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ของนักศึกษาไทยวิชาเอกภาษาอังกฤษ



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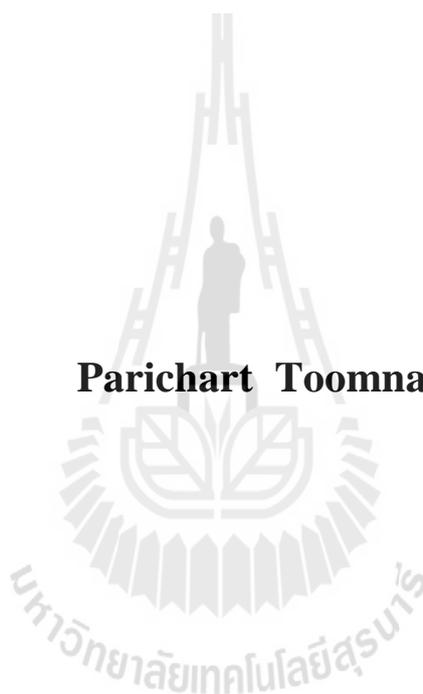
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มหาวิทยาลัยเทคโนโลยีสุรนารี

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**USE OF STRATEGIES TO DEAL WITH ENGLISH ORAL  
COMMUNICATION BREAKDOWNS BY THAI ENGLISH  
MAJOR UNIVERSITY STUDENTS**

**Parichart Toomnan**



**A Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for  
the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy in English Language Studies**

**Suranaree University of Technology**

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**USE OF STRATEGIES TO DEAL WITH ENGLISH ORAL  
COMMUNICATION BREAKDOWNS BY THAI ENGLISH  
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Suranaree University of Technology has approved this thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

Thesis Examining Committee

---

(Dr. Dhirawit Pinyonattakarn)

Chairperson

---

(Assoc. Prof. Dr. Channarong Intaraprasert)

Member (Thesis Advisor)

---

(Asst. Prof. Dr. Surapa Somsai)

Member

---

(Dr. Butsakorn Yodkamlue)

Member

---

(Dr. Suksan Suppasetsee)

Member

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(Prof. Dr. Sukit Limpijumnong)

Vice Rector for Academic Affairs  
and Innovation

---

(Dr. Peerasak Siriyothin)

Dean of Institute of Social Technology

ปาริชาต ทูมนันท์ : การใช้กลวิธีการแก้ปัญหาการสื่อสารภาษาอังกฤษทางวาจาของ  
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การวิจัยครั้งนี้ มีวัตถุประสงค์เพื่อศึกษาการใช้กลวิธีการสื่อสารของนักศึกษาวิชาเอก  
ภาษาอังกฤษจำนวน 949 คน ในภาคตะวันออกเฉียงเหนือของประเทศไทยและศึกษาความสัมพันธ์  
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(สาขาภาษาอังกฤษศึกษาและสาขาภาษาอังกฤษที่ไม่ใช่ภาษาอังกฤษศึกษา), ประสบการณ์การเรียนรู้  
ภาษาต่างประเทศ (เรียนเฉพาะภาษาอังกฤษและเรียนภาษาอังกฤษและภาษาอื่นๆ) และทัศนคติต่อ  
การพูดภาษาอังกฤษ (ทัศนคติเชิงบวกและทัศนคติเชิงลบต่อการพูดภาษาอังกฤษ)

เครื่องมือที่ใช้ในการวิจัยครั้งนี้ ได้แก่ แบบสอบถามความคิดเห็น และการสัมภาษณ์  
กึ่งโครงสร้าง ซึ่งการเก็บรวบรวมข้อมูลอย่างต่อเนื่อง การตรวจสอบความเที่ยงตรงของ  
แบบสอบถามมีค่าดัชนีความสอดคล้องโดยเฉลี่ยที่ระดับ .89 ข้อมูลที่เก็บรวบรวมได้จาก  
แบบสอบถามนำมาวิเคราะห์เชิงปริมาณ โดยใช้สถิติเชิงพรรณนา สถิติการวิเคราะห์ความ  
แปรปรวน การทดสอบไค-สแควร์ และการวิเคราะห์ปัจจัย ใช้ในการวิเคราะห์หาความสัมพันธ์  
ระหว่างความถี่ของการใช้กลวิธีการสื่อสารกับ 4 ตัวแปร รวมถึงข้อมูลที่ได้จากการสัมภาษณ์  
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ผลการวิจัย พบว่านักศึกษาระดับมหาวิทยาลัยวิชาเอกภาษาอังกฤษในภาคตะวันออกเฉียง  
เหนือของประเทศไทยใช้กลวิธีการสื่อสารภาษาอังกฤษอยู่ในระดับปานกลาง นอกจากนี้  
ยังพบว่าโดยภาพรวมความถี่ของการใช้กลวิธีการสื่อสารของนักศึกษามีความสัมพันธ์อย่างมี  
นัยสำคัญกับทัศนคติของนักศึกษาที่มีต่อการพูดภาษาอังกฤษ นอกจากนี้ยังพบว่าทัศนคติที่มีต่อการพูด  
ภาษาอังกฤษของนักศึกษามีผลต่อการใช้กลวิธีการสื่อสารเพื่อรักษาการสนทนาให้ดำเนินต่อไป  
ตลอดจนกลวิธีการสื่อสารในรายชื่อแตกต่างกันอย่างมีนัยสำคัญด้วยเช่นกัน นักศึกษาที่มีทัศนคติ  
ต่อการพูดภาษาอังกฤษแตกต่างกันมีความถี่ของการใช้กลวิธีการสื่อสารที่แตกต่างกันอย่างมี  
นัยสำคัญ นักศึกษาที่มีทัศนคติที่ดีต่อการพูดภาษาอังกฤษมีการใช้กลวิธีการสื่อสารมากกว่านักศึกษา  
ที่มีทัศนคติเชิงลบ การวิจัยนี้ไม่พบความแตกต่างของความสัมพันธ์ระหว่างความถี่ของการใช้กลวิธี  
การสื่อสารของนักศึกษากับเพศของนักศึกษา ประเภทโปรแกรมการศึกษา และประสบการณ์การ  
เรียนภาษาต่างประเทศ ในหมวดกลวิธีการสื่อสาร 3 หมวด ผลการวิจัยพบความแตกต่างของ

ความสัมพันธ์ระหว่างความถี่ของการใช้กลวิธีการสื่อสารของเพศและประเภทโปรแกรมการศึกษาในหมวดกลวิธีการสื่อสารไปยังคู่สนทนา แต่ไม่พบความสัมพันธ์ระหว่างตัวแปรประสบการณ์การเรียนรู้ภาษาต่างประเทศในหมวดใดๆ นอกจากนี้ผลการวิเคราะห์ปัจจัยพบว่าเพศและทัศนคติที่มีต่อการพูดภาษาอังกฤษเป็นตัวแปรที่มีความสัมพันธ์กับการใช้กลวิธีการสื่อสารของนักศึกษา

ข้อมูลที่ได้จากการสัมภาษณ์ถึงโครงสร้างจากนักศึกษจำนวน 45 คน พบว่านักศึกษาใช้กลวิธีการสื่อสารบ่อยครั้งด้วยเหตุผล 10 ประการ ในขณะที่นักศึกษามีเหตุผลหลัก 7 ประการที่ใช้กลวิธีการสื่อสารนานๆ ครั้ง



PARICHART TOOMNAN : USE OF STRATEGIES TO DEAL WITH  
ENGLISH ORAL COMMUNICATION BREAKDOWNS BY THAI  
ENGLISH MAJOR UNIVERSITY STUDENTS. THESIS ADVISOR :  
ASSOC. PROF. CHANNARONG INTARAPRASERT, Ph.D., 258 PP.

#### COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES/THAI UNIVERSITY STUDENTS

The aims of the present study are to explore the communication strategy employment by 949 Thai university students, majoring in English in the Northeast of Thailand, as well as the relationship between communication strategy use and students' gender (male and female), type of study program (English Education and Non-English Education), foreign language learning experience (only English and English and other foreign languages, and attitude towards speaking English (positive attitude and negative attitude towards speaking English).

In the present study, two main data collection methods were employed: the communication strategy questionnaire (CSQ) and semi-structured interview, which took place almost simultaneously. For the internal consistency of the CSQ, the Alpha Coefficient ( $\alpha$ ) or Cronbach Alpha was used with the estimate value of 0.89.

The data obtained through the questionnaires were analyzed by the descriptive statistics, the One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), the Chi-square tests ( ), and the Factor Analysis. While, the data obtained through the semi-structured interview were analyzed with coding techniques.

The results demonstrate that the English-major students studying at the tertiary level in the Northeast of Thailand reported employing communication strategies at the

moderate level. Significant variations were found in relation to students' attitude towards speaking English, i.e. variations in the overall strategy use, use of strategies in the SMC category, and use of individual communication strategies. The students with positive attitude towards speaking English reported significantly greater overall strategy use than those with negative attitude, but significant variations were not found in relation to student's gender, type of study program or foreign language learning experience. Significant variations in students' choice of communication strategies according to the other variables, namely students' gender and type of study program, were found only within in SCM categories; however, no significant variations were found in frequency of students' CS use in all the three main categories according to their foreign language learning experience. Furthermore, the results of the factor analysis show that gender and attitude towards speaking English are strongly related to students' CS use.

The data obtained through the semi-structured interview conducted with 45 participants reveal 10 reasons for frequent employment of certain communication strategies and 7 reasons for infrequent employment of certain strategies when dealing with oral communication breakdowns.

School of Foreign Languages

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Student's signature \_\_\_\_\_

Advisor's signatur \_\_\_\_\_

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Parichart Toomnan

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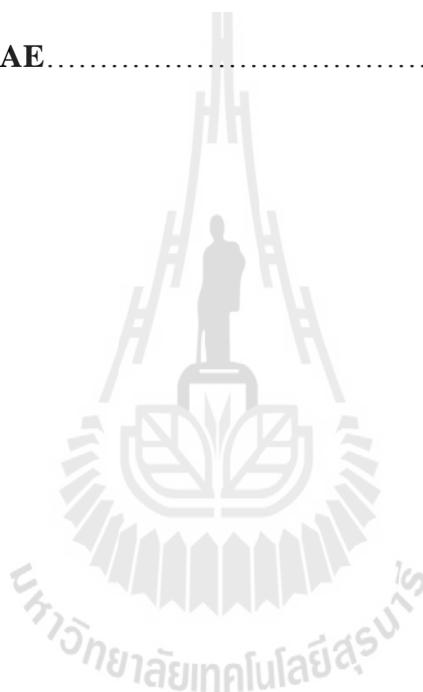
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# CHAPTER 1

## BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

### 1.1 Purpose and Introduction of the Chapter

This chapter presents the background and the context for the present study. It addresses the definitions of operational terms used in the present study. This is followed by the discussion of background of English language teaching and learning in the Thai education system and the background of English major programs at the tertiary level in Thailand. Then the research objectives and the advantages of the study are presented.

Currently, the use of the English language as a lingua franca by non-English speakers has spread around the world. It is considered as a world language (Graddol, 2000). It is estimated by experts that the number of non-native English speakers is already more than that of the native English speakers. It is showed that for every one native speaker, there are three non-native speakers of English, or a ratio of one to three (Abdullah and Chaudhary, 2012).

The importance of English as an international language has been sharply increasing for non-native speakers of English, especially in developing countries, Graddol (2007) states that English is now playing increasingly important role in national economic processes, organizations, and individuals. Apparently, he also states that in the era of globalization, “English has become one of the main mechanisms for structuring inequality in developing economies.” For example,

Malaysia in 2003 made basic proficiency in English a requirement for all foreign employees, just as Bangladesh signed an agreement to send 200,000 workers to Malaysia.” (p. 38). That is to say, the more one can speak English, the better chance one will get.

Not surprisingly, language learners nowadays are expected to be able to competently communicate with the interlocutor in the target language; however, most of them have insufficient communicative skills (Yani, 2007). One of the most difficult problems for non- English speaking countries is their lack of sufficiency of the linguistic communicative knowledge. Cultural codes of the L2 can cause language learners to express or communicate their intended meaning to the interlocutor ineffectively (Mariani, 2011).

Another possible obstacle is that they have a moderate competence in conversation. As stated by Crystal (2003), approximately a quarter of the world’s populations have only ‘reasonable’ competence in conversation, not good command of English. That means that people can use English at a basic level but cannot use it at the advanced level of communication as known in complicated and emergency situations. Further, ‘a reasonable level of attainment’ is an assumable criterion based on the countries where English has been used as an official language as well as being taught in schools, for all those who have completed secondary or further schooling and are over the age of 25.

To be successful in English communication, it is suggested that four components of communicative competence should be taken into account: grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence, and strategic competence (Canale, 1983). Grammatical competence enables a speaker to express,

interpret, and understand the literal meaning of utterances. Meanwhile, sociolinguistic competence can help a speaker to use the language appropriately in both form and meaning in different sociolinguistic contexts, such as status of informants, purpose of the interaction, and norms or conventions of interaction. Besides, discourse competence is also another competence that allows the speaker to make meaningful sentence connections of either spoken or written texts in different genres, such as use of cohesion devices (e.g. pronouns, conjunctions, synonyms, and etc.) and use of coherence (e.g. repetition, consistency, relevance of ideas, and etc.). In a different way, strategic competence is concerned about the appropriate use of communication strategies.

Even though strategic competence is not so objective as the other three competences, it is considered as one of the most important aspects for developing communicative competence (Canale and Swain, 1980). This competence can help the speakers to convey the meaning across successfully to the target interlocutor, particularly when problems occur in the communication process (Dörnyei and Thurrel, 1991). Furthermore, it “is gauged, not by degree of correctness (as grammatical competence) but rather by degree of success, or effectiveness” (Tarone and Yule, 1989, p.105). In line with Zheng (2004, p. 72), “there are stronger voices stating the strategic competence as a means to make students confident, flexible, and effective in communication is feasible and to some extent inevitable”. In other words, strategic competence not only allows language learners to deal with communication breakdowns, but also to improve communication effectiveness.

Communication strategies are considered as the chief part of strategic competence. As pointed out by Terrel (1977, p. 334), “communication strategies

are crucial at the beginning stages of second language learning”. They are not only employed to overcome communication difficulties and to enhance the communication effectiveness, but they are also employed to negotiate meaning where both linguistic structures and sociolinguistic rules are not shared between a second language learner and a speaker of the target language (O’Malley and Chamot, 1990). Also, some language learners are believed to be able to communicate successfully with only one hundred words because they rely mostly on communication strategies (Dörnyei and Thurrell, 1991).

Several past research works have been conducted on communication strategies in relation to teaching communication strategies (e.g. Dörnyei, 1995; Salomone and Marsal, 1997; Nakatani, 2005; Lam, 2006; and 2010; Lee, 2007; Maleki, 2007; Meyerhoff, 2009; and Kongsom, 2009). Most findings of the past research works (e.g. Dörnyei, 1995; Nakatani, 2005; Lam, 2006; and 2010; Lee, 2007; Maleki, 2007; and Kongsom, 2009) revealed that language learners who received instruction through communication strategies made a significant improvement related to both quality and quantity in their strategy use and oral performance. A study carried out by Lee (2006) revealed that students displayed higher self-efficacy after being trained in oral communication strategies. Similarly, Dörnyei (1995) found that students who were taught through communication strategy techniques had a positive attitude towards the training.

Apart from teaching communication strategies, research works have been investigated on communication strategies in association with such factors as *gender* (e.g. Zeynep, 1997; Lai, 2010; and Somsai and Intaraprasert, 2011); *language proficiency levels* (e.g. Bialystok, 1983; Paribakht, 1985, Dörnyei, 1995; Lee, 2007;

and Dong and Fangpeng, 2010); *oral proficiency levels* (e.g. Lam, 2010); *task types* (e.g. Mei and Nathalang, 2010); *types of school and academic goal* (e.g. Hasstrup and Phillipson, 1983); *CS training* (e.g. Dörnyei, 1995 and Lam, 2006); *self-efficacy* (e.g. Lee, 2007); *students' achievement* (e.g. Maleki, 2007); *attitude toward CSs use* (e.g. Dong and Fang-Peng, 2010); *types of students* (e.g. Bongaerts and Poulisse, 1989); *academic majors* (e.g. Mei and Nathalang, 2010); as well as *exposure to oral communication in English, and level of study, location of the institutions* (Somsai and Intaraprasert, 2011).

Due to the nature of the participants, the investigated variables, or the research contexts, different participants may employ different strategies to cope with communication problems or to maintain the conversation. However, some worthwhile factors need to be explored. Therefore, the researcher for the present investigation has attempted to investigate communication strategies employed by Thai university students majoring in English in the Northeast of Thailand with four variables which are: 1) gender of students; 2) type of study program; 3) foreign language learning experience; and 4) attitude toward speaking English. The present investigation may help shed some light on some aspects about the use of oral communication strategies in the Thai context to teachers, learners, and researchers in the field of communication strategy. More importantly, the results of the study may enrich and gain more insights into why students use certain strategies frequently and certain strategies infrequently. In addition, the pedagogical implications will be further discussed.

## 1.2 Definitions of Operational Terms for the Present Investigation

- **Communication strategies**

‘Communication strategies’ refers to attempts which students make to cope with communication breakdowns in English in order to convey an intended message to the interlocutor, to understand messages, and to maintain the conversation.

- **Students**

‘Students’ refers to 949 students majoring in English studying at the universities in the Northeast of Thailand.

- **Type of study program**

‘Type of study program’ has been classified into two main groups: English Education under the Faculty of Education and non-English Education under the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences which the students are undertaking.

- **Foreign language learning experience**

‘Foreign language learning experience’ refers to foreign languages other than English that students are taking in their study. Examples are Japanese, Chinese, Spanish, and French.

- **Attitude towards speaking English**

‘Attitude towards speaking English’ refers to students’ feelings, thoughts and emotions regarding spoken English. ‘Attitude towards speaking English’ was divided into two types: positive attitude and negative attitude based on students’ responses to the attitude towards speaking English questionnaire.

### **1.3 English Major Programs at the Tertiary Level in Thailand**

At present, in the era of globalization, English is considered an international or global language. It is used not only among countries, institutions, organizations, but also individuals all over the world. Particularly, ASEAN Economic Community in 2015, English is likely to be used for business among 10 countries: Brunei Darussalam, Cambodia, Indonesia, Lao PDR, Malaysia, Myanmar, Philippines, Singapore, Vietnam, and Thailand. To prepare for AEC, English is being designated as the language of all Thai international programs (Llego, 2014). As a result, the aim of the national curriculum has been to reform teaching and learning to allow learners to communicate and work effectively in English and other languages to enhance students' opportunities for professional advancement, matching enterprise needs, building up international networks, as well as competing at the international level.

Education at the tertiary level, English is offered as a compulsory or elective course for English majors and non-English majors (Intaraprasert, 2000). Undergraduates are required to take at least 12 credits or 4 subjects of English to complete their education (Darasawang, 2007). Of the 4 subjects, the first two subjects taken are fundamental courses. The other two are taught as English for academic purposes (EAP) or English for specific purposes (ESP). The content of these courses is determined by the students' major, for example, English for Engineering, English for Accounting, etc.

In fact, English may be a part of the Faculties of Arts, Humanities, and Social Sciences depending on the organizational arrangements in each institution (Intaraprasert, 2000). It is a program which is offered by several universities. English majors are required to study the core courses of English of their majors and they are

also required to study English as fundamental courses in General Education (GE), English as elective courses, and English for Specific Purposes (ESP). Meanwhile, non-English majors have to study English as fundamental courses in general education and English for specific purposes for their specialized areas. In addition, if they wish to be more proficient in English, they can take other English elective courses.

The program of English is mainly offered to students who are studying for either Bachelor degree of Arts or Bachelor degree of Education. The program of English can be divided into two main groups: English Education (B.Ed.) and non-English Education (B.A). The program of English Education in English is commonly provided by Mahasarakham University and most Rajabhat universities. In addition, public universities, like Khon Kaen University, as well as most Rajabhat Universities, offer the program of non-English Education in English (e.g. Khon Kaen University, Revised English Curriculum, 2012); Business English (e.g. Rajabhat Roi-Et University, 2009); meanwhile, Rajamangala University of Technology Isan (RMUTI) (Revised Curriculum of English for International Communication, 2010) offers Bachelor of Arts, Program in English for International Communication.

#### **1.4 Purposes of the Present Investigation**

The main purposes of the present investigation are to explore the employment of communication strategy by university English majors in the Northeast of Thailand, and to examine how they are related to the four variables: 1) students' gender;

2) type of study program; 3) foreign language learning experience; and 4) attitude towards speaking English. The purposes of this study are threefold:

1.4.1 to investigate the use of communication strategies by Thai university students majoring in English studying in the Northeast of Thailand in terms of frequency of their communication strategy use;

1.4.2 to examine the relationship between use of communication strategies and gender of students, type of study program, attitude towards speaking English, and foreign language learning experience; and

1.4.3 to find out the reasons why students report employing certain strategies frequently and certain strategies infrequently.

## **1.5 Outline of the Thesis**

To achieve the purposes, this thesis is organized into six chapters as follows:

Chapter 1 starts with the background of the present study. It is followed by definitions of operational terms for the present investigation. It also covers background of English Major Programs at the tertiary level in Thailand. Finally, purposes of the investigation are presented.

Chapter 2 covers literature review and past research works on communication strategies. The chapter includes crucial aspects of communication strategies, namely, definitions of oral communication, characteristics of oral communication, communicative competence, the components of communicative competence, and the importance of strategic competence. Furthermore, the overview of communication strategies, which includes the notion of communication strategies, the importance of communication strategies for language learners, types and taxonomies of

communication strategies are presented. The chapter ends with past research works which have been conducted in other countries and Thailand.

Chapter 3 presents research methodology of the present investigation. It covers methods and instrumentations in communication strategy research, theoretical framework and rationale for selecting investigated variables, research questions, sampling and rationale for choice of participants, including framework of data collection methods. Finally, quantitative and qualitative methods to analyze, interpret and report the results of the study are presented.

Chapter 4 provides the research findings with regard to 949 English majors' overall strategy use, use of strategies under the three categories: SCM (strategies for conveying an intended message), SUM (strategies for understanding the message), and SMC (strategies for maintaining the conversation), and use of individual CSs based on the holistic mean scores through the communication strategy questionnaire. Moreover, this chapter reports the research results of the present investigation by the quantitative method at the three different levels of data analysis, that is, students' overall strategy use, use of strategies under the three categories, and use of individual CSs according to the four investigated variables: gender of students, type of study program, foreign language learning experience, and attitude towards speaking English. The variations in students reported overall strategy use and strategy use under the three categories are determined through an Analysis of Variance (ANOVA). The Chi-square tests have been used to describe the variations of the students' reported strategy use at the individual level. Finally, factor analysis has been also employed for determining the underlying patterns among the 26 communication

strategies which were found significantly different by one of the investigated variables.

Chapter 5 presents the results of the qualitative data obtained through the semi-structured interview provided by 45 students who were also the questionnaire respondents. It provided the researcher with the reasons why students reported employing certain strategies frequently and certain strategies infrequently when coping with oral communication problems.

Chapter 6 concludes the principal findings of the present study in response to Research Questions 1 to 3, which were mentioned in Chapter 3. This is followed by the implications arising from the research findings for the teaching and learning of communication skills for English major students in the Thai context. Finally, the contribution, limitations of the present investigation as well as the recommendations for future research are presented.

## **1.6 Summary**

In this chapter, the researcher has given a description of the background of the present study in an attempt to put the study in a proper context. This is followed by the definition of terms used for the study. Then, a brief overview of the Thai educational system, and English language teaching and learning in Thailand are presented. This is followed by the research purposes. This chapter ends with the outline of the present study. The next chapter presents the literature review in the field of communication strategies as well as the past research works on communication strategies.

## **CHAPTER 2**

### **RELATED LITERATURE REVIEW**

#### **2.1 Purpose and Introduction of the Chapter**

This chapter is a review of literature related to the present study. Firstly, it starts with a definition as well as the characteristics of oral communication to provide a background leading to communicative competence. This is followed by the importance of strategic competence. Then the importance of communication strategies in enhancing communication competence, the definitions, and types of communication strategy will be discussed. Finally, the related research on communication strategies both overseas and in Thailand will be presented.

In the Thai education system, English is regarded as a foreign language constituting basic learning content that is prescribed for the entire basic education core curriculum (Ministry of Education, 2008). It is the predominantly vital international language when it comes to communications, business, science and technology, education and research, aviation, entertainment, mass media and diplomatic arrangements (Abdullah and Chaudhary, 2012). However, limited linguistics knowledge, a lack of confidence including the absence of correct use of grammar (Yarnruksa, 1997; Sadiq, 2010; and Ya-ni, 2007) may have an effect on communication breakdowns. According to Somsai and Intaraprasert (2011), a lack of opportunity to expose themselves to English communication, a fear of being blamed for making mistakes by teachers or classmates, or being too shy to speak English may

be of great difficulties or obstacles in oral communication breakdowns for language learners.

In order to improve students' communicative competence, communication strategies are another way to enable them to overcome their oral communication difficulties. Hatch (1978, p.434) states that language learners should be taught to use "whatever fillers they can to show the native speaker that they do not give up". This means that CSs help language learners to try and maintain the conversation rather than give up their communication. Additionally, Canale (1983) and Bygate (2000) state that CSs are employed not only to tackle communication breakdowns, but also to enrich the effectiveness of communication even though language learners do not have any difficulties in oral communication.

A number of scholars (e.g. Tarone, Cohen and Dumas, 1976; Tarone, 1977; Færch and Kasper, 1983b; Paribakht, 1985; Dörnyei and Scott, 1995; and Nakatani, 2006) have paid attention to explore and classify CS use so as to help language learners to be successful in their language learning. Besides, some scholars (e.g. Dörnyei, 1995; Nakatani, 2006; Kongsom, 2009; Mariani, 2010; Lai, 2010; Lam, 2010; and Somsai, 2011) have attempted to investigate the relationship between CS use and other variables that may have a relationship between learners' choices of CS and frequency. Examples are language proficiency levels (Dörnyei, 1995); gender (Lai, 2010; Somsai, 2011); and attitude towards the teaching of CSs (Kongsom, 2009). Dörnyei (1995) and Mariani (2010) state that CSs allow language learners to obtain language practice as well as to provide more opportunities for them to check and validate their hypotheses so that they will have more chances to develop their communicative competence.

## 2.2 Oral Communication

Currently, an increasing number of researchers have paid more attention to exploring effective ways to teach language learners to communicate in a target language effectively, especially in an attempt to help language learners to overcome communication difficulties as well as to reach their communicative goals.

In order to gain a better understanding of the issue, a brief background of oral communication including the definitions and characteristics of oral communication will be illustrated and discussed in the subsequent sections.

