomy. The three fundamental conditions that reflected are "Psychological Plausibility, Parsimony, and Generalisability" across tasks. The taxonomy reflects the nature of mental processing involved in the production of CS. It consists of two archistrategies called "Conceptual and Linguistic Code". The Conceptual Strategies are broken down into "Analytic and Holistic", and the linguistic ones into "Transfer and Morphological Creativity". Within these categories, many strategies are included which can be traced to other taxonomies. Therefore, these categories reflect the common features between discrete strategy types from other taxonomies.

Years after that, Poulisse (1993) placed compensatory strategies within Levelt (1989) model of speech production, which allowed more detailed psycholinguistic analysis of CS than was previously possible. The consequent adjustments resulted in three categories, "Substitution, Substitution-plus and Reconceptualisation Strategies".

In conclusion, the Psycholinguistic Approach emphasized that communication strategies are employed to solve the problems when the interlocutors cannot provide sufficient linguistic resource.

2.1.3 Integrated Approach

Both Tarone's social interaction framework and Faerch and Kasper's psycholinguistic framework have been extensively used in research on communication strategies. To add to these two established frameworks on CSs, Clennell (1995) has proposed a discourse view of communication strategies. Clennell's notion of discourse-based communication strategies differs from the two well-known typologies of communication strategies which focus on the use of L1- and L2-based strategies and non-verbal strategies such as mime to overcome specific lexical difficulty or to negotiate communication breakdown. From Clennell (1995) point, the strategies in Faerch and Kasper (1984a) and Tarone (1980) typologies are "local lexically based compensatory devices that learners operate to overcome specific obstacles in the process of communication", and they are Improvisation/Avoidance strategies in his classification of communication strategy use. Clennell advocates that communication strategies should not be viewed as being relevant only when the need for conversational repair arises, but that communication strategies can be used to facilitate transfer of key information to alleviate breakdowns in communication.

As a result, Clennell has identified two categories of discourse-based strategies that aid conversational maintenance: the Negotiation/ Interaction strategies where interlocutors negotiate communication breakdown through the use of clarification requests and comprehension checks, these strategies play a compensatory role in communication; the Collaboration/Planning strategies facilitate transfer of key information through the use of topic fronting, tonicity and lexical repetition, and these strategies enhance the effectiveness of communication. In this respect, Clennell's communication strategies comply with an influential definition of communication strategies by Canale (1983).

Canale (1983) framework was the broadest as it divided CS into: 1) strategies to compensate for disruptions in communication due to speakers' lack of L2 linguistic resource and 2) strategies to enhance the effectiveness of communication. The former set of strategies involve negotiation of meaning: learners mutual attempts to avoid or

repair impasses in their conversations; the latter set of strategies constitute non-problem solving behavior, involved in maintaining communication and gaining time to think. The former (compensatory) strategies have been studied extensively in CS research whereas the latter strategies have been investigated much less (Clennell. 1995, Dörnyei and Kormos. 1998, Nakatani. 2006).

In Dornyei and Scott (1997) and Dornyei and Kormos (1998), an integrated taxonomy of CS was presented, which described within the interactional view. These strategies were called problem-solving mechanisms. Like Poulisse, Levelt's model of speech production was used to classify strategies, except that a wider range of strategies were considered. Their perspective included three types of problem management: "Direct, Indirect and Interactional". According to how to achieve understanding, four types of communication problems which are related to different phrases of speech processing are illustrated below:

1) Resource Deficits Problems-occur during planning and encoding of the pre-verbal message, and may be resolved by lexical, grammatical or phonological problem-solving mechanisms.

2) Processing Time Pressure-occurs during planning and encoding of the pre-verbal message and is resolved by stalling strategies. These strategies are related to the fact that L2 speech is much slower, requires more serial processing and attention, and therefore more processing time than L1 speech. Therefore, lexicalized pauses including fillers such as well and non-lexicalized pauses, unfilled or filled, with sound lengthening or umming and erring are the strategies used to gain time for processing.