### 2.2.1 Definitions of Oral Communication

Oral communication typically occurs between two or more people. Communicators use several ways to communicate with one another such as speaking, telephoning, or face-to-face meeting. Scholars have attempted to define the term ‘oral communication’ based on their different views and experience as follows:

- Widdowson (1978, p. 58) defines ‘oral communication’ as “an act of communication through speaking commonly performed in face-to-face communication and occurs as part of a dialogue or other form of verbal exchange”.
- Allwright (1984, p. 156) has defined the term ‘oral communication’ as “people talking to each other”.
- Savignon (1997, p. 14) has defined ‘oral communication’ as “the continuous process of expression, interpretation, and negotiation of meaning”.

- Florez (1999, p. 1) refers speaking (oral communication) to as “an interactive process of constructing meaning that involves producing and receiving and processing information”.

As can be seen from the sample definitions above, oral communication is a two-way communication between two or more persons commonly performed in face-to-face communication (Widdowson, 1978). Even though the definitions are different, they all have a common thread. There are three basic components of oral communication: 1) a speaker or a message sender, 2) a message, and 3) a listener or a message recipient. In oral communication, Savignon (1997) also takes the process of interaction into consideration where both the speaker and the listener exchange their messages and ideas verbally by expressing, interpreting, and negotiating the meaning in order to keep the conversation going.

### **2.2.2 Characteristics of Oral Communication**

According to Lynch (1996, p. 3), “communication involves enabling someone else to understand what we want to tell them, what is often referred to as our message.” Rubin and Thomson (1994) and Savignon (1997) divide three main activities are commonly involved in oral communication: expressing messages, interpreting messages, and negotiating meaning of the messages. That is to say, when communicating with people, a sender will try to convey an intended message to a recipient. In the meantime, a message recipient also tries to interpret and understand the received message and meaning negotiation is needed when the message is not understandable.

Based on the nature of communication, Canale (1983, p. 3) made a list of the characteristics of communication by Breen and Candlin (1980) and Widdowson (1978). Oral communication:

- is a form of social interaction, and is therefore normally acquired and used in social interaction;
- involves a high degree of unpredictability and creativity in form and message;
- takes place in discourse and sociocultural contexts which provide constraints on appropriate language use and also clues as to correct interpretation of utterances;
- is carried out under limited psychological and other conditions such as memory constraints, fatigue, and distractions;
- always has a purpose (for example, to establish social relations, to persuade, or to promise);
- involves authentic, as opposed to text-book-contrived language; and
- is judged as successful or not based on actual outcomes.

To sum up, communication may break down if language learners are not aware of three main aspects, namely, social, psychological, and sociocultural contexts. Three main activities, that is, expressing messages, interpreting messages, and negotiating meaning of the messages are commonly involved in oral communication. In the following section, the communicative competence will be discussed.

### 2.3 Communicative Competence

The notion of communicative competence was first coined by Hymes (1972) which reacted against the original notion of Chomsky's (Brown, 2000) distinction between competence and performance, which focuses on the knowledge of grammar rules and usage. According to Hymes (1972), language learners require to use the language not only based on linguistic knowledge (grammar and vocabulary) but also communicative competence (sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic competence). Further, Chomsky's notion was too narrow because sociocultural factors of language were ignored.

Consistent with Hymes (1972), Canale and Swain (1980) refer communicative competence to as "both knowledge and skill in using this knowledge when interacting in actual communication". Also, Savignon (1991, p. 267) pointed out that communicative competence as language learners' ability to interact with other speakers should go together with "an understanding of sociocultural context of language use".

It can be concluded that communicative competence not only focuses on the knowledge of grammar rules and uses but also sociocultural factors. In order to have a clearer picture of communicative competence, components of communicative competence and the importance of strategic competence will be presented and discussed in the next section.

## 2.4 The Importance of Strategic Competence

It is undeniable that strategic competence is essential to foreign language learners (Dörnyei and Thurrel, 1991). It can help language a learner solve their communication problems and is used not only to compensate but also to enhance the effectiveness of communication. As pointed out by Canale (1983), strategic competence is the mastery of verbal and non-verbal CSs that may be called into action for two main reasons: 1) to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to limiting conditions in actual communication (e.g. momentary inability to recall an idea or grammatical form) due to insufficient competence in one or more of the other areas of communicative competence; and 2) to enhance the effectiveness of communication.

Tarone and Yule (1989, p.105) suggest that “strategic competence is gauged, not by degree of correctness (as grammatical competence) but rather by degree of success, or effectiveness”. Similarly, Mariani (2010) states that strategic competence is one of the four main components in communicative competence and should be taken into account due to its significant role.

To conclude, it is indisputable that strategic competence is an important competence for language learners. It is used to overcome communication difficulties, to keep the conversation going, and to enhance effective communication. The importance of communication strategies for language learners, definition of CSs, types of CS, including taxonomies of CSs will be discussed in the following section.

## **2.5 Communication Strategies**

When communicating in a foreign language, language learners frequently confront communication difficulties due to a lack of linguistic knowledge. Some may try to keep talking, but some may give up when they encounter such problems. As mentioned earlier, communicative competence does not just comprise one but 4 components, i.e., grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence, and strategic competence. As stated by Canale and Swain (1980), strategic competence is one of the important aspects of communicative competence which enables language learners to overcome communication breakdowns. That is to say, communication strategies which are a part of strategic competence are a focal point to help learners to communicate successfully.

CSs have gradually received scholars' interests. Since the early 1970s until now, many scholars have attempted to define and classify CSs based on their studies. In order to get a clear picture about CSs, the importance of communication strategies, the definitions of CSs, and CS taxonomies proposed by the past researchers will be elaborated in the next section.

### **2.5.1 The Importance of Communication Strategies for Language Learners**

One of the most common obstacles for language learners is that they cannot convey the intended message to the interlocutor effectively due to the lack of sufficient knowledge of the linguistic, communicative, and cultural codes of the L2 (Mariani, 2010). When encountered with communication problems, one attempts to use different methods to convey their intended messages by using such strategies as paraphrasing, using approximations, using examples, asking for help, or including

nonverbal language. They use these strategies to tackle or overcome communication problems which are called communication strategies (Bialystok, 1990).

Communication strategies are feasible and indispensable for language learners to use in their oral communication. As stated by Terrel (1977, p. 334) “CSs are crucial at the beginning stages of second language learning”. These strategies enable both language learners and users not to give up in their oral difficulties, allow them to exercise more control on interaction, to cope effectively with uncertainty in linguistic and intercultural contacts, and to enhance their personal autonomy in learning and using a language (Hatch, 1978 cited in Mariani, 2010).

Besides, CSs play an important role “in negotiating meaning where either linguistic structures or sociolinguistic rules are not shared between a second-language learner and a speaker of the target language” (O’Malley and Chamot, 1990, p.43). Importantly, they are also employed to enhance communication effectively (Canale, 1983). Similarly, Zheng (2004) suggests that CSs not only enhance language learners to be confident, but also to be flexible and effective in oral communication. It is not surprising that communication strategies are crucial for language learners as well as “their existence is a reliably documented aspect of communication, and their role in second-language communication seems particularly salient” (Bialystok, 1990, p.116).

To conclude, CSs are essential for second and foreign language learners who have insufficient linguistic sources. They are used to convey the message to the interlocutor. Meanwhile, language learners use them to negotiate and interpret the message for maintaining and enhancing the effectiveness of communication.

Moreover, using CSs help language learners become more confident, flexible as well as enable their communication to become more effective.

### **2.5.2 Definitions of Communication Strategies**

In the early studies of communication strategies, definitions of communication strategies have been defined by different researchers (e.g. Tarone, Cohen and Dumas, 1976; Tarone, 1980; Færch and Kasper, 1983a; Bialystok, 1983; Canale, 1983; Paribakht, 1985; Dörnyei and Thurrell, 1992; Ogane, 1998; Bygate, 2000; Lam, 2006; and Mariani, 2010). Still, those definitions have not been conclusive. Examples are:

- Tarone, Cohen and Dumas (1976, p.78), refer CSs to as “a systematic attempt by the learner to express or decode meaning in the target language, in situations where the appropriate systematic target language rules have not been formed”.
- Tarone (1980, p.420) defines CSs as “a mutual attempt of two interlocutors to agree on a meaning in situations where requisite meaning structures [which involve linguistic structure and sociolinguistic rule structures] do not seem to be shared”.
- Færch and Kasper (1983a, p. 36) give a definition of CSs as “potentially conscious plans for solving what to an individual presents itself as a problem in reaching a particular communicative goal”.
- Stern (1983, p. 411) defines CSs as “techniques of coping with difficulties in communicating in an imperfectly known second language”.
- Bialystok (1983, p.102) terms CSs as “all attempts to manipulate a limited linguistic system in order to promote communication”.
- Canale (1983, p.10) refers CSs to as “verbal and non-verbal strategies that may be called into action to compensate for breakdowns in communication

due to limited conditions in actual communication or to insufficient competence in one or more of the other areas of communicative competence, and to enhance the effectiveness of communication”.

- Corder (1983, p.16) refers CSs to as “a systematic technique employed by a speaker to express his meaning when faced with some difficulty”.
- Paribakht (1985, p.132) defines CSs as “the means that speakers use to solve their communicative problems”.
- Dörnyei and Thurrell (1992, p. 10) define CSs as “ a conversation skill which can trigger immediate response in the spontaneous and on-line interaction in a social context”.
- Ogane (1998, p. 6) defines CSs as “a technique used to solve problems in reaching a communicative goal”.
- Bygate (2000, p.115) refers CSs to “ways of achieving communication by using language in the most effective way”.
- Williams (2006) defines CSs as “strategies that learners employ when their communicative competence in the language being learned (L2) insufficient. This includes making themselves understood in the L2 and having others help them understand”.
- Lam (2006, p. 142) terms CSs as “tactics taken by L2 learners to solve oral communication problems”.
- Mariani (2010, p.7) refers CSs to as “the ways and means we employ when we experience a problem in communication, either because we cannot say what we would like to say or because we cannot understand what is being said to us”.

According to Bialystok (1990), CSs are considered as language devices (i.e. verbal or non-verbal strategies) which have been used to overcome oral communication breakdowns when language learners are likely to have insufficient interlanguage skills. The definitions have been defined based on the personal perceptions and beliefs of the experts and their research contexts; still, definitions of CSs share some similarities and differences. Based on the CSs definitions above, some main aspects can be summarized:

- CSs are commonly used to deal with communication problems (e.g. Færch and Kasper, 1983b; Corder, 1983; Stern, 1983; Paribakht, 1985; Bialystok, 1990; Ogane, 1998; Lam, 2006; and Mariani, 2010).
- Negotiation and interpretation of meaning is another purpose which is mentioned in the definition of CSs (Tarone, Cohen and Dumas, 1976; and Tarone, 1980 and 1983).
- CSs are employed to enhance or promote the effectiveness of conversation even if the speaker does not have any language problems in oral communication in a target language (Bialystok, 1983; Canale, 1983).
- CSs are used when requisite meaning structures do not seem to be shared, which involve linguistic structure and sociolinguistic rule structures (Tarone, 1980 and 1983) as well as a social context, like on-line interaction (Dörnyei and Thurrell, 1992).

To sum up, CSs are defined as language devices commonly used by EFL/ESL learners so as to handle the communication problems. CSs are also used to maintain,

negotiate, understand, or interpret an intended message when communicating with the interlocutor as a result of language learners' linguistic deficiencies in oral communication. Importantly, CSs are used not only to cope with communication breakdowns, but also to enhance or promote effective individual communication involving linguistic structure, sociolinguistic rule structures, and a social context.

### **2.5.3 Types of Communication Strategy**

In general, research works on CSs have been based on two main perspectives: the interactional perspective (also called the inter-individual perspective) and psycholinguistic (the intra-individual perspective) perspective. These two different approaches will be presented and reviewed in the following sections.

#### **2.5.3.1 The Interactional Perspective**

The interactional perspective was first introduced by Tarone (1980). This kind of perspective focuses on the interaction process between language learners and their interlocutors, particularly in terms of the negotiation of meaning (e.g. Tarone, 1980; Canale, 1983; Long, 1983; Pica, 2002; Nakatani, 2005; and Nakatani and Goh, 2007). Based on the notion of interactional perspective, Tarone (1980, p. 420) states that CSs are perceived as “tools used in a joint negotiation of meaning where both interlocutors are attempting to agree as to a communicative goal”. It can be said that the primary purpose of CS use is to negotiate meaning, which means that during the process of communication between two interlocutors, if some points are misunderstood by one or the other or a gap hinders the understanding of both sides, CSs are used as tools to negotiate meaning and to express the interlocutors' intended meaning in order to handle and overcome communication breakdowns.

Moreover, Tarone (1983, p.65) suggests the criteria for characterizing communication strategies as follows:

1. A speaker desires to communicate a meaning X to a listener.
2. The speaker believes the linguistic or sociolinguistic structure desired to communicate meaning X is unavailable or is not shared with the listener; thus,
3. The speaker chooses to:
  - a. avoid: not attempt to communicate meaning X or
  - b. attempt alternate means to communicate meaning X.

The speaker stops trying alternatives when it seems clear to the speaker that there is shared meaning.

In line with Tarone's perspective on CS, Canale (1983) proposes a framework of communicative competence consisting of four components: grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence, and strategic competence (see 2.3.2). Additionally, the component of strategic competence is regarded as important as the other three components for language learners. Even though it is not a kind of cognitive-stored knowledge, it can help language learners to negotiate meaning and convey the message to the interlocutors successfully.

### **2.5.3.2 The Psycholinguistic Perspective**

The psycholinguistic perspective is also called a "cognitive approach" by Bialystok (1990). Researchers who advocate the psycholinguistic perspective (e.g. Færch and Kasper, 1983b; Bialystok, 1990; and the Nijmegen Group (Bongaerts, Kellerman and Poullisse, 1984)) consider CSs as internal and individual mental procedures that a speaker employs to solve oral communication problems.

Thus, CS research should investigate the cognitive processes underlying strategic language use (Dörnyei and Scott, 1995).

Færch and Kasper's (1983) definition emphasized the feature of problem solving which CSs are used by the L2 learner rather than the support from the interlocutor. As defined by Færch and Kasper (1983b, p.36), CSs as "potentially conscious plans for solving what to an individual present itself as a problem in reaching a particular communicative goal". Dörnyei and Scott (1997) affirms these strategies are separated from other types of problem-solving devices, meaning-negotiation and repair mechanisms, for instance, requesting and providing classification, which involve the handling of problems that have already encountered during the course of communication. It can be said that the speaker may employ CSs when tackling oral communication difficulties without appealing for help from the interlocutors.

Bialystok (1990) asserts that the ambiguities of two criteria characterizing CSs exist. The first ambiguity is that CSs are used not only to handle communication problems, but they are also used even if no problems arise. Another ambiguity is a potential consciousness. As there is not enough evidence that "speakers are indeed aware that their utterances constitute strategic uses of language because "the choice... may be made entirely without the conscious consideration of the speaker" (Bialystok, 1990, p.4). As a result, she tries to separate the intentionality from consciousness. She refers 'intentionality' to as "the learner's control over a repertoire of strategies so that particular ones may be selected from the range of options and deliberately applied to achieve certain effects" (p.5). That means a specific CS is intentionally used to achieve a certain communicative goal.

All in all, two main perspectives of CS: the inter-individual/interactional perspective and the inter-individual/psycholinguistic perspective. The notion of interactional perspective puts the emphasis on negotiation of meaning and repair mechanisms between the interlocutors. CSs are regarded as language devices which are used to solve communication problems as well as to enhance the effectiveness of oral communication. Meanwhile, the intra-individual/psycholinguistic perspective emphasizes on the psychological process, which is a kind of mental operations of the speaker may make use of CSs without appealing for help from the interlocutor.

#### **2.5.4 Taxonomies of Communication Strategies**

Some previous researchers (e.g. Tarone, Cohen and Dumas, 1976; Færch and Kasper, 1983b; Paribakht, 1985; Bialystock, 1990; Nakatani, 2006; Poulisse, 1987; Mariani, 2010; and Somsai and Intaraprasert, 2011) have classified the taxonomies of CSs in different ways based on their own CS investigation or followed, reviewed, and modified the CSs suggested by other research studies (e.g. Bialystok, 1983; Willems, 1987; Dörnyei, 1995; and Dörnyei and Scott, 1997).

Different taxonomies of CSs have been introduced by many researchers. Examples are Tarone, Cohen and Dumas (1976), Bialystok (1983), Poulisse (1987), Dörnyei and Scott (1995), Nakatani (2006), Mariani (2010), and Somsai and Intaraprasert (2011).

##### **2.5.4.1 Communication Strategy Classification by Tarone, Cohen and Dumas (1976)**

Tarone, Cohen and Dumas (1976) categorized the strategies to cope with communication problems as follows:

<p><b>1. Transfer from native language</b></p>	<p>Producing utterances that are not just inappropriate but actually incorrect by native standards, due to native transfer from the native language (e.g. <i>'the BOOK OF JACK' for 'Jack's book'</i>).</p>
<p><b>2. Overgeneralization</b></p>	<p>Applying of a rule of the target language to inappropriate target language forms or contexts (e.g. <i>'He is PRETTY.'</i> or <i>'I don't know WHAT IS IT.'</i>).</p>
<p><b>3. Prefabricated pattern</b></p>	<p>Employing a regular pattern segment of speech without knowledge of its underlying structure (e.g. <i>'What do you do?' for 'What are you doing?'</i>).</p>
<p><b>4. Overelaboration</b></p>	<p>Producing utterances which seem stilted and inordinately formal in an attempt to produce careful target language (e.g. <i>'Buddy, that's my foot WHICH you are standing on.'</i>).</p>
<p><b>5. Epenthesis</b></p>	<p>Inserting vowels in attempts to produce unfamiliar consonant clusters in the target language, (e.g. <i>/satərei/ for 'strei/ (stray).'</i>).</p>
<p><b>6. Avoidance</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Topic avoidance <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Change topic</li> <li>- No verbal response</li> </ul> </li>   <li>• Semantic avoidance</li>   <li>• Appeal to authority <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Ask for form</li> <li>- Ask if correct</li> <li>- Look it up</li> </ul> </li> <li>• Paraphrase</li>   <li>• Message abandonment</li>   <li>• Language switch</li> </ul>	<p>Attempting to totally evade communication about the topics which require the use of target language rules or forms which the learner does not yet know very well (e.g. avoiding using certain sounds, like /l/ or /r/ in <i>'pollution problems'</i>, or avoiding talking about one's work due to lack of technical vocabulary).</p> <p>Evading the communication of content for which the appropriate target language rules and forms are not available (e.g. <i>'It's hard to breathe' for 'air pollution'</i>; or <i>'I like to swim' in response for 'What happened yesterday?'</i>).</p> <p>Asking someone else to supply a form or lexical items, asking if a form or item is correct, or else looking it up in a dictionary (e.g. <i>'How do you say "staple" in French?'</i>).</p> <p>Rewording the message in an alternate, acceptable, target language construction in order to avoid a more difficult form or construction e.g. <i>'tool' for 'wrench'</i>, <i>'labour' for 'work'</i>; <i>'airball' for 'balloon'</i> (word coinage); or <i>'a thing you can dry your hands on' for 'towel'</i> (circumlocution)).</p> <p>Cutting short communication on an initiated topic because the learner runs into difficulty with a target language form or rule (e.g. <i>'If only I had a ...'</i>).</p> <p>Transporting a native word or expression, untranslated, into the interlanguage utterance (e.g. <i>'I want a COUTEAU.'</i>).</p>

The first important taxonomy of communication strategies was introduced by Tarone, Cohen and Dumas (1976), attempting to explore these strategies in order to analyze language learners' communicative behaviors from their communication errors. Based on their study, they have categorized their taxonomy of

communication strategies into six major types, namely, transfer from NL, overgeneralization, prefabricated pattern, overelaboration, epenthesis, and avoidance. In other words, these strategies were investigated based on verbal communication errors.

#### 2.5.4.2 Communication Strategy Classification by Tarone (1977)

Tarone (1977) proposed her taxonomy with five main categories as follows:

##### 1. Paraphrase

- Approximation Using single target language vocabulary item or structure, which the speaker knows is not correct, but which shares enough semantic features in common with the desired item to satisfy the speaker (e.g. *'pipe' for 'water pipe'*).
- Word coinage Making up a new word in order to communicate a desired concept (e.g. *'airball' for 'balloon'*).
- Circumlocution Describing the characteristics or elements of the object or action instead of using the appropriate TL in terms of structure (e.g. *'She is, uh, smoking something. I don't know what's its name That's. uh, Persian, and we use in Turkey, a lot of.'*).

##### 2. Borrowing

- Literal translation Translating word for word from the native language (e.g. *'He invites him to drink.'* For *'They toast one another.'*).
- Language switch Using the native language term without bothering to translate (e.g. *'balon' for 'balloon', or 'tirtil' for 'caterpillar'*).

##### 3. Appeal for assistance

Asking for correct term (e.g. *'What is it?', 'What called?'*).

##### 4. Mime

Using non-verbal strategies in place of lexical item or action (e.g. *clapping one's hands to illustrate applause*).

##### 5. Avoidance

- Topic avoidance Trying not to talk about concept for which the target language item or structure is not known.
- Message avoidance Stopping in mid-utterance after failing in an attempt to talk about the concept.

Tarone (1977) classified communication strategies into five main strategies: avoidance, paraphrase, conscious transfer, appeal for assistance, and mime.

The advantages of Tarone's CS are the clarification in categorizing communication

strategies and providing a good foundation for later researchers, for instance, Bialystok (1983, 1990) and Dörnyei's (1995) classification. As can be seen in Dörnyei's (1995) classification, Tarone's first four categories are regrouped as achievement strategies (paraphrase, borrowing, appeal for assistance and mime) and avoidance strategies. Nevertheless, Dong and Fang-Peng (2010, p.60) state that the disadvantages of Tarone's classification are that the boundaries established to identify the strategy types and the distinctions between different strategies seem ambiguous. Another disadvantage of Tarone's classification is that it fails to provide an explanation for how the strategy might have operated to achieve its goal. Tarone's CS taxonomy has still been used and adopted in other CS studies, although her taxonomy is inapplicable to monologue.

#### 2.5.4.3 Communication Strategy Classification by Bialystok (1983)

Two different taxonomies were offered by Bialystok (1983). The first taxonomy was proposed in 1983 and the other one in 1990. Bialystok's former classification was based on Tarone's (1977) classification, as can be seen in the following three main types:

##### 1. L1-based strategies

- Language switch
- Foreignizing
- Transliteration

The insertion of a word or phrase in a language other than the target language, usually the learner's native language (e.g. '*Il y a deux CANDLES sur la cheminee.*'). The creation of non-existent or contextually lexical items (e.g. '*Il y a CLOCHE sur la cheminee.*').

The use of L2 lexicon and structure to create a (usually non-consistent) literal translation of an L1 in terms of phrase (e.g. '*place de fue*' for English '*fireplace*', or '*piece de temps*' for '*timepiece*').

##### 2. L2-based strategies

- Semantic contiguity

The use of a single lexical item which share certain semantic features with the target item. (e.g. '*tabouret*' frequently replaced by '*chaise*' (chair) or '*table*' (table), or '*horloge*' (clock) by '*montre*' (watch).

- Description Describing the physical properties, the specific features, and the interactional/functional characteristics of an object (e.g. ‘*tabouret*’ should be described as ‘*une petite chaise de bois, pour reposer les jambes quand on est fatigüe, elle n’a pas de does*’).
  - Word coinage The creation of an L2 lexical item by selecting a conceptual feature of the target item and incorporating it into L2 morphological system (e.g. ‘*heurot*’ (clock) was created by attaching the noun suffix ‘-ot’ to ‘*heur*’ (time)).
3. Non-linguistic strategies The use of non-verbal strategies.

L1-based strategies, L2-based strategies, and non-linguistic strategies are the three major taxonomies of CS proposed by Bialystok (1983). The L1-based strategies depend on the use of the learner’s native language, while the L2-based strategies are related to the target language. Finally, non-linguistic strategies mean the use of non-verbal strategies.

#### 2.5.4.4 Communication Strategy Classification by Corder (1983)

The CS classification proposed by Corder (1983) are:

##### 1. Message adjustment/Risk avoidance strategies

- Topic avoidance A refusal to enter into or continue a discourse within some field or topic because of a feeling of total linguistic inadequacy.
- Message abandonment Trying but giving up.
- Semantic avoidance Saying something slightly different from what you intended but still broadly relevant to the topic of discourse.
- Message reduction Saying less, or less precisely, what you intended to say. This is often seen as rather vague general talk.

##### 2. Resource expansion/Risk-taking strategies

- Borrowing The use of linguistic resources other than the target language. (Switching to another language is the extreme form of borrowing.)
- Paraphrase/Circumlocution Getting round your problem with the knowledge you have.
- Paralinguistic devices Using nonverbal strategies, typically gesture.
- Appeal for help Asking for help from the interlocutor.

Corder (1983) introduced two main types of CS including adjustment strategies or risk avoidance strategies and resource expansion strategies or

risk-running strategies. He suggests that there are two ways for coping with communication problems: 1) learners should make their decision to choose to adapt their message by employing message adjustment or risk avoidance strategies, for instance, topic avoidance, message abandonment, semantic avoidance, and message reduction and 2) risk-taking strategies (resource expansion) are another way that helps language learners to overcome their communication breakdowns. Those strategies are word borrowing, language switching, paraphrasing or circumlocution, using nonverbal strategies, and asking for help from the interlocutor. Additionally, he suggests that language learners should be encouraged to use resource expansion strategies so as to lead them to language acquisition.

#### **2.5.4.5 Communication Strategy Classification by Færch and Kasper (1983b)**

Færch and Kasper (1983b) classified the communication strategies into three main types as follows:

##### **1. Formal reduction strategies**

- Phonological level  
Learners communicate by means of a “reduced” system, focusing on stable rules or items which have reasonably well automatized, in order to avoid producing non-fluent or incorrect utterances by using insufficiently automatized or hypothetical rules/items.  
Adopting another way of realizing the difficult phoneme (e.g. by overgeneralizing or by borrowing an L1 phone as in the case of /d/for/ð).
- Morphological level  
Substituting syntactic or lexical items for the avoided morphological item (e.g. using an infinitival verbal complement to avoid subordinate clauses containing the subjunctive).
- Syntactic level  
Not applying the rule in question (e.g. using active sentence structure to avoid passive sentence structure).
- Lexical level  
Avoiding using words which are difficult to pronounce, irregular, impose restrictions on the context difficult to observe or have no direct translation-equivalent in L1.

##### **2. Functional reduction strategies**

- Actional reduction  
Learners reduces communicative goal in order to avoid the problem.  
Reducing interlanguage performance when experiencing problems in performing specific speech acts.
- Modal reduction  
Reducing interlanguage performance when experiencing problems in specific speech acts an/or in making utterances appropriately for politeness/social distance.

- Reduction of propositional content
  - Topic avoidance

- Message abandonment

- Message replacement

### 3. Achievement strategies

- Code switching
- Compensatory strategies

- Inter/intralingual transfer

- Interlanguage-based strategies

- Generalization

- Paraphrase

- Word coinage

- Restructuring

- Cooperative strategies

- Non-linguistic strategies

Avoiding formulating goals which include topics that are perceived as problematic from the linguistic point of view.

Communication on a topic is initiated but then cut short because the learner runs into difficulty with a target language form or rule. The learner stops in mid-sentence, with no appeal to the authority to help finish the utterance.

Learner, when confronting by a planning or retrieval problem, operates within the intended propositional content and preserves the 'topic' but refers to it by means of a more general expression.

Learner attempts to solve the problems in communication by expanding his communicative resources.

Switching from L2 to L1 or L3. This may involve stretches of discourse from single words up to complete turns. It is sometimes referred to as 'borrowing'.

Using 'Foreignizing' (adjusting L1/L3 words to L2 phonology and/or morphology) and/or 'literal translation' (translating compounds or idiomatic expressions from L1 verbatim into L2). This involves phonological, morphological, syntactic or lexical of the L1, sometimes even at pragmatic and discourse level.

Generalizing an L2 rule, but influenced by the properties of the corresponding L1 structure (e.g. Danish: *svømme* – *svømmede* (past tense), English *swim* – *swimmed*)

Using an alternative – and less appropriate – item without changing the communicative goal. Examples are the use of lexical substitution, approximation, or superordinate terms.

Using description, circumlocution (focusing on characteristic properties and functions of the intended referent), or exemplification (using hyponymic term) (e.g. '*knallert*' Danish for '*moped*').

Creating a new L2 word (e.g. We are sitting in the '*surrounding*' of the stadium).

Learner develops an alternative local plan which enables him to communicate his intended message without reduction (e.g. '*...my parents has I have er four elder sisters...*' for the word '*daughter*').

Learner signals to his interlocutor that he is experiencing a communicative problem and that he needs assistance (appealing). This can be direct or indirect.

Using non-linguistic strategies such as mime, gesture, and sound-imitation to solve a communicative problem or to support other – verbal – strategies.

- Retrieval strategies  
Learner knows that the term is there and he would like to retrieve it in some way such as waiting for the term to appear, appealing to formal similarity, retrieval via semantic fields, searching via other language.

Færch and Kasper (1983b) provided three categories of CSs: formal reduction strategies, functional reduction strategies, and achievement strategies. Their classification is in accordance with the classification proposed by Tarone (1977, 1983), Corder (1983), and Dörnyei (1995) regarding CS use for dealing with communication difficulties, i.e. avoiding or attempting to tackle the problems in oral interaction. The first two categories (formal reduction strategies, functional reduction strategies) are employed by language learners in order to avoid the problem; meanwhile, the achievement strategies are employed for coping with communication problems.

#### 2.5.4.6 Communication Strategy Classification by Paribakht (1985)

Paribakht (1985) introduced four approaches to deal with oral communication breakdowns as follows.

##### 1. Linguistic approach

- Semantic contiguity  
This approach exploits the semantic features of the target item and reflects the speaker's formal analysis of meaning.  
All CS in this category exploit items semantically related to the target item.  
- Superordinate  
*'this is a fruit.'* for *'pomegranate'*; or *'This is a quality.'* for *'honesty'*  
- Comparison  
This is the strategy of exploiting similarities between the two items.  
➤ Positive comparison  
*'Is the same like lamp'* (*lantern*)  
Analogy  
*'It is like the victory'* (*success*)  
Synonymy  
*'Caravan'* (*palanquin*)  
*'Synonym for wait'* (*patience*)  
➤ Negative comparison  
*'It's not a same as computer'* (*abacus*)  
Contrast and opposition  
*'When you don't have it, you're scared'* (*courage*)  
*'This is the opposite of failure'* (*success*)  
Antonymy  
*'Opposite it's exactly hurry'* (*patience*)
- Circumlocution  
An attempt to describe the characteristics of the concept.

- Physical description
  - Size
    - ‘It would fit into your hand’ (*pomegranate*)
  - Shape
    - ‘This fruit have a shape like earth’ for (*pomegranate*)
  - Color
    - ‘Its colour is red’ (*pomegranate*)
  - Material
    - ‘It’s made of metal’ (*thimble*)
- constituent features
  - Features
    - In concrete nouns, constituent features refer to different parts of the object; and in abstract nouns they are the underlying semantic elements of the concept.
    - ‘There is a *handle* on it’ (*lantern*)
    - ‘someone who *dies* for a *cause*’ (*martyrdom*)
  - Elaborated features
    - The details of a single feature of the item are given (e.g. ‘has always *little juicy seeds inside* and they are *red*, and they’re really *tart*’ (*pomegranate*)), or ‘being killed in, usually in – for a *good cause*’ (*martyrdom*)).
- Locational property
  - ‘It was used maybe in Arab countries’ (*palanquin*)
  - ‘Tie with two, two trees, we tie to two trees’ (*hammock*)
- Historical property
  - ‘It belongs to many years ago’ (*abacus*)
  - ‘Ancient people used this’ (*palanguin*)
- Other features
  - Other features refer to those features which are not necessarily factual, but rather are indirectly associated with the target items. While some of these associations may be shared by speakers of different linguistic backgrounds (see the first example below), many of these specific associations appear to be context- and/or culture-bound (see the second example below)
  - ‘It’s workmate to a broom’ (*dust-pan*)
  - ‘It’s the passion fruit’ (*pomegranate*)
  - ‘It’s honourable’ (*martyrdom*)
- Functional description
  - ‘When you finish sweep — ah— you use—you use for collect garbage’ (*dust-pan*)
- Metalinguistic clues
  - The speaker gives metalinguistic information on the target item (e.g. ‘It’s actually a noun with a suffix’ (*martyrdom*)).

## 2. Contextual approach

- Linguistic context
  - This approach exploits the contextual knowledge of the speaker. That is, it provides contextual information about the target item rather than its semantic features.
  - This is the strategy of providing a linguistic context for the target item, leaving the target item blank (e.g. ‘When you sweep the floor, you gather up the dust with (*dust-pan*)’; ‘If the wife fools around with somebody else, she is not *this* to the husband’ (*faithfulness*)).
- Linguistic context
  - This strategy exploits one’s knowledge of target idioms or proverbs to refer the interlocutor to a specific and popular context where the target item is used (e.g. ‘It comes before a fall’ (*pride*); ‘It gets you nowhere’ (*flattery*)).
- Use of L2 idioms and proverbs
  - The speaker attempts to translate an L1 idiom or proverb into the target language (e.g. ‘Some say, it’s written on your forehead’ (*fate*); ‘When somebody is so good—the heart is so clean’ (*honesty*). (In Farsi,
- Use of L2 idioms and proverbs
- Transliteration of L1 idioms and Proverbs

- Idiomatic transfer

a 'clean-hearted' person' refers to an honest person.) This strategy involves reference to some semantic or syntactic feature of an L1 idiom, as opposed to its actual translation, assuming that it will work the same way in the target language (e.g. 'I take an examination and I fail, O.K.?' and one of my adjectives has been 'broken' (to break one's *pride*) 'You say, O.K. 'good luck'. What's another word for 'good luck'? (*success*). (The subject has considered Persian 'be successful' as a synonym for its corresponding expression in English, 'good luck').

### 3. Conceptual approach

The *conceptual approach* exploits the speaker's knowledge of the world and of particular situations. This knowledge may be biased or influenced by the speaker's social and/or cultural background.

- Demonstration

This is the strategy of creating a concrete context that reflects the target concept (e.g. 'Suggest that you are a teacher and I am a student; and I didn't take the —for—pass and I fail; and I come and say something, for example, you teach very well, you are a good man and—what's the name of my action?' (*flattery*)).

- Exemplification

This is the strategy of reference to examples, such as certain people, occasions, or real events, that correspond to the target concept (e.g. 'You may use it in camping' (*lantern*); 'A soldier in a war definitely needs it' (*courage*); 'The servants especially do, for example, to their masters' (*flattery*)).

- Metonymy

The concept is represented through a prototype member of that concept which may or may not be shared by different cultures and speech communities (e.g. 'It's symbolized by a dog' (*faithfulness*) 'peacock' (*pride*)).

### 4. Mime

- Replacing verbal output

This non-verbal refers to the use of meaningful gestures in communicating the target item.

- Accompanying verbal output

This non-linguistic is used by the speaker to substitute for a linguistic output (e.g. 'It's this size' (*pomegranate*); 'You always think are higher than me and you look me like this' (mime

In adopting this para-linguistic strategy, the speaker uses a meaningful gesture to accompany his or her verbal output (e.g. 'It goes up and down' ((mime for the movement) for '*seesaw*'; 'This fruit have a shape like earth' (mime for a round shape) for '*pomegranate*')).

According to Paribakht's (1985) CS taxonomies, communicative approaches can be classified into four main approaches: linguistic approach, contextual approach, conceptual approach, and mime approach. The linguistic

approach is used to cope with the semantic features of the target language. The contextual approach is employed based on the speaker's contextual knowledge rather than on the semantic features. The conceptual approach is related to the speaker's world knowledge and social and cultural background. The mime approach refers to non-verbal gestures that are used to communicate meaningfully.

#### 2.5.4.7 Communication Strategy (Compensatory Strategies)

##### Classification by Poulisse (1987)

In 1984, Poulisse worked under the Nijmegen group (Poulisse, Bongaerts, and Kellerman). The Nijmegen group explored and considered the compensatory strategies as communication strategies. Poulisse's taxonomy was proposed in 1987 as follows:

##### 1. Conceptual strategies

- Analytic  
Decomposing the concept into its criteria features and referring to it by means of these features, either by listing (some of) them or by using the word for a related concept which share some of the criteria features (e.g. 'It's green, you eat it with potatoes, and Popeye eats it' for '*spinach*').
- Holistic  
Referring to a related concept (e.g. '*vegetables*' for '*peas*', '*hammer*' for '*tool*', or '*table*' for '*desk*').

##### 2. Linguistic/code strategies

- Morphological creativity  
Using L2 rules of morphological derivation to create (what the learner assumes to be) comprehensible L2 lexis (e.g. '*appliances*' for '*letter of application*', '*representator*' for '*representative*', or '*shameley*' for '*shameful*').
- Transfer  
Transferring words or phrases from L1 to L2 when the two languages are closely related (e.g. '*middle*' for '*waist*' (in Dutch; middle), or '*go by tennis club*' for '*join the tennis club*' (in Dutch; bij tennis gaan).

Poulisse's (1987) taxonomy consists of two main categories: conceptual strategies and linguistic/code strategies. Conceptual strategies are divided into two types: analytic strategies and holistic strategies. Analytic strategies are used

to convey the intended concept by talking about its criterial properties while the holistic strategies are used when a learner refers to the concept related word which shares characteristics with the intended concept. Linguistic/code strategies are classified into two types: morphological creativity strategies and transfer strategies. Morphological creativity strategies are employed to create a new L2 term based on L2 grammatical rules. It is considered that a morphological creativity strategy is being used. Transfer strategies, namely, literal translation, code-switching, and foreignizing are used to exploit the similarities between languages.

#### 2.5.4.8 Communication Strategy Classification by Willems (1987)

Willems (1987) selected and followed communication strategies proposed by a few scholars on taxonomies of CS (e.g. Tarone et al., 1976; Færch and Kasper, 1983c; and Paribakht, 1985). As a result, Willem's classification includes:

##### 1. Reduction strategies

- Formal reduction
  - Phonological  
Avoidance of words containing 'difficult' segments or clusters of segments.
  - Morphological  
Avoidance of talking about yesterday to avoid past tense forms.
  - Syntactic  
Avoidance of speaking about what might happen for fear of using condition
  - Lexical  
Avoidance of certain topics because the necessary vocabulary is lacking.
- Functional reduction
  - Message abandonment  
(e.g. 'Oh, I can't say this, let's talk about something else.')
  - Meaning replacement  
Saying almost what you want to say; saying something less politely than you would in your L1 ('Modality reduction').
  - Topic avoidance  
Saying nothing at all.

##### 2. Achievement strategies

- Paralinguistic strategies  
The use of mimetic gestures, facial expression etc. to replace speech.
- Interlingual strategies  
A native language word or phrase is used with a native language pronunciation (e.g. 'Please Sir, have you a KRIJTJE (Dutch)' for 'piece of chalk').

- Literal translation
 

A literal translation from L1 to L2 of lexical items, idioms or compound words (e.g. 'nighttable' (for German 'nachtisch' = 'bedside table')); 'greens' (for 'vegetables' from Dutch 'groente'); 'Je suis pardon' for 'I am sorry'; or 'cool-box' for 'refrigerator' (from Dutch 'koelkast').
- Foreigning
 

Using a word or phrase from the L1 with L2 pronunciation (e.g. /knælə/ form Danish 'knallert' for 'moped').
- Intralingual strategies
  - Approximation (generalization)
 

The use of an L2 word which shares essential semantic features with the target word (e.g. 'bird' for 'duck', 'flower' for 'rose', or 'lorry' for 'van').
  - Word coinage
 

An L2 word is made up on basis of supposed rule (e.g. 'intonate' for 'intonation', 'inonedd' for 'blooded')
  - Paraphrase
    - Description
    - Circumlocution

a) Physical properties: color, size, spatial dimensions.  
 b) Specific features (e.g. 'It has a motor...').  
 c) Functional features (e.g. 'It is used in ...').  
 d) Locational features (e.g. 'You find it in a factory.').  
 e) Temporal features (e.g. 'It's between summer and autumn.').
  - Exemplification
 

Subordinate terms used instead of unavailable superordinate terms (e.g. trade name 'Puch' for 'moped').
  - Smurfing
 

The use of empty or meaning less words to fill gaps in vocabulary command (e.g. 'thing', 'whatsit', or 'what-do-you-call it').
  - Self-repair (restructuring)
 

Setting up a new speech-plan when the original one fails.
  - Appeal for assistance
    - Explicit
 

(e.g. 'What'd you call?'; 'Speak more slowly'; 'I am a foreign'; or 'Do you understand?').  
 Pause, intonation, drawl, repetition, or 'I don't know what to call this' and the like.
    - Implicit
 

To make sure something is correctly understood by questions (e.g. 'Do I hear you say...?'; or 'Are you saying that ....?').  
 (e.g. 'I am sorry, there must be some misunderstanding. Does ... mean...? I took it to mean... I hope you don't mind my asking...')
    - Checking questions
  - Initiating repair
 

(e.g. 'I am sorry, there must be some misunderstanding. Does ... mean...? I took it to mean... I hope you don't mind my asking...')
  - Smurfing
 

The use of empty or meaning less words to fill gaps in vocabulary command (e.g. 'thing', 'whatsit', or 'what-do-you-call it').
  - Self-repair (restructuring)
 

Setting up a new speech-plan when the original one fails.
  - Appeal for assistance
    - Explicit
 

(e.g. 'What'd you call?'; 'Speak more slowly'; 'I am a foreign'; or 'Do you understand?').  
 Pause, intonation, drawl, repetition, or 'I don't know what to call this' and the like.
    - Implicit



- Word-coinage  
Creating a non-existing L2 word based on a supposed rule (e.g. ‘vegetarianist’ for ‘vegetarian’).
- Use of non-linguistic means  
Mime, gesture, facial expression, or sound imitation.
- Literal translation  
Translating literally a lexical item, an idiom, a compound word or structure from L1 to L2.
- Foreignizing  
Using a L1 word by adjusting it to L2 phonologically (i.e., with a L2 pronunciation) and/or morphologically (e.g. adding to it a L2 suffix).
- Code switching  
Using a L1 word with L1 pronunciation or a L3 word with L3 pronunciation in L2.
- Appeal for help  
Turning to the conversation partner for help either directly (e.g. ‘What do you call ...?’), or indirectly (e.g. rising intonation, pause, eye contact, puzzled expression).

### 3. Stalling or time-gaining strategies

- Use of fillers/hesitation devices  
Using filling words or gambits to fill pauses and to gain time to think (e.g. ‘well’, ‘now let me see’, or ‘as a matter of fact’).

According to Dörnyei’s (1995) classification, there are three main types of communication strategies: avoidance or reduction strategies, achievement or compensatory strategies, and stalling or time-gaining strategies. Speakers commonly employ avoidance or reduction strategies when they encounter communication difficulties. Avoidance strategies can be further subdivided into two types: message abandonment and topic avoidance. Achievement or compensatory strategies are used to help learners to reach the original goal, for example, circumlocution, approximation, word-coinage, use of nonlinguistic means, and appeal for help. Noticeably, use of fillers/hesitation devices under stalling or time-gaining strategies is another strategy that enables the speaker to gain time to think and keep a conversation going.

### 2.5.4.10 Communication Strategy Classification by Dörnyei and Scott (1997)

Dörnyei and Scott (1997) have developed their taxonomy of communication strategies by reviewing and adopting the taxonomies based on Tarone (1977), Færch and Kasper (1983b), Bialystok (1983, 1990), Paribakht (1985), Willems (1987), Poulisse (1987, 1993), and Dörnyei (1995) and came up with the following classification.

#### 1. Direct strategies

- Message abandonment  
Leaving a message unfinished because of some language difficulty (e.g. *'It is a person er... who is responsible for a house, for the block of house... I don't know...[laughter]'*).
- Message reduction (topic avoidance)  
Reducing the message by avoiding certain language structures or topics considered problematic language wise or by leaving out some intended elements for a lack of linguistic resources. (e.g. [Retrospective comment by the speaker;] I was looking for *'satisfied with a good job, pleasantly tired,'* and so on but instead I accepted less).
- Message replacement  
Substituting the original message with a new one because of not feeling capable of executing it (e.g. [Retrospective comment after saying that the pipe was broken 'in the middle' instead of 'the screw thread was broken':] I didn't know "screw thread" and well, I had to say something.).
- Message replacement  
Exemplifying, illustrating or describing the properties of the target object or action (e.g. *'it becomes water'* instead of *'melt'*).
- Circumlocution (paraphrase)  
Using a single alternative lexical item, such as a superordinate or a related term, which shares semantic features with the target word or structure. (e.g. *'plate'* instead of *'bowl'*).
- Approximation  
Extending a general, "empty" lexical item to contexts where specific words are lacking (e.g. the overuse of *'thing'*, *'stuff'*, *'make'*, *'do'*, as well as words like *'thingie'*, *'what-do-you-call it'*; or *'I can't work until you repair my ... thing'*).
- Use of all-purpose words  
Creating a non-existing L2 word by applying a supposed L2 rule to an existing L2 word (e.g. [Retropective comment after using *'dejunktion'* and *'unjunktion'* for *'street clearing'*:] I think I approached it in a very scientific way: from 'junk' I formed a noun and I tried to add the negative prefix 'de-'; to 'unjunk' is to 'clear the junk' and 'unjunktion' is 'street clearing'.
- Word coinage

- Restructuring  
Abandoning the execution of a verbal plan because of language difficulties, leaving the utterance unfinished, and communicating the intended message according to an alternative plan (e.g. *'On Mickey's face we can see the ...so he's wondering'*).
- Literal translation (transfer)  
Translating literally a lexical item, an idiom, a compound word or structure from L1/L3 to L2 (e.g. *'I'd made a big fault [translated from French]'*).
- Foreignizing  
Using a L1/L3 by adjusting it to L2 phonology (i.e., with a L2 pronunciation) and/or morphology. (e.g. *'reparate'* for *'repair'* [adjusting the German word *'reparieren'*]).
- Code switching (language switch)  
Including L1/L3 words with L1/L3 pronunciation in L2 speech; this may involve stretches of discourse ranging from single words to whole chunks and even complete turns (e.g. using the Latin *'ferrum'* for *'iron'*).
- Using similar-sounding words  
Compensating for a lexical item whose form the speaker is unsure of with a word (either existing or non-existing) which sounds more or less like the target item (e.g. [Retrospective comment explaining why the speaker used *'cap'* instead of *'pan'*;] *because it was similar to the word which I wanted to say: "pan"*).
- Mumbling  
Swallowing or muttering inaudibly a word (or part of a word) whose correct form the speaker is uncertain about (e.g. *uh well Mickey Mouse looks surprise or sort of XXX* [the 'sort of marker indicates that the unintelligible part is not just a mere recording failure but a strategy]).
- Mumbling
- Omission  
Leaving a gap when not knowing a word and carrying on as if it had been said (e.g. *then... er... the sun is is ... hu sun is.. and the Mickey Mouse...*[Retrospective comment: *I didn't know what 'shine was.*]).
- Retrieval  
In an attempt to retrieve a lexical item saying a series of incomplete or wrong forms or structures before reaching the optimal form.
- Overexplicitness (waffling)  
Using more words to achieve a particular communicative goal than what is considered normal in similar L1 situations.
- Mime (nonlinguistic/paralinguistic strategies)  
Describing whole concepts nonverbally, or accompanying a verbal strategy with a visual illustration (e.g. [Retrospective comment;] *I was miming here, to put it out in front of the house, because I couldn't remember the word*).
- Own-performance problem-related strategies
  - Self-rephrasing  
Repeating a term, but not quite as it is, but by adding something or using paraphrase. *I don't know the material...what it's made of...*
  - Self-repair  
Making self-initiated corrections in one's own speech (e.g. *then the sun shines and the weather get be... gets better*).

- Other-performance problem-related strategies
  - Other-repair

Correcting something in the interlocutor's speech.

Speaker: ... *because our tip went wrong...* [...]

Interlocutor: *Oh, you mean the tap.*

Speaker: *Tap, tap...*

## 2. Indirect strategies

- Processing time-related strategies
  - Use of fillers

Using gambits to fill pauses, to stall, and to gain time in order to keep the communication channel open and maintain discourse at times of difficulty. Examples range from very short structures such as *well; you know; actually; okay*, to longer phrases such as *this is rather difficult to explain; well, actually, it's a good question.*

- Processing time-related strategies
  - Use of fillers

### - Repetition

#### ➤ Self-repetition

Repeating a word or a string of words immediately after they were said. [Retrospective comment:] *I wanted to say that it was made of concrete but I didn't know 'concrete' and this is why "which was made, which was made" was said twice.*

#### ➤ Other-repetition

Repeating something the interlocutor said to gain time. Interlocutor: *And could you tell me the diameter of the pipe? The diameter.*

Speaker: *The diameter? It's about er... Maybe er... five centimeters.*

- Own-performance problem-related strategies
  - Verbal strategy markers

Using verbal marking phrases before or after a strategy to signal that the word or structure does not carry the intended meaning perfectly in the L2 code.

e.g.: (strategy markers in bold): (a) marking a circumlocution: ***On the next picture...** I don't really know what's it called in English... *it's uh this kind of bird that... that can be found in a clock that strikes out or [laughs] coes out when the clock strikes;* (b) marking approximations: *it's some er... it's some kind of er... paper;* (c) marking foreignizing: *... a panel [with an English accent], I don't know whether there's a name in English or not [laughter], just it's a panel flat;* (d) marking literal translation: *it's er... a smaller medium flat and in, we call them blockhouse, but it's not it's not made of blocks;* (e) marking code switching: *the bird from the clocks comes out and says "kakukk" or I don't know what; see also the example for message abandonment**

- Own-performance problem-related strategies
  - Feigning understanding

Making an attempt to carry on the conversation in spite of not understanding something by pretending to understand

Interlocutor: *Do you have the rubber washer?*

Speaker: *The rubber washer? .... No I don't.*

[Retrospective comment: I didn't know the meaning of the word, and finally I managed to say I had no such thing.]

### 3. Interactional strategies

- Resource deficit-related strategies
  - Appeal for help
    - Direct appeal for help
    - Indirect appeal for help

Turning to the interlocutor for assistance by asking an explicit question concerning a gap in one's L2 knowledge. *It's a kind of old clock so when it strikes er ... I don't know, one, two, or three 'clock then a bird is coming out. What's the name?*

Trying to elicit help from the interlocutor indirectly by expressing lack of a needed L2 item either verbally or nonverbally. *I don't know the name...* [rising intonation, pause, eye contact]

- Own-performance problem-related strategies
  - Comprehension check
  - Own-accuracy check
  - Own-accuracy check

Asking questions to check that the interlocutor can follow you. *And what is the diameter of the pipe? The diameter. Do you know what the diameter is?*

Checking that what you said was correct by asking a concrete question or repeating a word with a question intonation. *I can see a huge snow... snowman? Snowman in the garden.*

- Other-performance problem-related strategies
  - Asking for repetition

Requesting repetition when not hearing or understanding something properly. *Pardon? What?*

- Asking for clarification

Requesting explanation of an unfamiliar meaning structure. *What do you mean?, You saw what?* Also 'question repeats,' that is echoing a word or a structure with a question intonation.

- Asking for confirmation

Requesting confirmation that one heard or understood something correctly. Repeating the trigger in a 'question repeat' or asking a full question, such as *You said...? You mean...?, Do you mean...?*

- Guessing

Guessing is similar to a confirmation request but the latter implies a greater degree of certainty regarding the key word, whereas guessing involves real indecision.

- Expressing non-understanding

Expressing that one did not understand something properly either verbally or nonverbally.

Interlocutor: *What is the diameter of the pipe?*

Speaker: *The diameter?*

Interlocutor: *The diameter.*

Speaker: *I don't know this thing.*

Interlocutor: *How wide is the pipe?*

Also, puzzled facial expressions, frowns and various types of mime and gestures.

- Interpretive summary

Extended paraphrase of the interlocutor's message to check that the speaker has understood correctly. *So the pipe is broken, basically, and you don't know what to do with it, right?*

## - Responses

- Response: repeat Repeating the original trigger or the suggested corrected form (after an other-repair).
- Response: repair Providing other-initiated self-repair.  
Speaker: *The water was not able to get up and I...*  
Interlocutor: *Get up? Where?*  
Speaker: *Get down.*
- Response: repair Rephrasing the trigger.  
Interlocutor: *And do you happen to know if you have the rubber washer?*  
Speaker: *Pardon?*  
Interlocutor: *The rubber washer... it's the thing which is in the pipe.*
- Response: expand Putting the problem word/issue into a larger context. Interlocutor: *Do you know maybe er what the diameter of the pipe is?*  
Speaker: *Pardon?*  
Interlocutor: *Diameter, this is er maybe you learnt mathematics and you sign er with this part of things.*
- Response: confirm Confirming what the interlocutor has said or suggested.  
Interlocutor: *Uh, you mean under the sink, the pipe? For the...*  
Speaker: *Yes. Yes.*
- Response: reject Rejecting what the interlocutor has said or suggested without offering an alternative solution.