3) Own Performance Problem-occur after the message has been encoded, during monitoring the internal speech or during articulated speech and are resolved by different types of self-repair (error repair, appropriate repair, different repair, rephrasing repair) or check questions (comprehension checks, own accuracy checks).

4) Other performance problems-occur during post-articulatory monitoring or in the speech comprehension system and are resolved by negotiation of meaning strategies such as asking for repletion, expressing non-understanding, interpretative summary and feigning understanding.

After that, in Nakatani (2006) study, an integrated approach was also taken as both Compensatory and Interactional strategies (Comprehension Checks, Clarification Requests), however, a further set of strategies, Metacognitive strategies, were also included, but it's rarely investigated in the field of CS. Metacognitive strategies have traditionally been investigated in LLS research, and are considered to be key factors in learners' self-regulatory processes as they plan, monitor and evaluate the learning task.

To sum up, different conceptualizations and categorizations of CS, ranging from a narrow (Poulisse. 1990) to a broad approach (Dörnyei and Scott. 1997) have been described. This background information will serve as a guide for interpreting and comparing the findings of this study.

2.1.4 Types of Various Taxonomies

Table 1 Product-Oriented Communication Strategies

Paraphrase	
Approximation	Use of a single target language vocabulary item or structure, which the learner knows is not correct, but which shares enough semantic features in common with the desired item to satisfy the speaker. (e.g., "pipe" for "waterpipe").
Word Coinage	The learner makes up a new word in order to communicate a desired concept. (e.g., "airball" for "balloon").
Circumlocution	The learner describes the characteristics or elements of the object or action instead of using the appropriate TL structure. (e.g., "She is, uh, smoking something. I don't know what its name is. That's, uh, Persian, and we use in Turkey, a lot of'").
Transfer	
Literal Translation	The learner translates word for word from the native language. (e.g., "He invites him to drink" for "They toast one another").
Language Switch	The learner uses the NL term without bothering to translate. (e.g., "balon" for "balloon").
Appeal for Assistance	The learner asks for the correct term or structure. (e.g., What is this?).

Table 1 (continued)

Mime	
Avoidance	
Topic Avoidance	It occurs when the learner simply does not talk about concepts for which the vocabulary or other meaning structure is not known.
Message Abandonment	It occurs when the learner begins to talk about a concept but is unable to continue due to lack of meaning structure, and stops in mid-utterance.

Source: Tarone. 1978

Table 2 The Psycholinguistic Models

Formal Reduction	
Phonological Morphological Syntactic Lexical	
Functional Reduction	
Actional Reduction Modal Reduction Reduction of Propositional Content	Topic avoidance, message abandonment, meaning replacement
Achievement Strategies	
Compensatory Strategies Retrieval Strategies	Code Switching Interlingual Transfer Intralingual Transfer Interlanguage-based Strategies (generalization, paraphrase, word coinage, restructuring) Cooperative Strategies Non-linguistic Strategies

Source: Faerch and Kasper, 1983a

The following constitutes the process-oriented taxonomy presented by Nijmegen group (1987):

Table 3 The Psycholinguistic Models

Communication Strategies	Definitions
I. Conceptual Archistrategy	Manipulating the target concept to make it expressible through available linguistic resources.
1.a. Analytic Strategies	Specifying characteristic features of the concept (e.g. circumlocution).
1.b. Holistic Strategies	Using a different concept which shares characteristics with the target item. (e.g. approximation)
II. Linguistic/Code Archistrategy	Manipulating the speakers linguistic knowledge.
2.a. Morphological creativity	Creating a new word by applying L2 morphological rules to an L2 word (e.g. grammatical word coinage).
2.b. Transfer	From another language.