Three main categories of CSs taxonomy are proposed by Dörnyei and Scott's (1997). Their classification is similar to other scholars; however, they regroup strategies as three groups with different names of categories. They are direct strategies, interactional strategies, and indirect strategies. Direct strategies include twenty strategies which are both verbal and non-verbal strategies (e.g. circumlocution and mime, mumbling, and so on.). Such strategies involve all alternative, manageable, and self-contained means to convey the meaning. Meanwhile, indirect strategies, for example, use of fillers, feigning to understand, and hedging to convey the meaning as well as to prevent communication breakdowns. It is noticeable that the cooperation of the speaker and the interlocutor are found in the interactional strategies: appealing for help, or requesting and providing for

clarification, for example. Their classification is similar to other scholars; some new CSs are found such as use of similar-sounding word, mumbling, omission, feigning understanding, and asking for repetition.

#### **2.5.4.11 Communication Strategy Classification by Nakatani(2006)**

Nakatani (2006) has attempted and developed a questionnaire named the Oral Communication Strategy Inventory (OCSI). His research project aimed to explore the use of CSs by Japanese students. There were three phases in his study. In phase 1, eighty Japanese students were required to fill out an open-ended questionnaire in order to identify general use of CSs in a conversation. In phase 2, four hundred Japanese students were selected in a factor analysis so as to select appropriate items. In the last phase, the final factor analysis and the construction of a self-reported questionnaire were administered to four hundred Japanese students.

The resulting OCSI are:

##### **Strategies for coping with speaking problems**

###### ***Category 1: Social affective strategies***

- Trying to relax when one feels anxious
- Trying to enjoy the conversation
- Trying to give a good impression to the listener
- Actively encouraging oneself to express what one wants to say
- Not minding taking risks even though one might make mistakes
- Trying to use fillers when one cannot think of what to say

###### ***Category 2: Fluency-oriented strategies***

- Paying attention to one's rhythm and intonation
- Paying attention to the conversation flow
- Paying attention to one's pronunciation
- Changing the way of saying things according to the context
- Taking time to express what one wants to say
- Trying to speak clearly and loudly to make oneself heard

###### ***Category 3: Negotiation for meaning while speaking***

- Making comprehension checks to ensure the listener understands what one wants to say
- Repeating what one wants to say until the listener understands
- While speaking, paying attention to the listener's reaction to one's speech
- Giving examples if the listener doesn't understand what one is saying

###### ***Category 4: Accuracy-oriented strategies***

- Paying attention to grammar and word order during conversation
- Noticing oneself using an expression which fits a rule that has been learned
- Correcting oneself when noticing that one has made a mistake
- Trying to emphasize the subject and verb of the sentence
- Trying to talk like a native speaker

**Category 5: Message reduction and alteration strategies**

- Reducing the message and using simple expressions
- Using familiar words
- Replacing the original message with another message because for feeling incapable of executing one's original intent

**Category 6: Nonverbal strategies while speaking**

- Trying to make eye-contact when talking
- Using gestures and facial expressions if one can't communicate how to express oneself

**Category 7: Message abandonment strategies**

- Leaving a message unfinished because of some language difficulty
- Asking other people to help when one can't communicate well
- Giving up when one can't make oneself understood
- Abandoning the execution of a verbal plan and just saying some words when one doesn't know what to say

**Category 8: Attempt to think in English strategies**

- Thinking first of a sentence one already knows in English and then trying to change it to fit the situation
- Thinking first of what one wants to say in one's native language and then constructing the English sentence

**Strategies for dealing with listening problems****Category 1: Negotiation for meaning while listening**

- Asking for repetition when one can't understand what the speaker has said
- Making a clarification request when one is not sure what the speaker has said
- Asking the speaker to use easy words when one has difficulties in comprehension
- Asking the speaker to slow down when one can't understand what the speaker has said
- Making clear to the speaker what one hasn't been able to understand

**Category 2: Fluency-maintaining strategies**

- Paying attention to the speaker's rhythm and intonation
- Sending continuation signals to show one's understanding in order to avoid communication gaps
- Using circumlocution to react the speaker's utterance when one doesn't understand his/her intention well
- Asking the speaker to give an example when one is not sure what he/she said
- Paying attention to the speaker's pronunciation

**Category 3: Scanning strategies**

- Paying attention to the subject and verb of the sentence when one listens
- Especially paying attention to the interrogative when listening to WH-questions
- Paying attention to the first part of the sentence and guessing the speaker's intention
- Trying to catch the speaker's main point.

**Category 4: Getting the gist strategies**

- Not minding if one can't understand every single detail
- Anticipating what the speaker is going to say based on the context
- Guessing the speaker's intention based on what he/she has said so far.
- Trying to respond to the speaker even when one doesn't understand him/her perfectly

**Category 5: Nonverbal strategies while listening**

- Using gestures when having difficulties in understanding
- Paying attention to the speaker's eye contact, facial expression and gestures

**Category 6: Less active listener strategies**

- Trying to translate into native language little by little to understand what the speaker has said
- Only focusing on familiar expressions

**Category 7: Word-oriented strategies**

- Paying attention to the words which the speaker slows down or emphasizes
- Guessing the speaker's intention by picking up familiar words
- Trying to catch every word that the speaker uses
- Paying attention to the first word to judge whether it is an interrogative sentence or not

According to the OCSI designed by Nakatani (2006), the CS taxonomy consists of two main categories: 1) strategies for coping with speaking problems and 2) strategies for dealing with listening problems. The former's purposes are to communicate smoothly, maintain the interaction, avoid communication breakdown, or give up attempts to communicate, or leave the message unfinished. Meanwhile, the main purpose of the latter is to maintain the conversational goal with speaker by sending continuation signal to show understanding so as to avoid conversation gaps; repeating what the speaker said or making clarification requests for understanding the speakers' intentions; and paying attention to speaker's eye contact, facial expression and gestures, for example.

#### 2.5.4.12 Communication Strategy Classification by Mariani (2010)

Mariani (2010) proposed five main categories of CSs: meaning expression strategies, meaning negotiation strategies, conversation management strategies, par- and extra- linguistic strategies, and (intercultural) interaction-monitoring strategies. The taxonomy and examples of CSs proposed by Mariani (2010, pp. 34-38) are shown as follows:

##### A. Meaning expression strategies

- |   |  |
|---|--|
| 1. Using an all-purpose word  | <i>Thing, stuff, object, machine..., or person, human being, animal..., or do, make...</i>   |
| 2. Using more general word (hyperonym/superordinate) instead of the specific one (hyponym)                | <i>'flower' instead of 'geranium', or 'animal' instead of 'pet'</i>  |
| 3. Using a synonym or an antonym (opposite of a word)   | <i>'Very small' instead of 'tidy', 'not deep' instead of 'shallow'; 'worried' 'anxious' instead of 'concern'</i>   |
| 4. Using examples instead of the category   | <i>'shirts', 'jeans, skirt, jackets...' instead of 'clothing'</i>  |
| 5. Using definitions or description   |  |
| - general words + relative clause   | <i>'It's the person who cuts your hair' instead of 'hairdresser'<br/>'It's a thing which...'<br/>'It's a machine that...'<br/>'It's when.../It's where...'</i> |
| - phrases instead of specific adjectives describing qualities, e.g. shape, size, color, texture, material | <i>'in the shape of ...'; 'the size of...'; 'the color of ...'; 'made of ...'</i>  |

- structure
- purpose of function
- context or situation

## 6. Using approximations

## 7. Paraphrasing

8. Self-correcting, rephrasing, repairing incorrect and inappropriate utterances or when spotting a misunderstanding

**B. Meaning negotiation strategies**

## 9. Asking for help

- Telling one's interlocutor that one cannot say or understand something

## ➤ Directly

## ➤ Indirectly

- Asking one's interlocutor to

- Repeat
- Slow down, spell or write something
- Say something in the L2

- Confirm that one has used the correct or appropriate language
- Confirm that one has been understood

- Repeating, summarizing, paraphrasing what one has heard and asking one's interlocutor to confirm

- Guessing meaning and asking for confirmation

10. Giving help, by doing what the 'helping' interlocutor does in asking for help strategies., e.g. trying to 'adjust' to one's partner language level by speaking slowly, repeating, giving examples, asking if he/she has understood...

**C. conversation management strategies**

## 11. Opening and closing a conversation

## 12. Trying to keep conversation by showing interest and encouraging one's interlocutor to talk by, e.g.

- Asking questions: Yes/No type; 'open' questions; 'question tags'
- 'Reversing' a question
- Adding comments and exclamations
- Sympathizing
- Repeating or rephrasing what the

*'it has ... it consist of ... (the) part of ...'*  
*'used for ...', 'used to ...'; 'it opens a door';*  
*a doctor uses it ...'; 'you can ... with it'*  
*'You use it if ...'; 'in a place where...'; 'at the time when...'*

*'It's like/similar to a very tall building' instead of*  
*'skyscraper'; 'a kind of ...'; 'a sort of ...'*

*'I didn't expect her call. I was so surprised.'*  
 Instead of *'She called out of the blue.'*

*'It's at the front... no, at the back of the room.*  
*Sorry I'll try to say that again.'*

A: Put it in the oven.

B: *Put it in the ...?/ Put it where?/ Sorry, I don't understand that/ Sorry I can't follow you*

Using a raising intonation, using eye contact or facial expression pausing...

*'Can you say that again please?'; 'Pardon?'*

*'Can you speak slowly/ spell that/ write that down for me, please?'*

*'What's the word for...?'; 'I don't know the English word.'; 'In (German) we say ...'; 'How do you pronounce ...?'; 'You do call it when ...'*

*'Is it correct?'; 'I want to replicate the experiment... replicate, yes?'*

*'Did you get that?'*

*'Did you say ...?'; 'So you're saying that ... is that right?'*

*'Is it a dishwasher? Yes?'*

*'Lovely day isn't it?'; 'Just look at the time! I must be off now!'*

*'Oh, dear. Were you scared?'; 'So what did you do then?'; 'Did you?'*

*'But what about you?'; 'What do you think of ...?'*

*'That's interesting...'; 'Really?'; 'Gosh, yes!';*

*'You must be joking'; 'That's really good news!'*

*'Oh, what a pity!'; 'That's too bad!'; 'How awful!'; 'I'm ever so sorry'; 'what a nuisance!'*

A: So I came back immediately.

interlocutor has just said

- 'Feigning' to understand

13. Managing turn-taking

- Spotting the appropriate moment for signaling one wants to speak
- Getting attention, interrupting

- Holding one's turn, e.g. by talking to oneself, repeating key words in one's interlocutor's utterance (see also 'using tactics to 'gain time')

14. Avoiding or changing a topic, going back to the original topic

15. Using tactics to 'gain time' and keep the conversation channel open

- Using pauses, remaining silent
- Umming', 'erring', mumbling
- Using 'fillers' 'chunks', hesitations devices, conversational gambits

- 'Waffling' (using more words than what should be considered normal in the context)

- Repeating oneself

- Repeating one's interlocutor's words

**D. Para- and extra-linguistic strategies**

16. Using intonation patterns, as in 9.; using sounds, as in 15.

17. Using non-verbal language

- Mime, gestures, body movements, e.g. pointing at things
- Facial expressing, eye contact
- Smiling, laughing
- Use of objects, drawing, etc.

18. Asking one's interlocutor to correct one if necessary or to comment on what one has said

19. Noticing the words that the others use and remember to use them

20. Checking the reaction of other people when deciding to use new words and expression

21. Checking if one's interpretation is correct

22. Apologizing if one has said or done something inappropriate and trying to correct (cultural) misunderstandings

B: *Immediately? You mean you didn't wait for Charlie?*

A: So I pulled up at the kerb.

B: *Mmm ... yes ...*

A: and pulled out the ignition key ...

*'Er ... if I just can add something there ...'*

*'Sorry (to interrupt), but ...'; 'Just a minute ...'; 'Excuse me could you explain ...'; 'Can/May I ask you something?'*

A: What is your hobby?

B: What's my hobby? Well, ... let's see...

*'By the way, ...'; 'Incidentally, before I forget ...';*

*'that reminds me of ...'; 'Going back to ...';*

*'As I was saying before ...'; 'Yes, well, anyway..'*

*'Mmm...'; 'Err ...'; 'Aha ...'*

*'Well ... I see ... If you know what I mean ... and things like that ... that sort of things ... as a matter of fact ... well, actually, that's' a very interesting question'*

*'So I stopped at the gate ... stopped at the gate and ...'*

A: Have you got a fitted carpet at home?

B: *Fitted carpet ... Fitted carpet ...*

*'One like that'; 'I'd like this, please.'*

*'Would you say that in this case?'; 'Did I use the right word?'*

*'Does that mean that ...?'; 'So it means that ... Am I right?'; 'I understand ... Is it so?'*

*'I'm sorry I didn't know...'; 'I hope you don't mind if I have ...'; 'I'm sorry if I asked you a personal question.'; 'I think there's been a misunderstanding. Can you tell me ...?'; 'I think I upset you, but I'm not sure why.'*

23. Dealing with uncertainty as to the acceptable behavior, e.g. by

- Asking one's interlocutor to clarify or explain her/his culture

'How is it done in your country?'; 'Is that what you usually do?'; 'I'd like to ask you a question, but I'm not sure if it too personal'; 'What does it mean when...?'

- Referring to what is customary in one's own country

'In my country we ...'

- Asking one's interlocutor what one should say/do or should have said/done

'Is it all right if I ...?'; 'How should I do this?'; 'At what time should I be there?'; 'What would you say in this situation?'; 'What should I have done?'

According to Mariani's (2010) classification, five main categories are presented. First, meaning expression strategies (e.g. using examples, using synonym or antonym, using approximations, paraphrasing, etc.) are used to express the intended meaning in verbal language when the speaker is having problems to conveying the meaning. Second, meaning negotiation strategies are employed to request for assistance or for confirmation in case the speaker encounters communication difficulties in understanding the intended message. Third, conversation management strategies (e.g. opening and closing a conversation, getting attention or interruption, using tactics to gain time and keep the conversation channel open, etc.) are related to strategies that enable the speaker to keep the conversation channel open or to signal the end of the conversation. The fourth category in Mariani's (2010) taxonomy is para- and extra-linguistic strategies. They are non-verbal language such as mime, gestures, body movements, facial expressing, eye contact, smiling, laughing, and so on. Such strategies are employed to keep the conversation going.

Finally, the aspect of intercultural part is taken into account in Mariani's (2010) classification. This category is named (intercultural) interaction-monitoring strategies. For example, apologizing if one has said or done something

inappropriate and trying to correct (cultural) misunderstanding, asking one's interlocutor to clarify or explain her/his culture, etc. These strategies are used not only to improve the mutual understanding and appropriateness, but also accuracy of the message, like checking if one's interpretation is correct.

#### **2.5.4.13 Communication Strategy Classification by Somsai and Intaraprasert (2011)**

Recently, Somsai and Intaraprasert (2011) carried out an investigation on strategies for coping with face-to-face oral communication breakdowns by forty-eight Thai university students. Based on the data obtained through one-on-one semi-structured interview, the topology was derived as follows:

##### **Category 1: Continuous interaction strategies for conveying a message to the interlocutor**

- Switching some unknown words or phrases into Thai
- Correcting his/her own pronunciation, grammar and lexical mistakes
- Using familiar words, phrases, or sentences
- Using circumlocution
- Using non-verbal expressions such as mime, gestures, and facial expressions
- Referring to objects or materials
- Drawing a picture
- Repeating words phrases, or sentences a few times
- Spelling or writing out the intended words, phrases, or sentences
- Using fillers
- Appealing for assistance from the interlocutor
- Making use of expressions which have been previously learnt
- Making use of expressions found in some sources of media (e.g. movies, songs, or T.V.)
- Using synonym or antonym
- Making up a new word in order to communicate a desired concept (word-coinage)
- Translating literally from Thai into English

##### **Category 2: Discontinuous interaction strategies for conveying a message to the interlocutor**

- Keeping quiet while thinking about how to get a message across to the interlocutor
- Speaking more slowly to gain time to think
- Talking about something else to gain time to think
- Appealing or assistance from other people around
- Making a phone call to another person for assistance
- Referring to a dictionary, a book, or another type of document
- Thinking in Thai before speaking

##### **Category 3: Strategies for understanding the message**

- Trying to catch the interlocutor's main point
- Noticing the interlocutor's gestures and facial expression
- Asking the interlocutor for a repetition
- Asking the interlocutor to slow down
- Appealing for assistance from other people around to clarify the interlocutor's message
- Asking the interlocutor to simplify the language

- Making clear to the interlocutor when one cannot perfectly catch the message
- Paying attention to the first part of the sentence
- Paying attention to the interlocutor's intonation
- Asking the interlocutor to give an example
- Repeating what the interlocutor has said softly and trying to translate into Thai
- Guessing the meaning of what the interlocutor has said

**Category 4: Strategies for maintaining the conversation**

- Feeling all right about one's wrong pronunciation
- Trying to enjoy the conversation
- Feeling all right for taking risks while speaking
- Paying little attention to grammar and structure
- Feeling all right if the conversation does not go smoothly by keeping speaking
- Preparing the message by trying to anticipate what the interlocutor is going to say based on the context
- Speaking slowly to keep the conversation going smoothly
- Responding to the interlocutor despite an imperfect understanding of the message
- Trying to relax when one feels anxious

According to Somsai and Intaraprasert (2011), the communication strategies are categorized into four categories: 1) continuous interaction strategies for conveying a message to the interlocutor; 2) discontinuous interaction strategies for conveying a message to the interlocutor; 3) strategies for understanding the message; and 4) strategies for maintaining the conversation. With respect to category 1, in order to overcome communication problems without pausing the conversation, language learners can employ CSs, for instance, using familiar words or sentences, switching some unknown words or phrases into Thai, or using circumlocution. For category 2, CSs are employed to seek a way to get the intended message across to the interlocutor by speaking more slowly to gain time to think, talking about something else to gain time to think, or appealing for assistance from other people around, for instance. Besides, under the third main category, such CSs as trying to catch the interlocutor's main point; noticing the interlocutor's gestures and facial expression; and asking the interlocutor for a repetition, are used to understand the message. In terms of category 4, strategies for maintaining the conversation involve attempts to keep the conversation going. Examples of strategies of this category are:

trying to enjoy the conversation; feeling all right for taking risks while speaking; and paying little attention to grammar and structure.

In summary, taxonomies of CSs have been categorized by different researchers based on their criteria, principles of terminology, and categorization. Even though researchers name their categories differently, but those categories have some aspects in common. In terms of aim of strategy use, communication strategies have been considered as strategies for coping with speaking difficulties and strategies for coping with listening difficulties. According to the collecting and reviewing taxonomies of those thirteen classifications above, three main types of CSs have been employed: achievement strategies, avoidance or reduction strategies, and stalling or time-gaining strategies.

In the present investigation, the researcher has made use of CSs suggested by Dörnyei and Scot (1997), Nakatani (2006), Mariani (2010), and Somsai and Intaraprasert (2011). The reason for relying on those classifications has been explained in Chapter 3. The following part is prior researchers' works on CSs, which gave such rich research information and results for enlightening the present study.

## **2.6 Research Works on Communication Strategies**

### **2.6.1 Research Works Conducted in Other Countries**

In this section, past research works have been summarized and discussed in order to get more understanding how different groups of language learners use communication strategies to handle communication breakdowns, to identify outstanding issues for further study, including generating research questions of the present study. A summary of previous research works will be presented based on

focus of study, participants, method of data collection, investigated variable, method of data analysis, and results. The following previous research works on CSs conducted in countries are presented in table 2.1.

**Table 2.1: Research Works on CSs Conducted in Other Countries**

Language Learners	Focus of Study	Investigated Variables	Methods of Data Collection	Methods of Data Analysis
<b>1. Hastrup, K. and Phillipson, R. (1983). Achievement strategies in learner/native speaker interaction</b>				
-8 secondary Danish learners of ESL	- Achievement strategies	- Types of school - Academic goal	-Conversation and video recording of the learners' performance	- Coding - Descriptive statistics
<b>Results:</b> - The distribution of communication strategies varied considerably; appeals were widely used; non-linguistic strategies were common; and the learners in the less academic school context were over dependent on their mother tongue. - L1-based strategies nearly always lead to partial or non-comprehension and IL-based strategies often lead to full comprehension.				
<b>2. Bialystok, E. (1983). Some factors in the selections and implementation of communicative strategies</b>				
- 16 grade 12 students and 14 adult students learning French as foreign language	-L1-based and L2-based strategies	- Language proficiency level	- Cloze test for language proficiency - Communicative task: picture reconstruction	- Coding - Descriptive statistics - Correlation coefficient - Analysis of variance
<b>Results:</b> - The grade 12 regular group and the adult group used significantly more L1-based strategies than did the grade 12 advanced students. - For the adults, there was a significant negative relationship between the cloze text performance and the proportion of L1-based strategies used. - For the students, there was a negative relationship between the cloze test performance and the proportion of L1 based strategies used, but it is not significant.				
<b>3. Paribakht, T. (1985). Strategic competence and language proficiency</b>				
- Two groups of ESL Persian university students and one group of native speakers of English (20 students/each group)	- Overall CS use	- Language proficiency level	- Communication task: concept identification	- Coding - Descriptive statistics

**Table 2.1: Research Works on CSs Conducted in Other Countries (Cont.)**

Language Learners	Focus of Study	Investigated Variables	Methods of Data Collection	Methods of Data Analysis
<p><b>Results:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Linguistic approach, contextual approach, and mime were employed by all three groups. The groups were differed only in the use of a few of their constituent strategies. High proficiency students employed only transliteration of L1 idioms and proverbs for L1-based strategies, whereas the low proficiency students employed two L1-based strategies – idiomatic transfer, and transliteration of L1 idioms and proverbs.</li> <li>- Native speakers used the linguistics approach more frequently and the high-proficiency students than by the low-proficiency students.</li> <li>- No significant inter-group differences were found that the contextual approach produced.</li> <li>- The mime strategies were frequently used by the student groups than by the native speakers.</li> </ul>				
<p><b>4. Huang, X. and Naerssen, V. M. (1987). Learning strategies for oral communication</b></p>				
- 60 Chinese graduating students majoring in English at university level	- Overall CSs use	- Oral proficiency level	- Questionnaire - Interview	- Descriptive statistics - Analysis of variance (T-test)
<p><b>Results:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- The more successful students in oral communication reported employing functional practice strategies more frequently than the less successful students.</li> <li>- Difference between more successful students and less successful students were highly significant for all groups of techniques except attending lectures and watching TV and films.</li> <li>- Significant differences were also found between middle group students and less successful students in speaking with other students, teachers, or native speakers and thinking in English.</li> <li>- No statistically significant difference was found among the three groups when formal practice was examined.</li> <li>- Some students in the successful group commented that one of the basic tricks for improving their oral abilities was to talk a lot and not be afraid of losing face when making mistakes.</li> </ul>				
<p><b>5. Corrales, O. and Call, M. (1989). At a Loss for words: The use of communication strategies to convey lexical meaning</b></p>				
- Spanish speaking adult students learning ESL	- Overall CSs use	- Language proficiency level - Types of tasks - Time 1 (beginning of the term) and Time 2 (five weeks later)	- Two types of communicative tasks: the structured questions and the simulated communication situation - Recording of students' task performance	- Coding - Descriptive statistics - Analysis of variance (ANOVA; post hoc test)
<p><b>Results:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- The unstructured task obtained significantly more transfer strategies from both groups of students.</li> <li>- The advanced group used a greater proportion of task-influenced strategies than the intermediate group at Time1, whereas the intermediate group employed a greater mean proportion of this type of strategy at Time2.</li> <li>- A post hoc analysis shows that students of a language may go through a period of maximum exploitation of task-influenced strategies which peaks and then drop off as they become more proficient in the language.</li> </ul>				

Table 2.1: Research Works on CSs Conducted in Other Countries (Cont.)

Language Learners	Focus of Study	Investigated Variables	Methods of Data Collection	Methods of Data Analysis
<b>6. Bongaerts, T. and Poulisse, N. (1989). Communication strategies in L1 and L2: Same or different?</b>				
- 30 Dutch secondary school pupils and 15 Dutch university students of English (three groups of 15 subjects each according to the number of years they had studied English)	- The use of compensatory strategies	- Types of students	- Types of tasks (a concrete picture description task, a story retell task, and oral interview)	- Coding - Descriptive statistics
<p><b>Results:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- There were no significant differences between the three groups with respect to the time needed for the Dutch version; however, all groups needed significantly more time for the English version. In addition, the university students (group 1) needed significantly less time for the English version than secondary school pupils (group 2 and 3).</li> <li>- In terms of words used, the subjects did not perform differently in the Dutch and English versions of the task.</li> <li>- The referential behavior of the subjects in both task versions can be described in terms of choices between two main strategies: subjects set out to describe the shapes from a holistic or a segmental perspective. In Dutch and English task version, subjects exhibited a strong preference for holistic perspectives.</li> </ul>				
<b>7. Si-Qing, C. (1990). A study of Communication Strategies in Interlanguage Production by Chinese EFL learners</b>				
- 12 Chinese university students learning EFL	- Overall CSs use	- Language proficiency level	- Communicative task: concept-identification - Audio recording of students' performance	- Coding - Descriptive statistics - Analysis of variance (T-test)
<p><b>Results:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- The low-proficiency students adopted significantly more CS than did the high-proficiency students.</li> <li>- The high-proficiency group used linguistic-based CSs more frequently, whereas the low-proficiency group more often used the knowledge-based CSs and repetition CSs.</li> <li>- The high-proficiency students are more efficient in their use of CSs.</li> </ul>				
<b>8. Salomone, M. A. and Marsal, F. (1997). How to avoid language breakdown? Circumlocution!</b>				
- Two intact classes of 12 undergraduate students each	- CS use of circumlocution	- Oral proficiency level	- Types of tasks - Pre- and posttest score - Questionnaire	- Descriptive statistics - Analysis of variance (ANOVA; T-test)
<p><b>Results:</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Both groups had significantly improved their ability to use circumlocution strategies; however, there was no significant difference between the two groups.</li> <li>- Regarding the analysis of qualitative of the two groups' responses, the experimental group showed superior ability in focusing descriptions on the salient features of an item than those their counterpart.</li> </ul>				

**Table 2.1: Research Works on CSs Conducted in Other Countries (Cont.)**

Language Learners	Focus of Study	Investigated Variables	Methods of Data Collection	Methods of Data Analysis
<b>9. Zeynep, K. (1997). The role of gender on communication strategy use.</b>				
- 10 Turkish ESL learners and 10 native English speakers	- Use of CSs	- Gender	- 20 conversations - Audio-recording	- Coding
<b>Results:</b>				
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- The gender of the native English speaker had an important effect on use of CSs.</li> <li>- All Turkish ELS learners used more CSs with the female rather than the male native speakers. Females employed more CSs</li> <li>- The CSs used by the ESL learners included reduction strategies, generalization, paraphrase, word coinage, cooperative strategies, repair, and repetition.</li> <li>- Communication success depends on pairing, particularly in native-nonnative interaction where cooperation is required, and on interlocutor's personalities.</li> </ul>				
Language Learners	Focus of Study	Investigated Variables	Methods of Data Collection	Methods of Data Analysis
<b>10. Brett, G. A. (2001). Teaching communication strategies to beginners</b>				
- 29 German secondary students learning EFL	- The teaching of CSs (turn-taking phrases; request for help, clarification and repetition; greetings and pause fillers)	- CS teaching: turn-taking phrases, request for help, clarification and repetition, greeting, and pause fillers	- Questionnaire (pre and post training) - Audio recording of communicative performance of students' work in class - Oral test and its audio recording	- Coding - Descriptive statistics
<b>Results:</b>				
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- A range of strategic phrases could be successfully taught to most learners although their use might be dependent on task and context.</li> <li>- Students employed various devices like repetition and gaining time to think for maintaining spoken communication in a foreign language while pause fillers were not be used.</li> </ul>				
<b>11. Littlemore, J. (2003). The communicative effectiveness of different types of communication strategy</b>				
- 82 French university students of English	- Compensation strategies	- No variable focused	- Types of tasks - Audio recording	- Coding - Correlation coefficient
<b>Results:</b>				
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- The strategies favored by ectenic students are more communicatively effective than those favored by synoptic students.</li> <li>- Reconceptualization strategies were the most effective, followed by substitution, substitution plus, and functional reduction.</li> <li>- Less effective strategies consisted of novel analogical/metaphoric comparison, the use of superordinates, transfer, morphological creativity, word abandonment, and word avoidance.</li> </ul>				
<b>12. Nakatani, Y. (2006). Developing an oral communication strategy inventory</b>				
- Phase 1: 400 Japanese university students - Phase 2: 62 female Japanese university students learning EFL	- Oral communication strategy inventory (OCSI) - Overall CS use	- Oral proficiency level	- Open-ended questionnaire - OCSI	- Coding - Factor analysis - Correlation coefficient - Analysis of variance (MANOVA)

**Table 2.1: Research Works on CSs Conducted in Other Countries (Cont.)**

Language Learners	Focus of Study	Investigated Variables	Methods of Data Collection	Methods of Data Analysis
<b>Results:</b> <i>Phase 1</i> - The OCSI consists of two parts: 8 categories of strategies for coping with speaking problems with 32 items and 7 categories for coping with listening problems during communication tasks with 26 items. <i>Phase 2</i> - Regarding the speaking part, the high oral proficiency students reported more use of three categories than the low oral proficiency students: social affective strategies, fluency-oriented strategies, and negotiation for meaning while speaking strategies. - Regarding the listening part, the high oral proficiency students reported more use of fluency-maintaining strategies than the low proficiency ones.				
<b>13. Lee, F. (2007). The effects of teaching oral communication strategies on college students learning performance and self-efficacy in an extension program</b>				
- 46 college students (experimental group and control group)	- Oral communication strategy (OCS) teaching - self-efficacy	- Language proficiency level - Self-efficacy	- pre- and post-experiment communication tests - A self-efficacy scale	- Descriptive statistics - Analysis of variance (paired-sample T-test)
<b>Results:</b> - the experimental group significantly improved their learning performance after the treatment, but the control group had no significant improvement in their learning performance. - Experimental group displayed higher self-efficacy after the OCS training than before the training.				
<b>14. Limei, W. (2008). A study of gender differences in communication strategies by EFL learners</b>				
- 209 Chinese EFL learners	- Use of CSs	- Gender	- Classroom observation - Questionnaire - interview	- Coding - Descriptive statistics - Analysis of variance (T-test)
<b>Results:</b> - Significant gender differences were consistently found before and after the training in the frequencies of their using borrowing strategies (like literal translation from Chinese and language switching), although no great differences existed in the other categories. - The SBI had a positive effect on raising their strategy awareness, strategic competence and self-confidence in speaking English and that again gender differences existed: a more notable impact was generated on the females, who used significantly less reduction strategies and more paraphrasing strategies after the training than on their male counterparts, whose reduction strategies significantly decreased, yet paraphrasing ones not significantly changed.				
<b>15. Meyerhoff, A. S. (2009). Analysis of communication strategies used by freshman active English students using YackPack for homework-based speaking tasks</b>				
- 16 Active English from three faculties (Economics, Science and Engineering and Agriculture majors)	- Communicative language teaching (CLT) approach	- Speaking rate - Error analysis - Discourse analysis to determine use of CSs - Use of academic vocabulary over the five weeks - Influence of question-type on responses	- Type of tasks	- Coding

**Table 2.1: Research Works on CSs Conducted in Other Countries (Cont.)**

Language Learners	Focus of Study	Investigated Variables	Methods of Data Collection	Methods of Data Analysis
<b>Results:</b> - Out of the eleven nationalities that were investigated, fluent Japanese English speakers spoke English the slowest, and fluent French English speakers spoke English most rapidly. - Students gradually decreased number of errors over the five weeks of study. - Four out of the 16 students being studied used Japanese discourse markers the first week. This number dropped to two students on the second week, and virtually no students were using Japanese discourse markers by the third week. The use of academic vocabulary increased over the five weeks. However, students speaking will obviously improve if it has been scripted. - It cannot be concluded that what degree question-type influenced response. Each type of 5 questions enabled students to engage and stimulate in different responses, for instance, intrinsic memory, academic vocabulary, etc.				
<b>16. Dong, Y. and Fangpeng, G. (2010). Chinese learners' communication strategies research: A case study at Shangdong Jiaotong University</b>				
- 89 Chinese students majoring in English	- Overall CSs use	- Students' attitude towards CSs - Level of language proficiency	- Questionnaire for attitude towards CSs and for frequency of use of CSs in actual communication - An in-depth interview	- Factor analysis - Descriptive statistics - Analysis of variance (ANOVA)
<b>Results:</b> - Majority of students had positive attitude towards achievement strategies and negative attitude towards reduction strategies. - Both groups of high and low language proficiency level students tended to hold negative attitudes towards reduction strategies. - The students who could fully recognize achievement strategies' communicative potential had a positive attitude towards strategies, while the students with negative attitude either never realized the role achievement strategies play or they had already formed the wrong concept. - Low-proficiency students used reduction strategies more often.				
<b>17. Lai, H. (2010). Gender Effect on the use of CSs</b>				
- 36 Chinese university students majoring in English	- Overall CSs use	- Gender	- Communicative task: concept identification - Observation - Audio recording of students' performance - Retrospection	- Coding - Descriptive statistics - Analysis of variance (Chi-square)
<b>Results:</b> - There was no significant difference between female and male students in their frequency of strategy use. - The strategies which male students adopted most often were much the same as those used most often by female students. - Females are more efficient than males in their use of CS.				
<b>18. Nakatani, Y. (2010). Identifying strategies that facilitate EFL learners' oral communication: A classroom study using multiple data collection procedures</b>				
- 62 Japanese college students	- Learners' conversation performance - Learners' perceive of oral communication strategy (OCS) use	- Oral proficiency level - OCS use (to maintain discourse and negotiate meaning)	- Conversation test and recorded - Secondary level proficiency test - Questionnaire - Retrospective protocol	- Coding - Descriptive statistics - Analysis of variance (Stepwise Multiple Regression)

**Table 2.1: Research Works on CSs Conducted in Other Countries (Cont.)**

Language Learners	Focus of Study	Investigated Variables	Methods of Data Collection	Methods of Data Analysis
<b>19. Nakatani, Y. (2010). Identifying strategies that facilitate EFL learners' oral communication: A classroom study using multiple data collection procedures (cont.)</b>				
<b>Results:</b>				
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Four variables (response for maintenance strategies, production rate, signals for negotiation, and the result of the oral pretest scores) were positively related to the conversation posttest scores.</li> <li>- There were several significant positive correlations between learners' posttest scores and their report on the OCSI.</li> <li>- Higher scoring students tended to report more use of strategies for negotiation to avoid communication interference.</li> <li>- Students who reacted smoothly to speakers' utterances and made use of nonverbal information to support their understanding were able to obtain better scores on the conversation test. Nevertheless, there was no correlation between learners' posttest scores and negotiation for meaning while listening.</li> <li>- Low-proficiency students lacked sufficient strategic knowledge to maintain their interaction or linguistic knowledge for spontaneous communication.</li> <li>- High-proficiency students became aware of the usefulness of strategies for maintaining conversation flow. Additionally, they showed clear awareness of using strategies to fill communication gaps and negotiate meaning to solve potential communication breakdowns.</li> </ul>				
<b>20. Mei, A. and Nathalang, S. S. (2010). Use of communication strategies by Chinese EFL learners</b>				
- 117 Chinese university students majoring in Arts and Science	- CSs use with and without interlocutors	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Types of tasks (one-way tasks and two-way tasks)</li> <li>- Language proficiency level</li> <li>- Academic major</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Tests</li> <li>- Recording of students' task performance</li> <li>- Frequency form of CSs checking</li> <li>- Questionnaire</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Coding</li> <li>- Descriptive statistics</li> <li>- Analysis of variance (Chi-square)</li> </ul>
<b>Results:</b>				
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Several students employed paraphrase, restructuring and repetition strategies to solve their communicative problems, especially for one-way tasks.</li> <li>- Low proficiency students tended to use avoidance more often than high proficiency students, whereas high proficiency students employed IL-based strategies more commonly than low proficiency students.</li> <li>- CSs use of student was influenced by types of tasks, language proficiency level, and academic major.</li> </ul>				
<b>21. Jamshidnejad, A. (2011). Functional approach to communication strategies: An analysis of language learners' performance in interactional discourse</b>				
- 12 Persian undergraduate students of English literature and Translation and 1 postgraduate student in TEFL	- Overall CSs use	- No variable focused	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Oral communication recording</li> <li>- Interview</li> </ul>	- Coding
<b>Results:</b>				
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- The majority of face-to-face interactions between participants was comprehensible and successful and can be interpreted as communicative successes.</li> <li>- CSs usage in L2 interpersonal communication enables students to promote accuracy level of their target language.</li> </ul>				

As seen in Table 2.1, communication strategy use has played an increasingly important role among teachers of English and EFL/ESL learners. Several researchers conducted the studies on CSs in two main aspects: CS classification (Tarone, 1977; Farch and Kasper, 1983; Nimegen group, 1987; Bialystok, 1990; Dörnyei, 1995; and Dörnyei and Scott, 1997) and the use of CSs (Paribakht, 1985; Huang and Naerssen, 1987; Corrales and Call, 1989; Si-Qing, 1990; Flyman, 1997; Nakatani, 2006 and 2010; Dong and Fangpeng, 2010, Lai, 2010, Mei, 2010; and Jamshidnejad, 2011).

The participants of the previous research studies were learners from secondary up to the tertiary level. With regard to the research methodology, the data were collected from language learners by means of a variety of research methods, namely, questionnaires, observation, interviews, and communicative tasks as well as tape recorded. Obviously, a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods has been the common method for data gathering in the field of CS studies.

Regarding the findings, most research works have used communicative tasks as a means to elicit strategies from learners. Thus, the CS taxonomies were developed through observation or retrospective interview. Moreover, some researchers have attempted to go further to examine other factors affecting the choice of CSs in relation to various variables such as *Language Proficiency Levels* (e.g. Bialystok, 1983; Paribakht, 1985, Corrales and Call, 1989; Si-Qing, 1990; Dörnyei, 1995; Lee, 2007; and Dong and Fangpeng, 2010), *Oral Proficiency Levels, Task Types* (e.g. Huang and Van Naerssen, 1987; Nakatani, 2006 and 2010; and Lam, 2010), *Gender* (e.g. Limei, 2008; and Lai, 2010), *Academic Majors* (Mei and Nathalang, 2010), and so on.

According to these investigated variables, the common variables related to CSs use are language proficiency level, oral proficiency level, and task type. Regarding to findings of past research works revealed that language proficiency level and oral proficiency level were investigated variables affecting to the students' choices of CS use (e.g. Si-Qing, 1990; Dong and Fangpeng, 2010; Mei and Nathalang, 2010; Nakatani's (2006, 2010).

In addition, it is noticeable that some CSs studies (e.g. Flyman, 1997 and Rabab'ah and Bulut, 2007) have been conducted using and gathering data through several communicative types of tasks (i.e. picture reconstruction, concept identification, the structured questions, the simulated communication situation, a concrete picture description task, a role-play, a story retell task, and so on). However, the limiting factor of task types is that it has its purpose of each task, the formality of the communication situation, the cognitive complexity of the task, and the status of interlocutors may have effects on learners' strategy use.

A few number of past research works have been carried out the relationship between the use of CSs in relation to students' gender and academic majors. The results of previous research work revealed gender of students had effects on their CS use (Limei, 2008, Lai, 2010). However, the results were inconclusive. For example, the results of Limei's (2008) study showed that significant gender differences were consistently found before and after the training in the frequencies of their using strategies. In contrast, a study by Lai, 2010, found that there was no significant difference between female students and male students in their frequency of strategy use. Additionally, in respect of the factor of academic major, it was found that

academic major as one of the factors that influenced on students' choices of CS use (Mei and Nathalang, 2010).

In summary, several scholars have attempted to examine other factors that are possibly related to the use of CSs employed by language learners. Some research works indicated the strong relationship between the CS use with reference to language proficiency level and oral proficiency level. Whereas, other factors (e.g. gender, types of school and academic goal, types of students, self-efficacy, students' achievement, attitudes toward CSs use, and academic major) are still not conclusive. Since the findings of those research works were not conclusive, as a result, the researcher aims to go further to investigate the use of CSs in relation to different variables in order to reconfirm the results of past research works and explore other new variables that may affect students' use of CSs.

### 2.6.2 Research Works Conducted in Thailand

As can be seen in previous section, a number of studies have been carried out on CSs in other countries than in Thailand. The description of these studies will be provided.

**Table 2.2: Research Works on CSs Conducted in Thailand**

Language Learners	Focus of Study	Investigated Variables	Methods of Data Collection	Methods of Data Analysis
<b>1. Charoenchang, W. (1991). An investigation of Thai learners and native-speaker teachers of English communication strategies in classroom interactions</b>				
- 32 undergraduate students (two groups of 12 KMITT students and 20 B.C. (beginning class) students)	- CS use in classroom interaction	- two classroom contexts: beginning class (B.C.) and at university (KMITT)	- Tape-recording - Observation diaries - Semi-structured interview	- Coding
<b>Results:</b> - For 4 weeks at the beginning and at the end of classes, learners used reduction and code-switching (L1) most, while native speaker teachers of English continual used of paraphrase, repetition and non-verbal CS played a significant part in facilitating classroom communication.				

Table 2.2: Research Works on CSs Conducted in Thailand (Cont.)

Language Learners	Focus of Study	Investigated Variables	Methods of Data Collection	Methods of Data Analysis
<b>2. Sienprapassorn, K. (1993). English strategic competence of mathayom suksa six students in schools under the jurisdiction of the Department of General Education.</b>				
320 mathayom suksa six students	- English strategic competence - CS use	- Fields of study	- Communicative task: concept-identification	- Descriptive statistics - Percentage
<b>Results:</b> - Students had English strategic competence with the mean score at the percentage of 50.75 which was at the minimum level. - Students in Science Program got the mean score of English strategic competence higher than students in Language-Art Program. - Students had the frequency in using the English communication strategies in the aspects of intralingual strategies, paralinguistic strategies and interlingual strategies at the percentage of 64.04, 20.93 and 15.03 respectively.				
<b>3. Wongsawang, P. (2001). Culture-specific notions in L2 communication strategies</b>				
- 30 Thai university students with intermediate English proficiency	- Overall CS use	- No variable focused	- Communicative tasks: Phi-thii-wai-khruu, Thai ghost story-retelling, and making merit - Audio recording - Questionnaire - Observation	- Coding - Percentage
<b>Results:</b> - Nine categories of Communication strategies were employed: message abandonment, topic avoidance, circumlocution, approximation, use of all-purpose word, restructuring, code-switching, and mime. Circumlocution and approximation were the most preferred strategies, followed by code-switching. Furthermore, other types of CS were used to be similar to the hierarchy of CS employed in total. - Nonlinguistic strategies like mime were employed to demonstrate instead of explaining verbally. In the same way, interactive strategies like appeals for help were not found, due to the fact that participants did not have interlocutors who could provide them with help. - The familiarity of the L2 speaker with the concept does not always help students in coping with communicative problems; to know how to talk about it in the L2 is rather needed to be acquired for L2 students.				
<b>4. Wannaruk, A. (2002). Communication strategies in an EST context</b>				
- 75 Thai university students	- Overall CSs use	- Oral proficiency level	- Oral interview - Video recording of students' performance	- Coding - Descriptive statistics - Analysis of variance (ANOVA)
<b>Results:</b> - Modification devices were the most frequently used communication strategies. The other strategies used in order of frequency were nonlinguistic strategies, L1/L3-based strategies, target language-based strategies, and avoidance strategies. Avoidance CSs were more often used by those with a low level of oral proficiency. - Different CSs were used to different degrees according to students' language level.				

Table 2.2: Research Works on CSs Conducted in Thailand (Cont.)

Language Learners	Focus of Study	Investigated Variables	Methods of Data Collection	Methods of Data Analysis
<b>5. Weerarak, L. (2003). Oral communication strategies employed by English major taking listening and speaking 1 at Rajabhat Institute Nakhon Ratchasima</b>				
- 16 Thai university students majoring in English	- Overall CSs use	- Oral proficiency level	- Oral test scores - Four speaking tasks: oral interview, conversation, describing pictures, and explaining word meaning - Classroom observation	- Coding - Descriptive statistics - Analysis of variance (Chi-square)
<b>Results:</b> - All five types of communication strategies were employed: modification devices, target language-based strategy, nonlinguistic strategy, L1-based strategy, and avoidance strategy. - Less able students employed communication strategies more frequently than did able students. - There was statistically significant difference between the frequency of more able and less able speaking ability students' use of each type of CSs.				
<b>6. Pornpibol, N. (2005). Quantitative and qualitative views of EFL learners' strategies: A focus on communication strategies</b>				
- 200 second-year undergraduate students	- Overall CS use	- Oral proficiency level	- Video tapes of three different tasks - Questionnaire - Observation - Interview	- Coding - Descriptive statistics - Analysis of variance (ANOVA)
<b>Results:</b> - The students preferred using the strategies of appeal for help, approximation, avoidance, nonlinguistic signals, circumlocution, and code-switching, respectively. - High proficiency students often used circumlocution more frequently, whereas low proficiency students often used strategies, like appeal for help, avoidance, and code-switching.				
<b>7. Prinyajarn, G. (2007). Teaching communication strategies to science and technology graduate students</b>				
- 10 Ph.D. Science and Technology graduates	- The teaching of CSs - Specific CSs use: back-channels, pause fillers, and hesitation devices, requests for clarification, and circumlocutions	- Oral proficiency level	- Interview - Observations - audio-recordings - Questionnaire	- Coding - Analysis of variance (ANOVA; post hoc test, Paired Sample t-test)
<b>Results:</b> - The teaching of communication resulted in the learners making greater use of communication strategies. Students employed CSs more frequently and more appropriately both in the post-test and the delayed post-test than they did in the pre-test. - All students dramatically increased, especially, back-channels and pause fillers and hesitation devices.				

Table 2.2: Research Works on CSs Conducted in Thailand (Cont.)

Language Learners	Focus of Study	Investigated Variables	Methods of Data Collection	Methods of Data Analysis
<b>7. Prinyajarn, G. (2007). Teaching communication strategies to science and technology graduate students (Cont.)</b>				
<b>Results:</b>				
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Majority of students were able to use communication strategies more appropriately in the delayed post-test than in the post-test and less inappropriately and less incorrectly.</li> <li>- The significant difference between the three categories of communication strategies used (appropriate, inappropriate, and incorrect use) in the delayed post-test.</li> <li>- Positive attitude towards teaching CSs was reported by the students. They felt a thirty-hour training program was useful and enabled them to adapt for use in their daily lives.</li> </ul>				
<b>8. Kongsom, T. (2009). The effects of teaching communication strategies to Thai learners of English</b>				
- 62 Thai EFL university students majoring in Engineering	- The teaching of CSs	- The use of 9 instructed CSs - Perceived usefulness of CSs - Attitude towards the teaching of CSs	- Self-report strategy questionnaire - Attitudinal questionnaire - Communication tasks: interview, conversation, cartoon description, topic description - Retrospective protocols	- Coding - Descriptive statistics - Correlation coefficient - Analysis of variance (T-test)
<b>Results:</b>				
<p>1. The use of CSs From questionnaire</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- After receive the CS instruction, the students reported more use of CSs.</li> <li>- There were changes in the ranking of reports use of CSs in the pre and post-CS instruction (except for word coinage and foreignizing).</li> <li>- There was a statistically significant difference in the perceptions of the overall level of CS usefulness after instruction.</li> <li>- Significant correlation was found between students' reports of use and usefulness of CS.</li> </ul> <p>From tasks observation</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- The teaching of CSs had an impact on increased use of taught CSs of the students.</li> </ul>				
<b>9. Chuanchaisit, S. and Prapphal, K. (2009). A study of English communication strategies of Thai university students</b>				
- 100 Thai undergraduate students	- Overall CSs use	- Oral proficiency level	- A self-report questionnaire - Strategy Use in Speaking Task Inventory (SUSTI)	- Descriptive statistics - Independent t-test
<b>Results:</b>				
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- There was a significant difference between the two groups. The high-ability group employed risk-taking strategies significantly more than the low-ability group.</li> <li>- The high-ability students preferred risk-taking strategies, such as social-affective, fluency-oriented, help seeking, and circumlocution strategies.</li> <li>- The low-ability students tended to employ more risk-avoidance strategies, like time-gaining strategies, and needed assistance in developing risk-taking techniques such as social-affective, fluency-oriented, help seeking, and circumlocution strategies.</li> </ul>				

**Table 2.2: Research Works on CSs Conducted in Thailand (Cont.)**

Language Learners	Focus of Study	Investigated Variables	Methods of Data Collection	Methods of Data Analysis
<b>10. Preedatawat, W. (2009). An investigation of communication strategies of international undergraduate students in Bangkok</b>				
- 400 EFL undergraduate students	- Overall CSs use	- Gender - location of countries - Field of study	- Interview - Questionnaire	- Percentage - Descriptive statistics - Analysis of variance (ANOVA, T-test)
<b>Results:</b> - Majority of the students occasionally used CSs. They occasionally used Achievement strategies more than Reduction strategies. - No statistically significant difference was found among students who come from different countries, faculties, and gender in the use of CSs.				
<b>11. Chawana, M. (2010). Communication strategies used by nursing students when interacting with foreign patients in a nursing simulation</b>				
- 4 Thai nursing students	- Overall CSs use	- Types of tasks	- Observation - video recorder - interview	- Coding - Descriptive statistics
<b>Results:</b> - 'Using fillers and hesitation devices and asking for confirmation' were employed with the most frequent strategies while 'using all-purpose words and foreignizing' were not employed.				
<b>12. Somsai, S. (2011). Use of communication strategies by English majors at Rajamangala University of Technology</b>				
Thai EFL university English majors	Overall CSs use	- Gender - Exposure to oral communication in English - Level of study - Location of institution	- Interview - Questionnaire	- Coding - Descriptive statistics - Correlation coefficient - Analysis of variance (ANOVA; Chi-square)
<b>Results:</b> - There was medium frequency of students' use of all CSs derived from the interview. - Using familiar words, phrases, or sentences to convey the message to the interlocutor continuously was employed with highest frequency while the least frequently used strategy was 'making a phone call to another person for assistance to convey the message to the interlocutor.' - There was a relationship between the students' overall CS use and gender of students. Female students reported using more overall CSs than did male students. - There was a relationship between the students' overall CS use and exposure to oral communication in English. Students with non-limited exposure to classroom instructions reported using CSs more frequently than did those with limited exposure to classroom instructions.				

As seen in Table 2.2, a small number of past research works have been carried out on the use of communication strategies (e.g. Sienprapassorn, 1993; Wongsawang, 2001; Wannaruk, 2002; Weerarak, 2003; Pornpibol, 2005, Parinyajarn, 2007;

Preedatawat, 2009; Kongsom, 2009; Chuanchaisit and Prapphal, 2009; Somsai, 2010; and Chawana, 2010). Only two of them (Weerarak, 2003; and Somsai, 2010) carried out their investigation with English majors. Besides, most of them (e.g. Wannaruk, 2002; Weerarak, 2003; Pornpibol, 2005; Parinyajarn, 2007; and Chaunachaisit and Prapphal, 2009) have paid attention to the factor of oral proficiency level affecting students' choices of communication strategy use. Meanwhile, students' gender is another factor that has been chosen as one of investigated variables by Preedatawat (2009) and Somsai (2011). Somsai (2011) was the only one who investigated students' choices of communication strategies in relation to fields of study, level of study, location of institution, exposure to oral communication in English.

The result of past research works in Thailand showed strong relationship between use of communication strategies and language proficiency level and oral proficiency level (Wannaruk, 2002; Weerarak, 2003; Pornpibol, 2005; Parinyajarn, 2007; and Chunachaisit and Prapphal, 2009). However, some findings of previous research works were inconclusive. For instance, Somsai (2010) investigated relationship among English majors' characteristics on CSs in relation to gender of students. The results of the study indicated that females reported using more overall CSs than males. In contrast, an investigation by Preedatawat (2009), examined CSs of undergraduate students. The finding of the study showed that no significant difference between gender of the students.

Furthermore, a few research studies have been carried out with a very large number of participants as the present investigation with the number of 900 participants. For example, Prinyajarn (2007) investigated teaching communication strategies of science and technology graduate students with 10 graduate students

while Kongsom (2009) conducted a study on the effects of teaching communication strategies to 62 Thai learners of English. Apart from Prinyajarn (2007) and Kongsom (2009), Chuanchaisit and Prapphal (2009) conducted their research work on English communication strategies with 100 Thai undergraduate students, who have different oral proficiency levels.

Regarding the methods and instruments of data collection, communicative tasks, interview, questionnaire, and observation were commonly used to gather data, for example, CS use, gender, oral proficiency level, attitude towards the teaching of CSs, field of study, level of study, exposure to oral communication in English. Obviously, the methods of qualitative and quantitative methods have been used for gathering data and also popular in terms of data analysis. The methods of coding, descriptive statistics, Correlation coefficient, Chi-square test and ANOVA were mostly used to analyze data in CSs studies.