Source: Kellerman, Bongaerts and Poulisse. 1987

Table 4 Typology of Communication Strategies

Communication Strategies	Definitions
1. Substitution	Substitution of one lexical item for another, whether it be an L1 for L2 item.
2. Substitution plus type	Substitutions which require phonological and/or morphological adaptation before they are articulated. (e.g. foreignizing, morphological creativity)
3. Reconceptualization	A change in the preverbal message which involves more than a single chunk, (e.g. paraphrase).

Source: Poulisse (1993)

Table 5 Taxonomy

1. Message Abandonment	Leaving a message unfinished because of language difficulties.
2. Topic Avoidance	Avoiding topics or concepts that pose language difficulties.
3. Circumlocution	Describing or exemplifying the target object or action.

Table 5 (continued)

4. Approximation	Using an alternative term which expresses the meaning of the target lexical item as closely as possible.
5. Use of All-Purpose Words	Extending a general, empty lexical item to contexts where specific words are missing.
6. Word Coinage	Creating a non-existent L2 word based on a supposed rule.
7. Nonlinguistic Signals:	Mime, gestures and facial expressions.
8. Literal Translation:	Translating items from L1 to L2.
9. Foreignizing:	Using an L1 word by adjusting it to an L2 phonology and morphology (e.g., adding to it an L2 suffix).
10. Code-Switching	Using an L1 word with an L1 pronunciation or an L3 word with an L3 pronunciation.
11. Appeal for Help	Asking for aid from the speaker either directly or indirectly.
12. Stalling/Time-Gaining	Using fillers or hesitation devices to fill pauses and to gain time to think.

Source: Dörnyei. 1995 : 58

From these researches' various classifications of Communication Strategies, it suggested that these strategies can be identified from different ways, and also can be emphasized in different points. In this research, Tarone's Product-Oriented Communication Strategy Taxonomy is selected as the framework to analyze the data. The Psycholinguistic Approach concerns about the phonology, morphology, and syntax which are not the main point that this paper tend to analyze. For the integrated group, the "Nonlinguistic Signals" strategy which contains the analyzing of gestures and facial expressions are not available for the disadvantage of the audio equipment in this study. Compared with them, Tarone's classifications have the strategies that needed, and they are all well taped. Consequently, Tarone's taxonomy is the most suitable for this study, and it is used as the taxonomy for the data analyzing.

2.2 Related Studies

Nowadays, English is widely used as a world language, and Chinese people couldn't avoid of this tendency. With the development of the world economies and the cooperation with the English-speaking countries, Chinese people are also urged to learn English. Gradually, Chinese English has formed its own characteristics, and it has taken a significant part of the World Englishes because of the large number of English users. World Englishes have their significant features, and these may not be recognized by native English users, as a result, misunderstandings will occur during communication. For solving these obstacles, communication strategies are widely applied by the non-native speakers.

2.3 World Englishes

2.3.1 ENL, ESL and EFL

In the latter half of the twentieth century, English is accepted as an effective means of communication across the globe. English by now is the most widely taught, learnt and spoken language in the world. The spread of English around the world is often discussed in terms of three distinct groups of users, those who speak English respectively as:

- a native language (ENL)
- a second language (ESL)
- a foreign language (EFL)

English as a Native Language is the language of those who were born and raised in one of the countries where English is historically the first language to be spoken, for example, American, British, Canada, Australia and New Zealand (Kachru. 1992). English as a Second Language refers to the language spoken in a large number of territories such as India, Bangladesh, Nigeria and Singapore, which were once colonized by the British. English as a Foreign Language is the English of those for whom the language serves no purposes within their own countries. Historically, they learnt the language in order to use it with its native speakers in the English native countries, though nowadays they are more likely to use it for communication with other non-native speakers.

2.3.2 Models and Descriptions of the Spread of English

1) Kachru's Three-Circle Model of World Englishes

English has more centers than just American and British by now, and as linguists and language learners and teachers, it is more important that we study the nature of this various language. According to Kachru (1985 : 12-3) study, the English-using countries are classified into three concentric circles, which are the Inner Circle, the Outer Circle and the Expanding Circle.