However, there is controversy on the findings of past research works which lack consistency. It may be the cause of the nature of participants, investigated variables, or methods of data collection (Intaraprasert, 2000). Moreover, no research work has been carried out on the use of CSs by English major students studying at universities in the Northeast of Thailand. Particularly, according to the results of past research works and factors that affect to the use of CSs of students, there are some factors that should be further investigated; however some factors seem to be ignored.

Therefore, in consideration of the relationship between use of communication strategies and students' choices of CSs, the present investigation aims to explore the frequency of CS used by Thai students majoring in English studying at tertiary level

in the Northeast of Thailand as well as to examine the reasons why students employ certain communication strategies frequently and certain strategies infrequently.

## **2.7 Summary**

This chapter has provided the related literature with regard to communication strategies employment. The theoretical background consisted of definitions and the characteristics of oral communication and of communicative competence. Communication strategies with their notion, framework, and taxonomies have been discussed. Finally, the chapter has ended with a discussion on the related past research works on communication strategies. In the next chapter, research methodology and theoretical framework in communication strategies for the present investigation will be explained.



## **CHAPTER 3**

### **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

#### **3.1 Purpose and Introduction of the Chapter**

The main purpose of this chapter is to discuss the research methodology and the conceptual framework of the present study. To exemplify the research methodology of the present investigation, some general principles of research design and research communication strategy instrumentations will be elaborated. Additionally, the theoretical framework of the present investigation will be presented. This is followed by research questions, sampling methods and the selection of variables. Finally, methods of data collection, the interpretation of the investigated data, and report of results are discussed.

Generally, the purposes of research works are divided into three main types (Robson, 1993; Neuman, 2006; Fraenkel and Wallen, 2007, and Babbie, 2008). They are exploration, description and explanation. In practice, Nueman (2006, p. 33) remarks “studies may have multiple purposes, for instance, both to explore and to describe, but one purpose is usually dominant”. Each classification of the purposes of research works can be explained as follows:

1. Exploration: This type of study has been done for three purposes: (1) to satisfy the researcher’s curiosity and desire for better understanding, (2) to test the feasibility of undertaking a more extensive study, and (3) to develop the methods to be employed in any subsequent study (Babbie, 2008, p. 98). This research type is

usually, but not necessarily, qualitative. The respondents of the research studies are relatively new.

2. Description: This type of research aims to describe situations or events. The researcher observes then describes what was observed. Extensive knowledge of the situation to be researched or described is required; as a result, a researcher knows appropriate aspects on which to gather information. The descriptive studies may be qualitative and/or quantitative. These studies are appropriate to answer questions of what, where, when and how.

3. Explanation: This type of research aims to seek an explanation of a situation or problem. Explanatory studies may be qualitative and /or quantitative which addresses questions of why. Generally, this research type builds on exploratory and descriptive research and goes on to identify the reason something occurs.

Based on the research purposes, according to Creswell (2009), three basic categories of research consist of qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods. Qualitative research is considered as an approach to explore and understand the meaning of individuals or groups ascribed to a social or human problem. Meanwhile, quantitative research is an approach to test objective theories by examining the relationship among variables. In general, there are two main types of quantitative research: experimental designs and non-experimental designs. The former design is sometimes known as the scientific method, while the latter design is sometimes equated with survey research, and is very common in the social sciences. Mixed methods research (sometimes called multi-strategy design) is another kind of research that combines or associates both qualitative and quantitative forms. It can be claimed that each research type has different purposes.

However, a number of research works are likely to have more than one purpose. As remarked by Neuman (2006, p.151), “Qualitative and quantitative research differ in many ways, but they complement each other, as well”. Similarly, one way the approaches complement each other as suggested by Ragin and Amoroso (2014, p. 123), “The key features common to all qualitative methods can be seen when they are contrasted with quantitative methods. Most quantitative data techniques are data condensers. They condense data in order to see the big picture... Qualitative methods, by contrast, are best understood as data enhancers. When data are enhanced, it is possible to see key aspects of cases more clearly.”

Additionally, Brown (2001) categorizes research types into two main categories, namely, primary research and secondary research. The distinction between primary and secondary research is the information or data obtained. In the primary research, the data is obtained from primary sources, for example, students’ test scores, students’ responses to a questionnaire, or students’ behavior in the classroom while in the secondary research, the data are derived through literature reviewing and synthesizing the works conducted by other researchers. Primary research is sub-classified into two types: case-study research and statistical research. Statistical research is further sub-categorized into survey research and experimental research.

When conducting an investigation, the types of research were considered to serve the purposes of the research study. Robson (1993), Neuman (2006), and Babbie (2008) have suggested the appropriate use of the three types of research as follows:

1. Case-study research is suitable for exploratory study with the ‘how’, and ‘why’ type of research questions. This research type is used to develop detailed, intensive knowledge about a single case or of a small number of related cases. Its focal point is on current events.

2. Survey research (also called correlational) is suitable for descriptive study with the ‘who, what, where, how many and how much’ research type of question. This research type is particularly useful in describing the characteristics of a large population. Questionnaires or interviews are usually used to obtain data on the background, beliefs, behaviors, or attitude of participants.

3. Experimental research is suitable for explanatory study with the ‘how and why’ research type question. It is used to measure the effects of manipulating one variable on another variable involving a small number of people.

The present investigation aimed to explore communication strategies reported being employed by Thai students majoring in English studying at the universities in the Northeast of Thailand when dealing with communication breakdowns in English and to examine the relationship between students’ use of CSs according to four factors: gender, their attitude toward speaking English, type of study program, and foreign language experience. Having taken into consideration what has been stated about research design above, the researcher for the present investigation has classified her work as exploratory and descriptive. It is both qualitative and quantitative. In addition, based on the characteristics of the three types of research outlined above, the most appropriate type of the research strategy for the present investigation is the survey research. The next section was devoted to a description of data collection methods in CS research.

## **3.2 Methods and Instruments in CS Research**

There are differences in the methods of data collection in quantitative and qualitative research. According to Johnson (1977, p. 9), “Research methods are procedures a researcher follows in attempting to achieve the goal of a study”. However, there needs to be some description and justification of the methods used to collect the data when carrying out an investigation (Denscombe, 2010). Otherwise, incorrect data collection methods can impact the results of the study and lead to invalid results.

Robson (1993) points out that data collection methods that are used in research are often based on the type and purpose of the research. Similarly, Denscombe (2003, p. 131) asserts, “When it comes to selecting a method for the collection of data, certain research strategies will tend to be associated with the use of certain research methods”. Not only the type and purpose of research, but different research questions should also be taken in account as stated by Punch (2005, p. 19), “Different research questions require different methods to answer them”.

In this section, the data collection methods used to obtain data on communication strategies will be elaborated. The main research methods for communication strategies include: 1) Written questionnaire; 2) Interview: introspective and retrospective; 3) Observation; and 4) Communicative Task Recording: Audio and Video.

### **3.2.1 Written Questionnaire**

Questionnaire is “one of the most popular research instruments applied in the social sciences” (Dörnyei, 2003, p. 3). It is commonly used in a survey research. Questionnaires are used for a variety of reasons in a research project. They enable the

researcher to collect data from a large group of English-major students and are useful for generating numerical data (Wilson and MacLean, 1994). They are used for gathering data on thoughts, feelings, attitude, beliefs, values, perceptions, personality and behavioral intentions of research participants (Johnson and Christensen, 2012). They are a set of structured questions on a topic or a group of topics designed to be answered by a participant (Richard, Platt and Platt, 1992).

Generally, a written questionnaire can be divided into two main types: closed-ended and open-ended question (Nunan, 1992; Denscombe, 2003). The forms of close-ended items are commonly provided as yes-no questions, multiple choice, and scaled questions. It is “one in which the range of possible answers is determined by the researcher” (Nunan, 1992). It is also the one in which a number of alternative answers are provided for the participants to choose (De Vaus, 1990). One of main advantages of questionnaires is that it is easy to complete and straightforward to code (Cohen, Manion, and Morrison, 2007, p. 321). According to Dörnyei (2003, p. 35) about the merit of closed-ended question, “Their coding and tabulation is straightforward and leaves no room for rater subjectivity”. In the same manner, as emphasized by Wiersma and Jurs (2005, p. 169), selected–response or forced-choice items in a close-ended questionnaire “enhance consistency of response across respondents”.

On the other hand, an open-ended question is the opposite of a close-ended question. Denscombe (2010, p. 165) defines open-ended questions as “those that leave the respondent to decide the wording of the answer, the length of the answer and the kind of matters to be raised in the answer. The questions tend to be short and the answers tend to be long.” It typically begins with the words, for example, “Why”,

“How”, or phrases such as “Tell me about...”. The respondents are required to formulate and provide their own answers in the space provided (De Vaus, 1990). As suggested by Creswell (2005), it can be used in case the researchers do not know the response possibilities and explore the options of the responses. Close-ended questions not only enable the researcher to gather more in-depth information, but also enable the informants to express their own thoughts and ideas. However, the weak point of open-ended form is that it is difficult to code in a reliable manner as well as being time-consuming (Dörnyei, 2003).

A questionnaire has several advantages. First, it is an efficient instrument for gathering data for large-scale survey (Dörnyei, 2003 and Brown, 2001). It can be adapted to obtain data from almost any human population. Second, a questionnaire is mostly used to elicit information that cannot be observed, for instance, opinions, beliefs, attitude, preferences, and views. (Selinger and Shohamy, 1989; Dörnyei, 2003; and Denscombe, 2003). Supported by Oxford (1996) and Robson (2011), questionnaires are the most efficient research instrument for research on strategy use of learners as well as are relatively simple and straightforward approach to study on attitude, values, belief. The data obtained through questionnaires are considered as a high amount of standardization. The data obtained through this method can be analysed more scientifically and objectively than other research types. Finally, they are economical because they can supply a considerable amount of research data for a relatively low cost in terms of materials, money and time (Denscombe, 2010).

Nonetheless, data collection methods not only have their strengths, but also have drawbacks. According to Kumar (2011, p. 149), “if different informants

interpret questions differently, this may affect the quality of the information provided". This means that before the questionnaires are administered, a researcher should find an opportunity to clarify the issues to the respondents. Furthermore, Intaraprasert (2000) suggests that the data which are collected through a questionnaire may be superficial as there is little or no check on the respondents' honesty or seriousness.

In short, based on the description of questionnaires as mentioned above, we can see that each data collection method has its merits and drawbacks. It is commonly used to obtain data relating to people's beliefs, opinions, or attitude. Strengths of questionnaires are its subjective, easiness of completion and coding. As this kind of data collection method is created and provided alternative answers for respondents; thus, in order to obtain valid and reliable data, the purposes, instructions, and issues should be clarified or informed to the respondents.

### **3.2.2 Interview**

It is widely known that each research instrument has been used based on the question and purpose of research. It is also undeniable that in the social sciences, triangulation is often used to double (or triple) check the results of the study. Interview is one of the most popular research instruments used among qualitative researchers as they enable a researcher to obtain in-depth information concerning participants' thoughts, beliefs, knowledge, reasoning, motivations and feelings about intended topics (Johnson and Christensen, 2012). As suggested by Robson (2011), interview can be used as the primary or only approach in a study; they lend themselves well to be used in combination with other research methods.

Previously, researchers should know what exactly the interview is. Moser and Kalton (1971, p. 271) illustrate an interview as “a conversation between the researcher and the respondent with the aim of gaining certain information from the respondent”. The aim of an interview is to gather information, test a hypothesis, or to follow up unexpected results or to triangulate with other methods, e.g. questionnaire and observation (Lowe, 2007). In addition, Mackey and Gass (2005) remark that interview enables researchers to elicit information in which they are probably unable to observe directly, such as self-reported perceptions or attitude.

Gray (2004) has given four reasons for selecting an interview as a research instrument: 1) there is an essential to conquer highly personalized data; 2) there are opportunities required for exploratory; 3) a good return rate is significant; and 4) subjects are not fluent in the target language, or where they have problems with written language. As stated by Denscombe (2010), interviews almost certainly provide a more suitable method in order to gain insights into things such as opinions, feelings, emotions, and experiences.

The benefits of interviews are they are appropriate for complex situations as well as they are useful for collecting in-depth information (Denscombe, 2010; Kumar, 2011; and Johnson and Christensen, 2012). Interviews are one of good research method to produce data based on informants' priorities, opinions, and ideas (Denscombe, 2010). These techniques not only allow the researcher to make clarification of the respondent's responses, but also allow respondents to expand their ideas, explain their viewpoints and identify what they regard as the vital factors (Ary, Jacobs, Ashgar, and Sorensen, 2006). Robson (2011) also supports that behavior

observation is obviously a useful research technique; but asking people directly about what is going on is an obvious short cut when seeking answers to research questions.

However, there are some limitations of interviews, such as they are time-consuming and have biases in research. As a result, these limitations should be taken into account. Further, it is difficult for researchers, particularly novice researchers to control the time of interview. Robson (2011, p. 281) suggests that “time planning and time budgeting is a vital skill of successful research in the real world”. Another weak point of interviews is data gathered through the interview provide indirect information filtered through interviewees’ viewpoints as well as they provide information in a designated place rather than the natural field setting (Creswell, 2009). Therefore, these factors should be taken into consideration for avoiding bias of research results.

Several researchers have obtained data on CSs through interviews (e.g Si-Qing, 1990; Kazuo and Akira, 2004; Nakatani, 2005; Lam, 2006; and Somsai and Intaraprasert, 2011). A few researchers have employed interviews to generate the CS inventory. Most researchers have employed interview to triangulate the data in order to provide further insights into the respondents’ communication strategy use.

### **3.2.3 Observation**

Research purpose can be either objective or subjective. Obviously, in social sciences, to gain a greater understanding and valid findings, a researcher needs to elicit not only verbal information but also nonverbal responses of the participants. In other words, it is undeniable that sometimes actions speak louder than words. Thus, observation techniques are one of the research instruments that are widely used by psychologist and educational researchers (Punch, 2005). They are also often used

in studying language use and classroom events (Richard et al, 1992). Kumar (2011) also supports that this kind of technique is a purposeful, systematic and selective way of watching and listening to an interaction or phenomenon as it takes place.

Observations can be classified into two main types: systematic observation and participant observation (Denscombe, 2011). The former has its origins in social psychology, particularly, in the study of interaction in setting, for example, school classrooms. It is commonly related to the production of quantitative data and the use of statistical analysis. Meanwhile, the latter is mainly linked with sociology and anthropology. It is employed to penetrate situations and understand the culture and processes of the groups being investigated. This type of observation is appropriate for qualitative data.

Observation has some strong points. A major strong point of observation as a research instrument is its directness (Robson, 2011). In other words, a researcher does not need to ask the participants about their views, feelings or attitude, in its place, she or he watches what they do and listens to what they say. Another strong point of this technique is that it enables the researchers possibly to observe a wide range of situations, in a variety of ways (Muijs, 2011). It also allows the researcher to analyze language use in greater depth later and to involve outside researchers in the consideration of data (Mackey and Gass, 2005).

However, there are problems with using observation as a data collection method. Although data can be collected from the primary source, in practice, observation is likely to be very time-consuming (Muijs, 2011; Robson, 2011). The Hawthorne effect often occurs during observations. Kumar (2011) remarks that when individuals or groups become aware that they are being observed, they may

change their behavior. This effect may lead a researcher to interpret invalidity of findings and the possibility of observer bias. If an observer is not impartial, she or he can easily introduce bias and there is no easy way to verify the observations and the inferences drawn from them". As suggested by Muijs (2011), the researcher needs to take into account that bias is being introduced by his or her presence as an observer. Meanwhile, observer bias is another form of bias that an observer may interpret things in a particular way.

A few researchers in the area of CS studies gather data through observation (e.g., Weerarak, 2003; Lam, 2006). Nevertheless, the results of research works by Weerarak (2003) and Lam (2006) did not count on observation alone. Lam (2006) points out that concrete evidence from observations does not yield insight into unobserved evidence, like covert strategic thinking. As asserted by Rubin (1981), observation does not provide data associated with mental operations of strategic language use of learners. That is to say, observation is used to complement other data collection methods in the investigation.

#### **3.2.4 Communicative Task Recording**

Nowadays, task recording as a method of data collection has increasingly been used in CS studies (e.g., Haastrup and Phillipson, 1983; Corrales and Call, 1985; Si-Qing, 1990; Charoenchang, 1991; Dörnyei, 1995; Flyman, 1997; Zeynep, 1997; Wongsawang, 2001; Brett, 2001; Wannarak, 2002; Littlemore, 2003; Nakatani, 2005, Pornpibol, 2005; Rabab'ah and Bult, 2007; Prinyajarn, 2007; Lai, 2010; and Chawana, 2010). Task recording is a type of research instrument which gives the source for later transcription and/or analysis process. Task recording, like audio or video recording, is used for the purposes of data collection. For example, audio

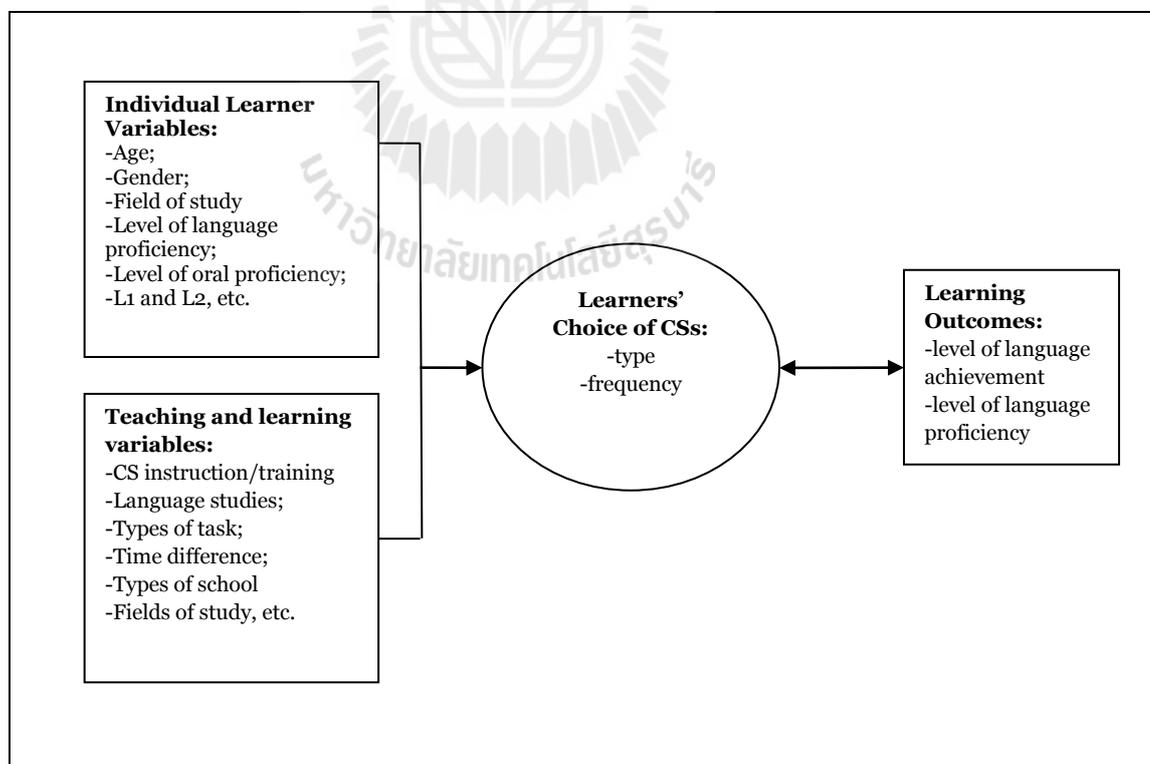
recording is a device which can be used in interview or focus group settings in order to examine learners' thought process or strategies. Meanwhile, video recording can be employed to capture and then observe the performance as well as behavior of respondents.

As stated by Mackey and Gass (2005, p. 78), "Task recording can prompt the learners to recall and report thought that she or he had while performing a task or participating in an event". Different methods of data collection have its different purposes. Audio recording is proper for exploring data where verbal conversation is involved; meanwhile, video recording is more appropriate for examining non-verbal interaction of respondents (Gibson and Brown, 2009). Dufon (2002, p. 44) states that video is also necessary for gestures, facial expressions, and other visual interactions which grant indispensable data and correct interpretation, particularly it allows the researcher more time to "contemplate, deliberate, and ponder the data before drawing conclusions, and hence helps to prevent the incorrect interpretation of the data".

In conclusion, for the present investigation, triangulation must be used for collecting and eliciting data. In view of the fact that this study aims to investigate learners' CS use in relation to four factors, namely, gender, attitude towards speaking English, type of study program, and foreign language experience. Written questionnaire and interview have been selected for this present study. Reasons for choosing these techniques are the questionnaire is appropriate for collecting data in the large number of participants and also providing standardized answers from participants on frequency of CS use according to four investigated variables. Additionally, interview enables the researcher to gain more insights into what reasons for certain frequently and infrequently CSs used of respondents.

### 3.3 Theoretical Framework and Rationale for Selecting Investigated Variables for the Present Investigation

In this section, the development of the theoretical framework for the present investigation has been discussed through the extensive literature review and other research materials on CSs in Chapter 2. Before conducting research, researchers need to review the related past research works, the theoretical framework, locating the present study in the context of past research works, and other researchers' ideas, and creating the rationale for selecting and rejecting variable for the present investigation (Intaraprasert, 2000). Hence, before discussing the theoretical framework of the present investigation, the theoretical frameworks used in past research studies in the area of CSs will be examined as shown in Figure 3.1.

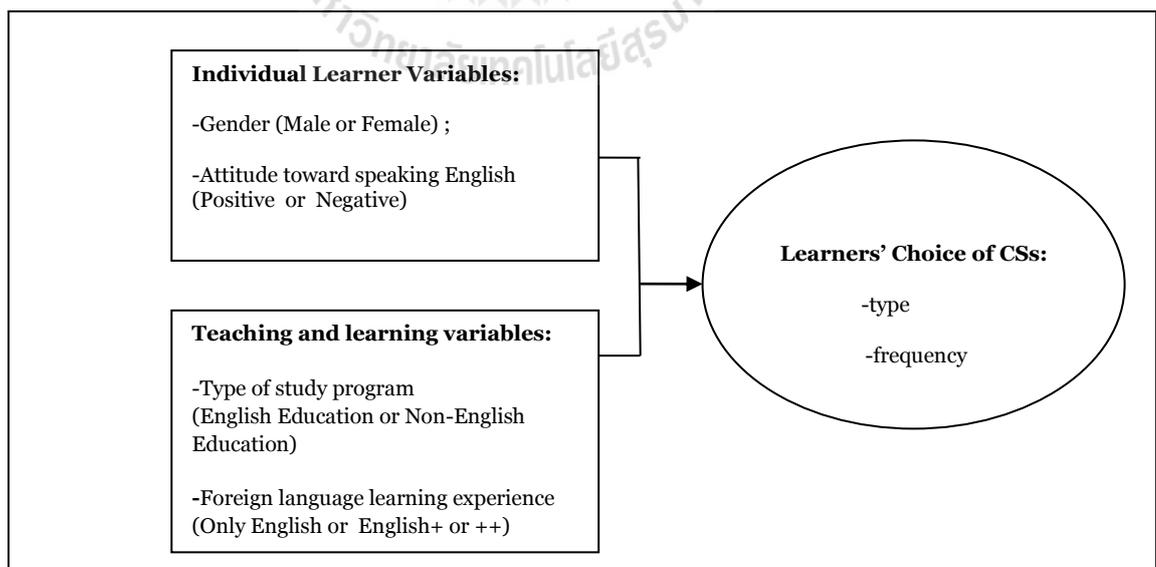


(Source: Adapted from Ellis 1994, p. 530)

**Figure 3.1 Factors Related to CSs in the Past Research Works**

As can be seen in Figure 3.1, the theoretical framework of the past research work, adapted from Ellis (1994), indicates that types of CSs and frequency of CS use of learners have been assumed to be influenced by two main categories of variables: 1) the individual learner variables; and 2) the teaching and learning variables. These two categories influence learners' choice of CSs in a single-directional relationship. In the meantime, learners' choice of CSs has also been assumed to be influenced by language performance. This influence is a bi-directional relationship. In other words, CS use of learners could result in learners' oral/language proficiency and learners' oral/language proficiency could have an impact on learners' CS use.

Regarding CSs developed by Ellis (1994), the main aim of present investigation is to investigate learners' CS use and frequency and their variation according to four factors: gender of students, types of program of study, attitude toward speaking English, and language learning experiences. Thus, the theoretical framework for the present study is shown in Figure 3.2.



(Source: Adapted from Ellis 1994, p. 530)

**Figure 3.2 Theoretical Framework of the Present Investigation**

As presented in Figure 3.2, the theoretical framework for this present investigation entailed the relationship between learners' choice of CS (types and frequency of CSs) in a single-directional relationship with four investigated variables: gender of students: male or female, type of study program: English Education or Non-English Education, attitude toward speaking English: positive or negative, and language learning experience: only English or English and other foreign language(s). To be precise, both individual-related variables (gender and attitude toward speaking English) and teaching and learning variables (types of program of study, and foreign language learning experience) could have an effect on learners' types and frequency of CS use.

In the subsequent sections, a discussion of basic assumption about the relationship between CS use of learners and four investigated variables based on the literature review, viewpoints of other researchers, and the researcher's justification have been discussed.

### **3.3.1 Learners' Use of CSs and Gender**

There have been many factors influencing learners' CS employment. Gender is considered one of the factors that is hypothesized to have an effect on learners' strategy use (e.g. Politzer, 1983; Ehrman and Oxford, 1989; Oxford and Nyikos, 1989; Green and Oxford, 1995; Wright, 1999; Intaraparsert, 2000; Wharton, 2000; Gu, 2002; Williams, Burden and Lanvers, 2002; and Ok, 2003). For example, Wharton (2000) reported that more strategies used significantly more often by men. As asserted by Intaraprasert (2000), male and female learners have their own ways of using strategies for language acquisition. Siriwan (2007) also reaffirms that gender is one of the focal factors that affect language learners' strategy use.

In the field of CS studies, very few research works have been conducted to investigate the relationship between gender and learners' use of CSs (e.g., Margolis, 2001; Lai, 2010; and Somsai, 2011). Nevertheless, the findings were not consistent. Margolis (2001) found female learners were likely to make guesses more incorrectly than male learners. Lai (2010) reported that there was no significant relationship between gender and the frequency of CS use; meanwhile, Somsai (2011) reported females employed CSs significantly more frequently than did males.

As mentioned earlier, the findings of past research works were undependable. Different groups of participants in different contexts may provide new insights into different aspects of learners' CS use; thus, gender has been chosen as one of the main variables for this present investigation.