Diagram 1 Kachru's Three-Circle Model of World Englishes
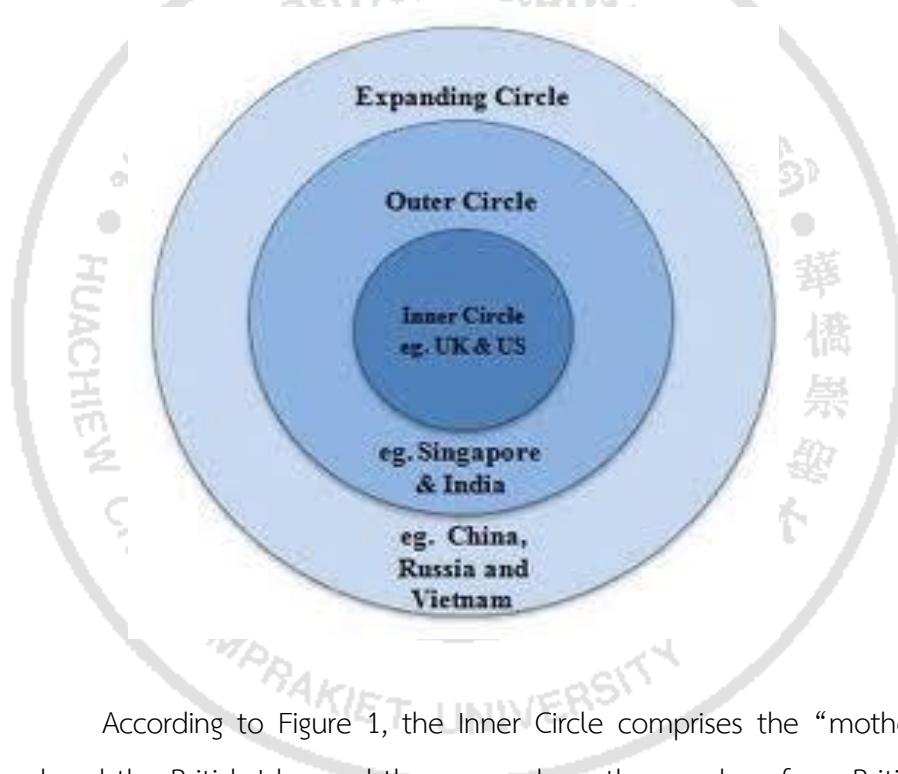
According to Figure 1, the Inner Circle comprises the "mother country", England and the British Isles and the areas where the speakers from British took the language with them as they migrated-Australia, New Zealand and North America. The Outer Circle comprises the countries where the language was transplanted by a few colonial administrators, businessmen, educators, and missionaries, and is now natured by the vast majority of indigenous multilingual users. They use English as an additional language for their own purpose, which include many national and international domains. The Expanding Circle represents the countries (e.g., People's Republic of China, Japan, Korea, Thailand, countries of Europe, the Middle East, and Latin America)

where the language is still spreading, mainly for serving the need for an international medium in business and commerce, diplomacy, finance, and other such spheres. English in this circle, however, is also finding increased in internal domains of academia, media and professions such as medicine, engineering, etc (Yamuna, K. and Cecil. L. N. 2006). The English spoken in the Inner Circle is regarded to be "norm-providing", which means the standard of English; English in the Outer Circle to be "norm-developing"; that in the Expanding Circle to be "norm-dependent".

This model has been used by Kachru and many scholars as the standard framework in the early twenty-first century. However, with the recent changes in the use of English and the attempt at a three-way categorization of English uses and users, some problems appear. The most serious problems happen due to the model which is based on geography and genetics rather than on the way speakers identify with and use English. Some speakers in the Outer Circle speak it as their first language, such as Singapore. There is often a grey area between the Inner and Outer Circles, also between Outer and Expanding Circles. Moreover, many World English speakers grow up bilingual or multilingual, using different languages to fulfill different functions in their repertoire as L1, L2, L3 and so on.

Also, there is a difficulty in using this model to define speakers in terms of their proficiency in English. A native speaker may have limited vocabulary and low grammatical competence while the non-native speaker may know about them and the model cannot account for English for Special Purpose (e.g. English for technology). Within such domain, English proficiency may be similar regardless of which particular circle speakers come from. At last, the model implies that the situation is uniform for all countries within in a particular circle whereas this is not so. In the Inner Circle, countries differ in the amount of linguistic diversity they contain, such as the US has far more diversity than UK. In the Outer and Expanding Circles, countries differ in a number of respects such as whether English is spoken only by elite (as India) or widespread (as Singapore). As a result, a great numbers of other scholars have proposed different models and descriptions of the spread of English.

2) Strevens' World Map of English

The oldest model of the spread of English, even predating Kachru's three circles, is the theory of Strevens's. His world map of English shows map of the world on which is superimposed an upside-down tree diagram demonstrating the way in which, since American English became a separate variety from British English, all subsequent Englishes have had affinities with either one or the other (Strevens, P. 1980).

2.4 Chinese English

For a full picture of the global forms and functions of English, its presence in contexts in the Expanding Circle must not be neglected. The Expanding Circle comprises countries where English is not an official language of government or medium of education; it may, however, be required or strongly encouraged at a certain level of schooling. As opposed to English being an institutionalized language, as in the Outer Circle, it is used in performance varieties within restricted social domains (Bolton. 2002c).

In the People's Republic of China and some Asian countries, social, cultural, economic and political factors have determined the degree and kind of English used in various periods of the history of contact with and absorption of the language. In spite of the fact that the contexts of learning and use are quite different from those in Outer-Circle countries, English bas become widely spread and frequently used by some subgroups of the populations, and has had noticeable impacts on the languages and even the writing systems with which it has come into contact.

The arrival of English in China dates from 1637, when the first British traders reached Macau and Canton, and English was mainly used for world trade. Then, the access to an educated variety of English grew by the early nineteenth century due to the English language education provided in missionary schools and institutions. In the 20th century, English was gradually accepted by a number of factors, also, political and ideological concerns have played a great part in shaping English in China (Bolton. 2003).

Since 1949, the functions of English in China have been changing gradually, from "politicization, modernization, and internationalization" to "intra-nationally in certain domains such as medical and engineering professions, media and "English Corners" (Zhao and Campbell. 1995). Nowadays, English occur quite readily in Chinese

dominant interactions among family and friends. It is no longer surprising to see elementary school children writing messages in both English and Chinese in their autograph books. This trend of mixing English with Chinese is due to the emergence of bilingualism in Chinese following the political developments in the post 1987 period. Since then, the use of English in China is getting more and more significant (Chen. 1996).

The fact is that varieties of English used by native Chinese around the world (in Taiwan, Singapore, Malaysia, for example) share some features due to common linguistic and cultural background (Cheng. 1992 : 162). However, in each religion, English has evolved differently due to due to ideologically driven policies and planning.

Actually, there have been debates about what to call the variety of English that used by Chinese – English or China English (e.g. Kirkapatrick, et al. 2002). Zhang (2003) draws a parallel with Indian English and uses "Chinese English" to convey an array of functions, roles, proficiency levels and situational features. While, some other authors still prefer the item of "China English".

The concept of "China English" was first proposed by Changgui (1984), who believes that each nation has its own culture peculiarity. China English should follow the idiomatic ways of native English people, also should express phenomena and ideas of typical Chinese (Fachun, Z. 2009). Moxi Wang and Jin Li (1993 : 19) defined "China English" as a variety with "Normative English" as its core, but with Chinese characteristics at the levels of lexis, syntax and discourse; it is free from cross-linguistic influence from the Chinese language, and is employed to express content ideas specific to Chinese culture by means of transliteration, borrowing and semantic transfer. China English exists because people travel and their language travels with them, and also because of China's opening to the world, the tourism industry, state propaganda mechanisms and the internet. However, there are still some researchers who identify English used by Chinese as Chinglish, and take negative attitudes toward it.