### **3.3.2 Learners' Use of CSs and Type of Study Program**

Apart from gender, type of study program (academic majors) also generally influences students' language strategy use. Several studies (Lee, 1994; Park, 1999; Dreyer and Oxford, 1996; Oxford and Nyikos, 1989; Mochizuki, 1999; and Lee and Oxford, 2008) have examined the link between strategy use and students' major. Some of them (e.g. Dreyer and Oxford, 1996; Oxford and Nyikos, 1989; and Mochizuki, 1999) indicated that students' type of study program had effects on their choices of strategy use. Students majoring in Humanities used more strategies than those majoring in Science/Engineering (Lee, 1994; Park, 1999; and Lee and Oxford, 2008).

In the field of CSs, types of program of study have been hypothesized as one of the major factors influencing CS use. However, a few research works are available (e.g., Sienprapassorn, 1993; Preedatawat, 2009; and Mei and Nathalang, 2010).

According to Mei and Nathalang (2010), academic major had an effect on learners' CS use. In contrast, a study by Preedatawat (2009), revealed no significant differences between learners' use of CSs and field of study.

A small number of studies have been conducted to examine the link between types and frequency of CSs and type of study program. The findings of past research works were not conclusive. Thus, 'type of study program' was one of the investigated variables of the present study in order to examine the frequency of CS use by English majors undertaking in different types of program of study at the tertiary level, i.e., English education and non-English education.

### **3.3.3 Learners' Use of CSs and Foreign Language Learning Experience**

A man who knows two languages is worth two men (Crystal and Crystal, 2000). Speakers who can speak more than one language are likely to get wide-ranging opportunities for not only travelling but also employment. Nowadays, because of the higher competition and more connection with other countries, Thai university students are expected to be able to speak not only English, but also other foreign languages. As a result, they are required to study at least two foreign languages, for instance, European language (e.g. French, Spanish, etc.) or Asian language (e.g. Japanese, Chinese, etc.).

Some researchers (e.g. Bruck, Lambert, and Tucker, 1974; Diaz, 1983; Hakuta, 1986; Weatherford, 1986; and Martin-rhee and Bialystok, 2008) found that bilingualism had positive effects that enable learners to develop their language acquisition. One of them (Diaz, 1983) found that Bilingual learners fostered the development of verbal and spatial abilities. Similarly, the studies by Bruck, Lambert, and Tucker, 1974; Hakuta, 1986; and Weatherford, 1986; and Martin-rhee and Bialystok, 2008), indicated that learners who were competent in

more than one language dependably outperformed monolingual learners on verbal and nonverbal intelligence tests. The more recent research by Driscoll-Davies (2010), the results indicated that no significant differences of English language development between monolingual and bilingual students.

As can be seen above, there is no clear cut on a positive and negative aspect of monolingualism and bilingualism. The researcher considered 'Foreign language learning experience' as one of the key constituents of communication strategy use. Unfortunately, in the field of CSs, the researcher has found that no past research works in Thailand have explored 'foreign language learning experience' in relation to the type and frequency of CSs employed by undergraduate students, majoring in English. Hence, 'foreign language learning experience' has been chosen as one of the four investigated variables for the present study. The researcher hypothesized that the students who were taking English as well as other foreign languages in their study (e.g. Japanese, Chinese, or Spanish) were likely to employ communication strategies significantly more frequently than those who had limited foreign language learning experience, i.e. those who were studying only English.

#### **3.3.4 Learners' Use of CSs and Attitude towards Speaking English**

Attitude towards speaking English is one of the chief predictors of success in English communication. According to Gardner, Lanlone and Moorcroft (1985), attitude is a factor that has an impact on foreign language learning since how much effort learners put on language learning relies partly on attitude. Dörnyei (2001) points out that 99 per cent of language learners who are motivated or really want to learn a foreign language will be able to master a reasonable working knowledge of it as a minimum, irrespective of their language aptitude.

Moreover, Elyidirim and Ashton (2006) found that negative attitude toward the foreign language can obstruct the learning. On the other hand, learners who have positive attitude toward language learning are likely to use strategies more frequently than those learners with negative attitude (Sadighi and Zaradshan, 2006). That is to say, a positive and negative attitude to speaking English is one of the factors that may be associated with learners' speaking activities.

Oxford (1990) also affirms that attitude is assumed to have an effect on strategy use of learners. As pointed out by Cohen and Macaro (2007, p.15), "successful and highly motivated learners adopted more strategies, especially those involving planning, evaluation, and monitoring. Poorly motivated pupils, on the other hand, employed a limited set of strategies and were less ready to act strategically." This is consistent with the findings of Dong and Fangpeng (2010), which revealed that the majority of Chinese students, majoring in English, had a positive attitude towards achievement strategies and a negative attitude towards reduction strategies. That is positive attitude has positive effects on learners' choice of strategy use; while, negative attitude can cause poor strategy use or lack of orchestration of strategies.

As discussed in Chapter 2, a few previous studies (e.g. Bui, 2012 and Tao, 2013) have carried out the link between CS use and students' attitude towards speaking English. Bui (2012) conducted her study on Vietnamese students of English of CS use and attitude towards speaking English in Vietnam, while Tao (2013) the CS employment of English tourism students and their attitude towards speaking English in China. In Thailand, it was found that no past research works have been investigated CS employment of English-major students studying in the Northeast of Thailand according to their attitude towards speaking English. To fill the gap, the researcher

desired to further explore and confirm the results of past research works whether students' attitude towards speaking English affecting their CS use or not. Therefore, attitude towards speaking English has been selected as one of the investigated variables of the present investigation.

### **3.4 Research Questions**

The present investigation has been carried out to examine the CSs employed by English-major students studying at the universities in the Northeast of Thailand when facing oral communication breakdowns in English and to explore the relationship between the learners' CS use and the four investigated variables mentioned earlier. Based on the purposes of research, the review of the past research work, the following research questions have been formulated:

1. What is the frequency of the CSs reported being employed by Thai students majoring in English studying at the universities in the Northeast of Thailand?
2. Do students' choices of CSs vary significantly with their gender, type of study program, foreign language learning experience, and attitude toward speaking English? If they do, what are the main patterns of variation?
3. Why do students report employing certain strategies frequently and certain strategies infrequently?

### **3.5 Sampling and Rationale for Choice of Participants**

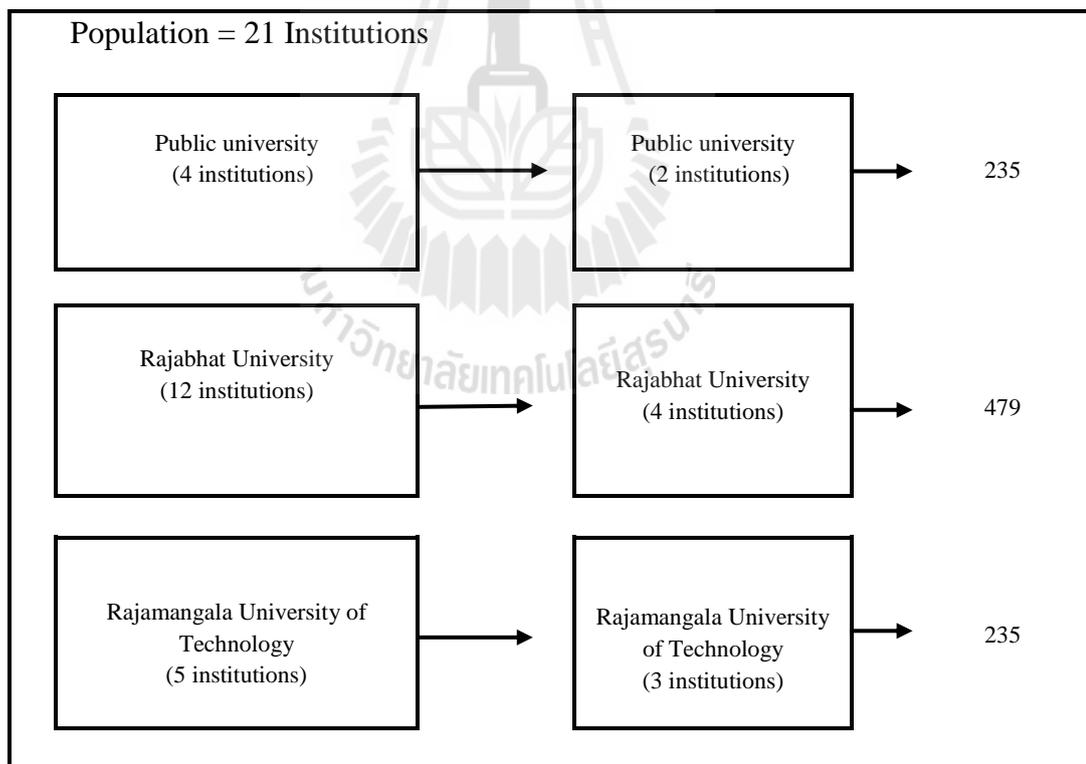
When conducting research, generalizations are not based on data obtained from all the observations, all the respondents, or all the events that are labeled by the research problem; instead, researchers use a relatively small number of cases

(samples) as the basis for making inferences about all the cases (a population) (Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias, 1996). In social research, sampling is essential for researchers as it enables them to “make judgments about people, places and things based on fragmentary evidence” (Robson 2011, p. 270). A sampling plan cannot lend itself from the research project. It should come up with its research questions and purposes (Punch, 2005). As pointed out by Kumar (2011), the purpose of sampling in quantitative research is to draw inferences about the group from which you have selected the sample. Hence, the researchers need to justify their type of research and what it is for, which will ultimately lead them to choose the most suitable sampling for their investigation.

Adopting appropriate sampling procedures to select a smaller number of people to be questioned can save a considerable amount of time, cost, and effort and can still come up with accurate results (Dörnyei, 2003). In other words, it is undeniable that selecting a suitable sampling method not only has an influence on productive research plans, but also the accuracy of research results. Therefore, the sample not only needs to be carefully chosen to be representative of the population, but also must include a sufficient number (Denscombe, 2003).

However, there is no a specific number for a sample that is proper for each research type. As affirmed by Cohen and Manion (1994), the correct sample size relies upon the purpose of the study and the nature of the population under scrutiny. Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007) suggest that the sample size should depend on many factors, for example, the research purpose, time constraints, the nature of the population, and the style of the research. Denscombe (2003) and Dörnyei (2003) also remark that the sample should be adequate, not too big or too small, to allow for statistically significant results.

For the present study, the population of the present study was English-major students studying at the tertiary level in the Northeast of Thailand. Twenty-one institutions offer English major, which include public university, Rajabhat University (RU) and Rajamangala University of Technology Isan (RMUTI). This investigation has involved the stratified random sampling in the first step. It has been adopted to select the participants from three different types of institutions. This sampling technique has yielded rigorous results. Further, the researcher has ensured that the students studying in the three different types of institution were not excluded. The numbers of participants are illustrated according to the institutions where they were studying in Figure 3.3.

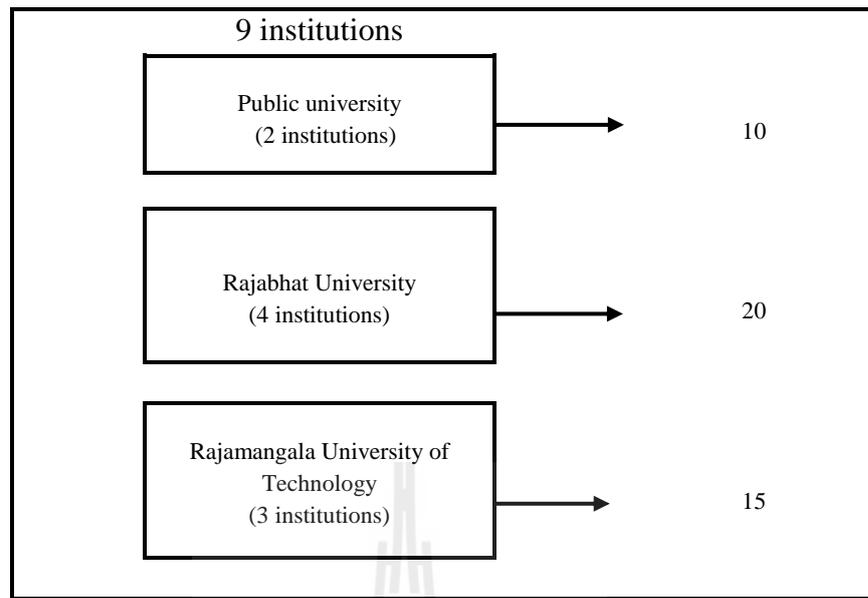


(Source: Adapted from Cresswell 2008, p. 154)

**Figure 3.3 Universities and number of Participants in the Present Investigation**

Figure 3.3 illustrates the number of students from twenty-one institutions that provide English major. In this present investigation, the stratified random sampling and the purposive sampling have been used to select the research participants in Step 1 and Step 2 respectively. The stratified random sampling was adopted based on the representativeness of the samples of the target population; however, the stratum data must be accurate (Neuman, 2006). Hence, in the first step, the population was stratified into three different types of institution. They consisted of four public universities, twelve Rajabhat Universities and five Rajamangala Universities of Technology Isan. After taking a proportion of a number of institutions, there were nine participating institutions: two public universities, four Rajabhat Universities and three Rajamangala Universities of Technology Isan.

In the second step, as stated by Aiken (1997), convenience samples are purposive, that means more to the point the relative ease of accessibility, participants also need to possess certain key characteristics that are connected to the investigation purpose. Therefore, the participants for the present study were sampled based on availability and convenience. Five students from one individual institution were selected to participate in the interview session. There were forty-five students from nine institutions participating in this step as shown in Figure 3.4.



(Source: Adapted from Creswell 2008, p. 154)

**Figure 3.4 Sampling Method for the Second Step of the Present Investigation**

Figure 3.4 shows that forty-five participants were selected to participate in the interview session. One of the research purposes was to explore the reasons of learners' use of certain strategies frequently and other strategies infrequently. To gain more in-depth information and have a better understanding, the purposive sampling method was used to select the research participants in the second step.

### **3.6 Framework of Data Collection Methods for the Present Study**

It is commonly known that research objectives, research questions, design, including methods of data collection are related to each other. When the question, design and methods fit together, the argument is strong and the research has validity (Punch, 2005). As a result, researchers have to justify, and choose the most appropriate research instruments for meeting the purposes and questions of their

investigation as well as allowing them to acquire and elicit the accuracy of research results eventually.

In addition, according to Punch (2005), different research questions need different methods to answer them as well as both quantitative and qualitative methods approaches cannot lend themselves to answer all research questions. Robson (2002) states that using more than one method can have substantial advantages, even though it almost inevitably adds to the time investment required. Similarly, Denscombe (2010) remarks that researchers can develop their confidence in findings' accuracy through the use of different methods to scrutinize the same subject. Additionally, the mixed method approach allows the researcher the opportunity to check the validity of findings in terms of their accuracy, checking for bias in research methods, and the development of research instruments.

This present investigation aims to examine and describe the use of strategies to deal with communication breakdowns in English employed by English majors studying at the tertiary level in the Northeast and to explore the reasons for certain frequently and infrequently strategy use of learners. To obtain the accuracy of findings, triangulation was used to collected data. Thus, two types of written questionnaires (i.e., CS questionnaire and Attitude towards Speaking English questionnaire) and a semi-structured interview were selected as main methods of data collection. Two steps of data collection have been carried out. In the first step, written questionnaires were administered to participants; meanwhile, a semi-structured interview was used to elicit data in step 2.

### 3.6.1 The Communication Strategy Questionnaire

As mentioned in Chapter 2, the communication strategies from different inventories were modified to generate the CS questionnaire items. Additionally, the purpose of the designed communication strategy questionnaire for the present study was to elicit the participants' frequency use of CSs. In the first part of the communication strategy questionnaire was the demographic information of the participants in relation to three out of four investigated variables: gender of students, type of study program, and foreign language learning experiences. In the second part of questionnaire, the question items related to CS types and frequency of use entailed strategies from the CS.

#### 3.6.1.1 Modifying the CSQ

The CSQ design for the present study was a 4-point rating scale. The scale was valued as 1, 2, 3, and 4.

- |                             |
|-----------------------------|
| 1 = never or almost never   |
| 2 = sometimes               |
| 3 = often                   |
| 4 = always or almost always |

The questionnaire of communication strategies was generated based on the works of Dörnyei and Scott (1997), Nakatani (2006), Mariani (2010), and Somsai and Intaraprasert (2011). The reason for relying on the strategies based on such taxonomies was that their taxonomies were the most recently established ones in the field of CSs as well as their classifications were precisely defined and well-organized.

For the present investigation, in order to create the CS inventory for the CSQ, through a careful review of all taxonomies by those researchers we found that some strategies included in more than one category. Some strategies were not appropriate for the present study in terms of operational definition, context and population. These unsuitable and overlapping strategies have been excluded from the list. Also, some strategies have been modified to make them more comprehensible to the students. As a result, the CS inventory of 43 CS items which was used for the CSQ is presented in Appendix A.

In the present study, the CSQ consisted of two main parts: respondent's personal Information and use of communication strategies. The former part is crucial as it provided information related to the main four investigated variables under exploration: gender of students, type of study program, foreign language learning experience, and attitude towards speaking English. Meanwhile, the latter part is the main part of the CSQ, which consisted of 43 items (21 strategies for conveying an intended message; 11 strategies for understanding the message; and 10 strategies for maintaining the conversation). These 43 strategy items were validated with the help of the researcher's supervisor, who is an expert in the field of language learning strategies and communication strategies, and a group of students who were doing Ph.D. in Language Studies at Suranaree University of Technology. Figure 3.5 below showed a sample of the questionnaire used as a main research instrument for the first step of data collection for the present study.

1. Have you got any oral communication problems while interacting in English?  
 Yes                                       No  
If no, stop responding to the questionnaire.

If yes, how often do the problems occur?  
 sometimes                                       often                                       always  
 And please respond question nos. 2 - 4

2. Have you got any problems getting the message across to the interlocutor?  
 Yes                                       No  
 If 'Yes', how often do you employ the following strategies to deal with the problems?

Communication Strategy	Frequency of Your Own Communication Strategy Use			
	Always/ Almost always	Often	Sometimes	Never/ Almost never
1. Thinking in Thai before speaking	✓			

**Figure 3.5: A Sample of the CSQ**

### 3.6.1.2 Piloting the Communication Strategy Questionnaire

Before administering questionnaires to the participants, the pilot study was conducted to ensure the validity and reliability of the questionnaire. Different reasons for conducting the pilot study were suggested by different researchers. According to Dörnyei and Csizer (2012), a pilot study enables the researcher to

- 1) fine-tune the final version of the questionnaire in order to eliminate items that might be ambiguous;
- 2) improve the clarity of wordings;
- 3) finalise the layout;
- 4) rehearse the administration procedures;
- 5) dry run analysis in order to see whether the expected findings will emerge from the data;
- 6) check the time completion of the questionnaire;
- and 7) double check that there are no mistakes left in the questionnaire.

Further, a pilot study can help researchers to gain feedback whether the questionnaire will work and perform the job it is designed for (Dörnyei, 2003). It is also a crucial procedure that helps researchers to increase validity and practicality of the

questionnaire (Oppenheim, 1992). In addition, it not only can highlight ambiguities and anomalies in the questioning, but also reveal irrelevances (Seliger and Shohamy, 1989). Another merit of the pilot study is that it can help with procedural matters, for instance, the sequences of questions and the reduction of non-response rates (Intaraprasert, 2000).

In order to maximize ease of administration and ensure greater accuracy of findings, the question items were checked for the content validity by the researcher's supervisor. Then communication strategy questionnaire was devised in English and then translated into Thai by the researcher. After that, the supervisor and researcher's colleagues who are native speakers of the Thai language checked for the validity for the translated-version questionnaire. Eventually, the Thai version of the questionnaire was employed for the piloting.

In the piloting process, thirty students were taken from the population but were not involved in the main stage of the investigation. The primary aim of this process was to see how clear the question items were or if any of them needed revising. Another aim was to examine whether the majority of the students were familiar with the question items or not.

Having considered the items being added in an open-ended part of CS questionnaire, as eight strategies found from the open-ended part were in the cycle of CS items in the strategy questionnaire, the researcher decided to keep the same forty-three CS items as a final version of the CS questionnaire. Besides, it was also found that some wordings were ambiguous and needed to be revised. Having been revised, the instrument was ready to be used in the main stage.

In the main stage, the data obtained were checked and the reliability of the data and the questionnaire was analyzed by using Cronbach's Alpha ( $\alpha$ ). After having taken the piloting, the researcher took the comments from the pilot group to discuss with the supervisor in order to implement the questionnaire. The reliability estimates in relation to the responses of 949 English-major students is shown in Table 3.1.

**Table 3.1: Reliability Estimate of the CSQ as a Whole and the Three Categories**

CS category	CSQ as a whole (43 items)	Category 1 (21 items)	Category 2 (12 items)	Category 3 (10 items)
Reliability Estimate (Alpha Coefficient: $\alpha$ )	.89	.81	.84	.83

As can be seen in Table 3.3, the reliability estimates of .89; .81; .84; .83 of the present investigation are acceptable. As stated by Fraenkel and Wallen (2007), the acceptable reliability coefficient of .70 is a rule of thumb for research purposes. That is to say, the reliability estimate of this present study seemed acceptable.

### 3.6.2 Attitude towards Speaking English Questionnaire

One of the main purposes of the present investigation was to investigate the relationship between CS use and 'attitude towards speaking English'. With regard to the context of study, research purpose, including a great number of participants, questionnaire was used to collect data in order to meet the research purpose as well as research plan. In line with the principles of questionnaire, it can provide three types of information, namely, factual questions, behavioral questions, attitudinal questions like opinions, beliefs, interest, and values. As Dörnyei points out, questionnaire is the best

research method that is appropriate to examine L2 learner's belief, L2 learning strategy, and language attitude.

### **3.6.2.1 Adopting the Attitude towards Speaking English**

#### **Questionnaire**

Apart from the CS questionnaire, the attitude towards speaking English questionnaire was used to explore its relationship with the students' choices of CSs. Recently, Bui and Intaraprasert (2012) have conducted a research on strategies employed by Vietnamese students, majoring in English for coping with communication breakdowns. The main research data collection methods were the Communication Strategy Questionnaire (CSQ) and the English Speaking Attitude Questionnaire (ESAQ) for the purpose of exploring the English majors' use of CSs. According to the modified ESAQ by Bui and Intaraprasert (2012), their ESAQ was constructed based on the Language Learning Attitude Questionnaire (LLAQ) and language learning attitude questionnaire proposed by Ockert (2010).

The reasons for adopting her questionnaire was that their items in attitude questionnaire were comprehensive and the questionnaires have been used to study with English-major students. In other words, the reason that the researcher adopted their questionnaire was that their attitude questionnaire was suitable for the present study, regarding, the research context, the research subjects, and the focal point of the study.

The Attitude towards speaking English questionnaire (ASEQ) for the present study was a 5-point rating scale. The scale was valued as 1, 2, 3, 4, and 5.

1 = Strongly disagree
2 = Disagree
3 = Undecided
4 = Agree
5 = Strongly Agree

The ASEQ consisted of 20 items. With a 5-point rating scale, a sample of ASEQ was shown in Figure 3.6.

Statements	Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1) Speaking English is fun.		√			

**Figure 3.6 A Sample of the Attitude towards Speaking English (ASE)**

### 3.6.2.2 Piloting Attitude towards Speaking English Questionnaire

The piloting has been carried out with thirty students who did not participate in the main stage of investigation to answer the questionnaire. The attitude questionnaire was translated from English into Thai by the researcher. Then it was validated by the researcher's supervisor and experts who were Thai instructors of English. To ensure the reliability of the questionnaire, Cronbach's Alpha ( $\alpha$ ) was used to analyze data obtained through piloting. Any comments from the pilot group were used to improve and to make the questionnaire less confusing. The results revealed that students had no comments or any problems for responding the ASEQ. All items of the questionnaire were acceptable. Hence, there were no changes in this part.

### **3.6.3 Semi-structured Interview**

Every research instrument has its strengths and weaknesses; however, each research instrument complements each other (Creswell, 2009). In the context of the present investigation a semi-structured interview was used as one of the main research instruments. It was employed to elicit data about the frequency of CS use of learners as well as to obtain in-depth information for fulfilling and supporting the data obtained in the first step. As a result, the semi-structured interview was constructed in terms of the objectives and questions of the research study and adopted as the second data collection method for triangulation of the data collected in Step 2.

The semi-structured interview has been selected as one of major research methods for several reasons. First, it allows interviewees to report on the strategies they use in general (Ellis, 1994). Second, according to the nature of the characteristics of interview type; the interview is flexible, particularly the interview role is cooperative (Nunan, 1992). Lastly, a semi-structured interview has a systematic order of questions so that it enables the research to follow and keep the focal points of research study.

#### **3.6.3.1 Constructing the Semi-Structured Interview Questions**

In this present investigation, in order to Research Question 3, which is “Why do students report employing certain communication strategies frequently and certain strategies infrequently, the semi-structured interview was employed in the second step of data collection for obtaining in-depth information on the students’ CS use. It was divided into two parts: the background information of the interviewee and the reasons of CS use. The questions of the interview were put up based on the research objectives, research questions, including information about CS use frequency

in Step 1. In order to have the effectiveness of interview questions, the questions have been checked by the researcher's supervisor and experts to ensure the validity and reliability of the interview.

To create a good relationship between interviewer and interviewee, the researcher should explain the nature and purposes of the research work to the interviewee and be willing to answer any questions raised by the interviewees (Nunan, 1992). After informing the objectives of research study, the interview has been started with questions about background information of interviewees. The semi-structured interview consisted of eight questions as follows:

1. What is your name?
2. How long have you been learning English?
3. Without thinking too deeply about it, say what 3 key words come to your mind when you hear the word 'English'?
4. Do you like English? Why do you like/do not like English?
5. What has been your most positive experience of learning English?
6. What has been your most negative experience of learning English?
7. When you have communication problems, how do you tackle such problems?
8. Why do you use certain strategies frequently and certain strategy infrequently for dealing with communication breakdowns and maintain the conversation?

### **3.6.3.2 Piloting the Semi-structured Interview**

Before administering the actual the semi-structured interview, it needs to be piloted. The interview questions were cross-checked in order to ensure the

validity and reliability of the interview. The interview questions were translated from English into Thai. Then the Thai-version interview question was checked and discussed with the supervisor and experts. The interview piloting has been carried out with eight students from the participants. These students did not participate in the actual interview session.