Wenzhong Li (1993) believes that Chinglish is malformed English which does not follow standard native English language, culture and custom. Its composition and scope of use are both unstable and limited, and it causes barriers in international communication and culture exchanges. Li thinks that Chinglish occurs due to interference of Chinese language.

Moreover, Fang Xing (2011) describes that the divergence of Chinglish from the standard norms of Englishes of Inner Circle countries (the countries where English is the first language) (Kachru, 1985 : 12-15) can cause great confusion and incomprehension on various linguistic levels. On the lexical level, word for word translation and literal translation may result in unintelligible or imprecise expressions in the target language. On the syntactic level, Chinese ways of constructing sentences may lead to poor coherence of narration. On the discourse level, confusion may arise from the indirect manner that ideas are presented.

According to Kashama (2010), the main characteristic of Chinglish is its use of direct translation, personification, and its mis-use of grammatical structures. Yanchang Deng (1989) states that Chinglish is a speech or writing in English that shows the interference or influence of Chinese, some sentences being little more than word to word translation of Chinese expressions. Chinglish may be grammatically correct, but the choice of words and phrases and the manner of expression do not conform to standard usage, so Chinglish is unacceptable. Although these authors prefer different terms, they express the similar meaning which specially refers to the the English that used by Chinese. In this research, we prefer the item of "Chinese English". Same with the other varieties of English, Chinese English (CE) has its specific characteristics.

Its sound system has the following features: No distinction is made between tense and lax vowels as in heat and hit or mood and hood. The fricative v and continuant w are pronounced as the continuant; compounds and adjective-noun sequences are not distinguished by stress placement; and sentence level stress shifts are different in Chinese English, which gives CE its characteristic rhythm.

In vocabulary, there are semantic shifts in single lexical items and in compounds, e.g., the compound big pot means egalitarianism, as in big pot wage system, and a running dog indicates a "lackey" in PRC. There are many collocations with specific political significance in the PRC, for example, the expression the *three-no-enterprises* indicates no capital, no plant and no administrative structure (Cheng. 1992).

In grammar and discourse, CE has the following features: Chinese does not have an article system, so Chinese English rarely uses articles, especially the definite article. No distinction is made between adjectives and adverbs in CE. The third-singular

ending with verbs does not regularly occur. CE shows a marked preference for adverbs rather than tense/aspect endings to indicate temporality. The other characteristics are avoidance of passive construction and negative questions; a question-answering system based on agreement-disagreement; rare use of the subjunctive, and use of because...therefore as a correlative pair.

In discourse, greeting and saying goodbye routines are expressed by the following expression, respectively: "Have you eaten already?", "Walk slowly slowly" Use of "uncle and aunt" for people of an older generation is common, as in "I fell down" and "a kind aunt [lady] helped me". Some idiomatic expressions are distinctly Chinese, e.g., "When you have free time, come to play [visit], "playing away from home", "having an extra-marital affair", "Welcome back to Beijing" (sign at the airport meaning "Goodbye and you are welcome to visit again").

The PRC is multilingual and exhibit the characteristic patterns of language use for such contexts, including those of code-switching and mixing with English. We can see that Chinese English do have its characteristics, for example, verbs are not necessary in one sentence, or there could be more than one verb in a sentence; there are not verb tense varieties; the nouns don't have plural forms, etc. However, the situation is, by considering these characteristics of Chinese English, it is possible for having obstacles during communication, for reducing the misunderstandings and improving the communication effects, some communication strategies seem necessary during the inter-culture communications, for making sure that the exiting Chinese English does not affect the communication.