Moreover, to be both convenient and readily accessible, tape recording was used to get a full and precise record of the interview. However, the researcher did inform and ask permission from the participants before starting the interview. There is no specific of time duration of the interview; still, it should not take too long as it will make both interviewer and interviewee feel bored and tired (Intaraprasert, 2000). Thus, each interview was conducted between fifteen to twenty minutes. Furthermore, the interview piloting was conducted in Thai so that the interviewees could understand the questions clearly and precisely.

After the piloting, the recorded interview was transcribed and analyzed. The transcription was checked if there was anything that needed to be improved or revised. Finally, the supervisor and the researcher have discussed on the data or comments obtained from the piloting interview in order to modify the questions before conducting the actual interview session.

### **3.7 Analyzing, Interpreting and Reporting Data**

The present investigation was both quantitative (Step 1 of data collection) and qualitative (Step 2 of data collection). In Step 1, a CS questionnaire and Attitude towards Speaking English questionnaire were used to collect data and analyzed quantitatively. In Step 2, a semi-structured interview was used to find out the reason

for frequent or infrequent employment of certain CSs. In this step, the data obtained were analyzed qualitatively.

### **3.7.1 Quantitative Data Analysis: Questionnaire**

To answer to RQs 1-2, the SPSS program was used to analyze the data obtained from CS questionnaire and English speaking attitude questionnaire examining the frequency of learners' CS use and the relationship between the CS use in relation to four factors, that is, gender, attitude towards speaking English, type of study program, and foreign language learning experience. The following statistics were used for analyzing data.

- **Descriptive Statistics**

Descriptive statistics were used to describe the data. In the present study, the patterns of student-reported CSs use were described in terms of frequency distributions. These statistics provided those strategies that were frequently employed, and those strategies employed less frequently by the learners. There were three levels of strategy uses; 'high use' (3.0-3.99), 'medium use' (2.0-2.99) and 'low use' (1.0-1.99). The holistic mean score of the frequency of strategy use reported by the students were calculated and described (Intaraprasert, 2000, 2004).

- **Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)**

ANOVA was used to test the overall mean scores of frequency of the strategy used in relation to four investigated variables: 1) students' gender: male or female; 2) type of program of study: English education or non-English education; 3) foreign language learning experience: English only, English (English and other foreign language(s)); and 4) attitude towards speaking English: positive or negative attitude.

- **The Chi-Square Test**

Chi-square test has been used to examine whether there is the relationship between the variables when the data are in the form of frequency (Mackey and Gass, 2005). This type of statistic provides us with the strength of the relationship between two variables (Neuman, 2006). In the present investigation, the chi-square was employed to determine the significant variation patterns of student-reported CS use at the individual item level by 1) students' gender: male and female; 2) attitude towards speaking English: positive or negative attitude; 3) types of program of study: English education or non-English education; and 4) foreign language experience: English only, English (English and other foreign language(s)).

The chi-square test was used to compare the actual frequencies with which students provided different responses on the 4-point rating scale. This kind of statistics was closer to the raw data than comparisons based on average responses for each item. For the chi-square test, the responses of 1 and 2 ('Never' and 'Sometimes') were combined into a single "low strategy use" category. While the responses of 3 and 4 ('Often' and 'Always' or 'Almost always') were consolidated into "high strategy use" category. The aim of merging four response levels into two categories of strategy use (high and low) was to obtain the cell size with expected values high enough to ensure a valid analysis (Green and Oxford 1995, p. 271).

- **Factor Analysis**

Factor analysis is a statistical method to describe the nature of underlying patterns among a large number of variables (Cohen and Manion, 1994). As proposed by Meyers, Gamst and Guarino (2006), factor analysis can be divided into two main types: exploratory and confirmatory. The former enables the researcher to examine

the correlations between the variables to generate the factor structure based on those relationships. Meanwhile, the latter helps the researcher to have a preceding assumption for a factor structure in which they believe that it underlines the variables under study.

Additionally, Gall, Gall, and Borg (2007) states that the major advantage of factor analysis is that it provides an empirical basis for reducing a numerous variables to a smaller number of factors, with each factor representing a set of variables that are moderately or highly correlated with each other. In the present study, the exploratory factor analysis has been adopted to discover the underlying factors through questionnaire in step 1.

### **3.7.2 Qualitative Data Analysis: Semi-structured Interview**

To answer to RQ 3, in step 2, content analysis was used as a technique for gathering and analyzing the content of the text. According to Neuman (2006), the content analysis generally involves coding. As proposed by Punch (2005) and Strauss and Corbin and Strauss (1998), there are two types of coding: open and axial coding. ‘Open coding’ is defined as the process of breaking down the data into discrete parts, closely examined, compared for similarities and differences. The objective of open coding is to conceptualize the data (Punch, 2005). Meanwhile, ‘axial coding’ is a process of grouping data in new ways after open coding method relating to phenomenon under study, the conditions related to that phenomenon, the actions and interactional strategies directed at managing or handling the phenomenon, and the consequences of the actions/interactions related to the phenomenon (Strauss and Corbin, 1990, 1998). In this present study, in the first stage, open coding was used to categorize data as category. Then axial coding was

used in the second stage. Finally, the data were put back together in new ways by linking between category (open coding) and its sub-category (axial coding).

### **3.8 Summary**

Three main parts have been presented in this chapter. It presented a background of research methodology, that is, research design, purposes of research, and research types as well as related research methods used in CSs; written questionnaire, observation, interview, and task recording. It provided a discussion of the methodology for the present investigation which included the theoretical framework and investigated variables, data collection instruments, data collection procedure, and characteristics of participants. It also ended with methods of data analysis and data interpretation including research questions.

The following chapters report the results of data analysis obtained through the two steps: 1) questionnaire and 2) semi-structured interview. Chapter 4 presents the frequency and variations of CS use reported by the participating students through the questionnaires. The results of the semi-structured interviews have been revealed in Chapter 5. Lastly, the research summary, discussions of the research findings, pedagogical implications, contributions and limitations of the present study have been presented, discussed, and suggested in Chapter 6.

# **CHAPTER 4**

## **DATA ANALYSIS**

### **FOR COMMUNICATION STRATEGY USE**

#### **4.1 Purpose and Introduction of the Chapter**

This chapter aims to present and describe the research findings of the present investigation at different levels of data analysis: overall use of communication strategies, use of communication strategies in the three main categories, and individual communication strategy use. In this chapter, the overall strategy use, category, and individual strategy use are presented first without taking any variables into consideration. Instead, comparisons of frequency of use of communication strategies by 949 students based on the holistic mean scores obtained through the communication strategy questionnaire are determined. Then the result of the data analysis regarding variations in frequency of student's overall reported CS use according to the four variables (students' gender, type of study program, foreign language learning experience, and attitude towards speaking English) will be presented.

As seen in the literature review in Chapter 2, in the past three decades, several researchers have attempted to investigate variables that are possibly related to the use of CSs by language learners, for instance, *Language Proficiency Levels* (e.g. Bialystok, 1983; Paribakht, 1985, Corrales and Call, 1989; Si-Qing, 1990; Dörnyei, 1995; Lee, 2007; and Dong and Fangpeng, 2010) *Task Types*

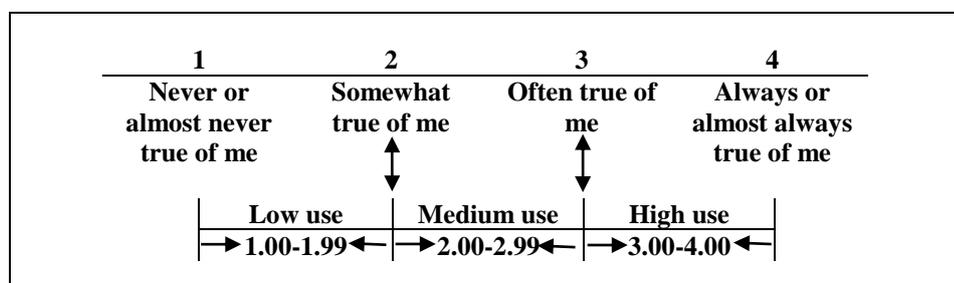
(e.g. Corrales and Call, 1989; Mei and Nathalang, 2010), *oral Proficiency Level* (e.g. Huang and Naerssen, 1987; and Nakatani, 2006 and 2010), *Gender* (e.g. Limei, 2008; and Lai, 2010), *Academic Majors* (Mei and Nathalang, 2010). Additionally, language proficiency level, oral proficiency level, and task types have been commonly investigated among these variables. Meanwhile, gender and academic majors are the variables which have received little attention from the researchers. To the best knowledge of the researcher, such variables as foreign language learning experience and attitude towards speaking English, have not been explored in the Thai context. Hence, the present investigation aims to explore the relationship between students' choices of CSs and students' gender, type of study program, foreign language learning experience, and attitude towards speaking English.

In the subsequent section, the frequency of overall use of CSs reported by 949 English-majors has been explored. This is followed by the frequency of CS use of the students in the three main categories: 1) strategies for conveying a message to the interlocutor (SCM); 2) strategies for understanding the message (SUM); and 3) strategies for maintaining the conversation (SMC) will be examined. Finally, the researcher has further explored the frequency of students' reported use of the forty-three individual CSs (SCM1-SCM21, SUM1-SUM12, and SMC1-SMC10).

## 4.2 Communication Strategy Use by 949 University Students

### Majoring in English

Descriptive statistical methods have been used to analyze the data obtained from 949 English-major students and no significant variation patterns are described or discussed at this stage. Rather, the mean frequency scores of students reported use of CSs in different layers are the focal point of description and discussion. The frequency of students' choices of CSs has been categorized into 'high', 'medium', and 'low' use. This is determined by the responses to the communication strategy questionnaire. The frequency of CS use is indicated on a four-point rating scale, ranging from 'Never or almost never true of me' which is valued as 1, 'Somewhat true of me' valued as 2, 'Often true of me' valued as 3, and 'Always or almost always true of me' valued as 4. Therefore, the possible average value of frequency of CS use can be valued from 1.00 to 4.00. The mid-point of the minimum and the maximum values is 2.50. The mean frequency score of CS use of each category or item valued from 1.00 to 1.99 is considered as 'low use', from 2.00 to 2.99 is considered as 'medium use', and from 3.00 to 4.00 is considered as 'high use'. The applied measure is shown in Figure 4.1.



(Source: Adapted from Intaraprasert, 2000, p.167)

**Figure 4.1: The Measure of High, Medium, and Low Frequency of CS Use**

#### 4.2.1 Frequency of Overall Communication Strategy Use

The result of the holistic mean frequency score across the communication strategy responded to by 949 English-major students studying at the tertiary level is presented in Table 4.1.

**Table 4.1 Frequency of Overall Strategy Use**

Students' Reported Overall Strategy Use	Number of Students	Mean Frequency Score	Standard Deviation (S.D.)	Frequency Category
Overall Strategy Use	949	2.74	.32	Medium use

As shown in Table 4.1, the mean frequency score of students' reported overall communication strategy use is 2.74. This indicates that these 949 English-majors, as a whole, reported employing CSs at the medium frequency level when they had to cope with oral communication breakdowns.

#### 4.2.2 Frequency of Communication Strategy Use in SCM, SUM, and SMC Categories

As mentioned earlier, communication strategies under the present study have been categorized into three main categories, i.e. 1) strategies for conveying a message to the interlocutor (SCM); 2) strategies for understanding the message (SUM); and 3) strategies for maintaining the conversation (SMC). The frequency of strategy use in the three categories, together with the standard deviation and frequency category are demonstrated in Table 4.2.

**Table 4.2 Frequency of Communication Strategy Use in SCM, SUM, and SMC (n = 949) Categories**

Strategy Category	Mean Frequency Score	Standard Deviation (S.D.)	Frequency Category
SCM Category	2.67	.34	Medium use
SUM Category	2.81	.45	Medium use
SMC Category	2.81	.48	Medium use

Table 4.2 demonstrates that the English-major students, who have participated in the present investigation, reported employing CSs at the medium frequency level in all three main categories. Considering the mean frequency scores of the three categories, we found that the most frequent use of students' reported CSs are in the SUM category, followed by the SMC, and the SCM categories respectively. These mean scores illustrate that, among the three CS categories, English-majors reported employing CSs for understanding the message and maintaining the conversation slightly more frequently than those for conveying the message to the interlocutor. To explore more details, the frequency of individual CS use in each category will be discussed in the subsequent section.

#### **4.2.3 Frequency of Individual Communication Strategy Use**

For the present investigation, the frequency of individual strategy, together with the standard deviation and the frequency category are illustrated in Tables 4.3, 4.4, and 4.5 respectively. Table 4.3 presents the frequency of use of 21 individual CSs under the SCM category in which individual CSs are referred to as SCM1-SCM21. This is followed by Table 4.4 illustrating 12 individual CS for the SUM category in which individual CSs are referred to as SUM1-SUM12. Finally, the frequency of 10 individual CSs for the SMC category in which individual CSs are referred to as SMC1-SMC10 is demonstrated in Table 4.5.

In the subsequent sections, the overall picture of students' reported frequency of each individual CS is demonstrated in order of the mean frequency scores, ranging from the highest to the lowest. This may enable us to see a clearer picture of the strategies which have been reported being employed the most and least frequently. The higher mean frequency score of a strategy use implies that students reported employing that strategy frequently and vice versa.

#### 4.2.3.1 Frequency of Individual Strategy Use for Conveying a Message to the Interlocutor (SCM)

Table 4.3 shows the frequency of individual CS use in the SCM category which comprises altogether 21 individual items reported being employed by the research subjects for conveying a message to the interlocutor.

**Table 4.3 Frequency of Individual Strategy Use for Conveying a Message to the Interlocutor (n = 949)**

Individual Strategies for Conveying a Message to the interlocutor	Mean	S.D.	Frequency Category
<b>SCM9:</b> Making use of expressions which have been previously learnt	3.26	.67	High use
<b>SCM10:</b> Making use of expressions found in some sources of media	3.18	.70	High use
<b>SCM15:</b> Using non-verbal expressions such as mime, gestures, and facial expressions	3.09	.78	High use
<b>SCM6:</b> Thinking in Thai before speaking	3.05	.77	High use
<b>SCM11:</b> Reducing the message and using simple expressions	2.99	.73	Medium use
<b>SCM12:</b> Using synonym, antonym familiar words, phrases, or sentences	2.86	.72	Medium use
<b>SCM3:</b> Giving examples if the listener doesn't understand what one is saying	2.80	.69	Medium use
<b>SCM1:</b> using fillers (e.g. well, you know, okay, um, or uh) when one cannot think of what to say	2.77	.71	Medium use
<b>SCM19:</b> Referring to a dictionary, a book, objects or materials	2.76	.84	Medium use
<b>SCM8:</b> Correcting one's own pronunciation, grammar and lexical mistakes	2.71	.72	Medium use
<b>SCM7:</b> Translating literally from Thai into English	2.66	.77	Medium use
<b>SCM4:</b> Repeating words, phrases, or sentences a few times	2.62	.71	Medium use
<b>SCM2:</b> Using circumlocution (paraphrase)	2.61	.67	Medium use
<b>SCM16:</b> Appealing for assistance from other people around to clarify the interlocutor's message	2.59	.76	Medium use

**Table 4.3 Frequency of Individual Strategy Use for Conveying a Message to the Interlocutor (n = 949) (Cont.)**

Individual Strategies for Conveying a Message to the interlocutor	Mean	S.D.	Frequency Category
SCM14: Spelling or writing out the intended words, phrases, or sentences	2.58	.71	Medium use
SCM13: Making up a new word in order to communicate a desired concept	2.54	.79	Medium use
SCM5: Switching some unknown words or phrases into Thai	2.49	.83	Medium use
SCM21: Preparing the message by trying to anticipate what the interlocutor is going to say based on the context	2.45	.77	Medium use
SCM17: Appealing for assistance from the interlocutor	2.43	.71	Medium use
SCM20: Drawing a picture	1.92	.81	Low use
SCM18: Making a phone call to another person for assistance	1.70	.78	Low use

Table 4.3 shows, based on the mean frequency scores, that the students reported employing four CSs at the high frequency level, whereas two strategies were reportedly employed at the low frequency level. More than half of the CSs (fifteen) in this category were reported being employed at the medium frequency level.

“Making use of expressions which have been previously learnt” (SCM9) and “Making use of expressions found in some sources of media” (SCM10) were the strategies that students reported employing the most frequently, with the mean scores of 3.26; 3.18 respectively. In contrast, “Drawing a picture” (SCM20) and “Making a phone call to another person for assistance” (SCM18), were the least frequently used strategies, with the lowest mean frequency scores of 1.92 and 1.70 respectively. Meanwhile, 15 strategies were all reported ‘moderate use’. Examples are ‘Reducing the message and using simple expressions (SCM11)’; “Using synonym, antonym familiar words, phrases, or sentences” (SCM12); and “Giving examples if the listener doesn't understand what one is saying” (SCM3).

#### 4.2.3.2 Frequency of Individual Strategy Use for Understanding the Message (SUM)

Table 4.4 presents the frequency of individual CS use in the SUM category which contains altogether 12 individual CSs reported by the research subjects for understanding the interlocutor's message.

**Table 4.4 Frequency of Individual Strategy Use for Understanding the Message (n=949)**

Individual Strategies for Understanding the Message	Mean	S.D.	Frequency Category
<b>SUM8:</b> Trying to catch the speaker's main point	3.25	.70	High use
<b>SUM9:</b> Guessing the meaning of what the interlocutor has said	3.08	.74	High use
<b>SUM7:</b> Especially paying attention to the interrogative when listening to WH-questions	3.05	.77	High use
<b>SUM10:</b> Trying to translate into native language little by little to understand what the speaker has said	2.95	.76	Medium use
<b>SUM6:</b> Making clarification request when one is not sure what the speaker has said	2.94	.72	Medium use
<b>SUM1:</b> Trying to catch every word that the speaker uses.	2.94	.76	Medium use
<b>SUM3:</b> Asking the interlocutor to slow down	2.83	.75	Medium use
<b>SUM2:</b> Asking the interlocutor for a repetition	2.83	.71	Medium use
<b>SUM5:</b> Paying attention to one's pronunciation and intonation	2.79	.79	Medium use
<b>SUM4:</b> Asking the speaker to give an example and use easy words when one is not sure what he/she said	2.73	.77	Medium use
<b>SUM11:</b> Repeating, summarizing, paraphrasing what one has heard and ask one's interlocutor to confirm	2.60	.74	Medium use
<b>SUM12:</b> Giving up when one can't make oneself understood	1.78	.80	Low use

Table 4.4 illustrates that there are 12 individual CSs under this category reportedly employed by the research subjects of the present investigation, which mainly focus on trying to understand the interlocutor's message. In respect of the frequency of reported students' CS employment, it appears that the students reported employing three CSs at the high frequency level, eight CSs at the medium frequency level, and one CS was reported being employed at the low frequency level.

Regarding the three strategies reported at the high frequency of strategy use, “Trying to catch the speaker’s main point” (SUM8) was reported more frequently than the others, with the mean score of 3.25. This is followed by “Guessing the meaning of what the interlocutor has said” (SUM9); and “Especially paying attention to the interrogative when listening to WH-questions” (SUM7), with the mean scores of 3.08 and 3.05 respectively.

The CSs reported being employed at the moderate level of frequency include 8 items. All of them were reported being employed by the students in order to understand the interlocutor’s message while the interlocutor was speaking. Examples are “Trying to translate into Thai little by little to understand what the speaker has said” (SUM10); and “Making clarification request when one is not sure what the speaker has said” (SUM6). Meanwhile, the students reported employing other 4 strategies for appealing for assistance from the interlocutor, e.g., “Asking the interlocutor to slow down” (SUM3); and “Asking the speaker to give an example and use easy words when one is not sure what he/she said” (SUM4).

In respect of the low frequency of strategy use, one strategy was reported being employed, which is “Giving up when one can’t make oneself understood” (SUM12), with the mean score of 1.78. This strategy can be classified as a reduction or avoidance strategy.

#### **4.2.3.3 Frequency of Individual Strategy Use for Maintaining the Conversation (SMC)**

Table 4.5 presents the frequency of 10 individual CS use in the SMC category reported by the research subjects for maintaining the conversation or keeping the conversation going.

**Table 4.5 Frequency of Individual Strategy Use for Maintaining the Conversation (n = 949)**

<b>Individual Strategies for Maintaining the Conversation</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>S.D.</b>	<b>Frequency Category</b>
<b>SMC2:</b> Paying attention to the speaker's eye contact, facial expression and gestures	3.24	.68	High use
<b>SMC1:</b> Trying to relax and enjoy the conversation	3.09	.70	High use
<b>SMC3:</b> Actively encouraging oneself to express what one wants to say	3.05	.71	High use
<b>SMC7:</b> Speaking more slowly to gain time to think and keep the conversation going smoothly	2.90	.70	Medium use
<b>SMC10:</b> Apologizing if one has said or done something inappropriate and trying to correct (cultural)misunderstanding	2.89	.82	Medium use
<b>SMC6:</b> Changing the way of saying things according to the context in order to continue the conversation	2.73	.71	Medium use
<b>SMC5:</b> Not minding if one can't understand every single detail and trying to keep speaking	2.58	.80	Medium use
<b>SMC4:</b> Feeling all right for taking risks while speaking	2.57	.82	Medium use
<b>SMC8:</b> Talking about something else to gain time to think	2.54	.82	Medium use
<b>SMC9:</b> Pretending to understand in order to make attempt to carry on the conversation	2.47	.81	Medium use

Table 4.5 demonstrates the frequency of use of the 10 reported CSs. These strategies were reported in order to maintain the conversation or to keep the conversation between the students and the interlocutors going. The mean frequency scores reveal that the students reported employing three CSs at the high frequency level, and seven CSs at the medium frequency level. None of CSs in this category were reported being employed at the low frequency level. This may mean that, in order to maintain the conversation, students do their best by frequently resorting to various CSs.

The students reported employing 3 CSs at the high frequency level, which are “Paying attention to the speaker’s eye contact, facial expression and gesture” (SMC2); “Trying to relax and enjoy the conversation” (SMC1); and “Actively encouraging

oneself to express what one wants to say” (SMC3), with the mean scores of 3.24, 3.09, and 3.05 respectively.

Meanwhile, 7 CSs reported being employed for maintaining the conversation at the medium frequency level. Examples are “Speaking more slowly to gain time to think and keep the conversation going smoothly” (SMC7); and “Talking about something else to gain time to think” (SMC8) for maintaining the conversation and gaining time for expressing what they are going to say. Besides, “Apologizing if one has said or done something inappropriate and trying to correct (cultural) misunderstanding” (SMC10) which was used to have a better understanding as well as appropriateness.

### **4.3 Communication Strategy Use by 949 University Students**

#### **Majoring in English in relation to the four variables**

This part will examine significant variations and variation patterns in frequency of use of CSs of 949 English-major students studying at the universities in the Northeast of Thailand in relation to the four variables, namely:

1. Gender (male or female);
2. Type of study program (English Education or Non-English Education);
3. Foreign language learning experience (only English or English and other foreign language(s)); and
4. Attitude towards speaking English (positive or negative).

The result of the data analysis regarding variations in frequency of student’s overall reported CS use according to the four variables will be presented first. This is followed by variations in frequency of CS use in relation to the variables under the

three main categories: 1) strategies for conveying a message to the interlocutor (SCM); 2) strategies for understanding the message (SUM); and strategies for maintaining the conversation (SMC). Finally, an examination of variations in frequency of 43 individual CS use related to the 4 variables will be shown. The main statistical methods applied to analyze the data in this section include an Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and the Chi-square tests. Figure 4.2 illustrates an overall picture of the three main levels of data analyses for student's reported CS use in this chapter.

<p><b>Level 1:</b> Overall Reported Communication Strategy Use</p> <p><b>Level 2:</b> Use of Communication Strategies under the Three Main Categories (SCM, SUM, and SMC)</p> <p><b>Level 3:</b> Use of 43 Individual Communication Strategies</p>
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**Figure 4.2: Different Levels of CS use**

### **4.3.1 Variation in Frequency of Overall Reported Communication**

#### **Strategy Use**

This section investigates the variation in frequency of students' reported CS use as a whole based on an Analysis of Variance (ANOVA). This statistical method demonstrates significant variations in relation to the four variables: gender of students, type of study program, foreign language learning experience, and attitude towards speaking English. The results of the first level of the analysis the mean frequency score of strategy use, standard deviation (S.D.), level of significance, and pattern of variation in frequency of strategy use, if a significant variation exists according to each of the investigated variable are summarized and shown in Table 4.6.

**Table 4.6 Summary of Variation in Frequency of Overall Reported CS Use**

Gender	Male (n=109)		Female (n=840)		Sig.	Comments
	Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D		
<b>Overall CS Use</b>	2.71	.34	2.75	.32	N.S	-
Type of Study Program	English Education (n=478)		Non-English Education (n=471)		Sig.	Comments
	Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D		
<b>Overall CS Use</b>	2.76	.31	2.72	.34	N.S	-
Foreign Language Learning Experience	Only English (n=237)		English+ or English++ (n=712)		Sig.	Comments
	Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D		
<b>Overall CS Use</b>	2.72	.27	2.75	.34	N.S	-
Attitude towards Speaking English	Positive (n=894)		Negative (n=55)		Sig.	Comments
	Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D		
<b>Overall CS Use</b>	2.75	.32	2.62	.33	p<.01	Positive>Negative

As can be seen in Table 4.6, the ANOVA results reveal that the frequency of students' overall strategy use varied significantly according to their attitude towards speaking English ( $p<.01$ ). The mean frequency scores of the students with positive attitude towards speaking English and those with negative attitude towards speaking English were 2.75 and 2.62 respectively. In other words, in the overall use of CSs, the students with positive attitude towards speaking English reported employing CSs significantly more frequently than did those with negative attitude.

Table 4.6 also illustrates that the frequency of students' overall use of CSs did not vary significantly according to the gender, type of study program, or foreign language learning experience. The following section presents the results of ANOVA for students' reported use of CSs under the three main categories: SCM, SUM, and SMC.

### 4.3.2 Variation in Frequency of Use of Communication Strategies under the Three Main Categories

As mentioned earlier, the communication strategies for the present investigation have been divided into three main categories: 1) strategies for conveying a message to the interlocutor (SCM); 2) strategies for understanding the message (SUM); and strategies for maintaining the conversation (SMC). This section will examine significant variations and patterns of variation in frequency of CS use at each of the three levels in relation to the four independent variables.

The results of ANOVA showing variations in frequency of students' CS use in the three categories according to each of the four variables are presented in Tables 4.7-4.10.

#### 4.3.2.1 Variation in Frequency of Communication Strategy Use under the Three Main Categories According to Gender of Students

Table 4.7 below presents variations in frequency of reported students' CS use under the three main categories according to their gender based on the results of ANOVA.

**Table 4.7 Variation in Frequency of Communication Strategy Use under the Three Main Categories According to Gender of Students**

Strategy Category	Male (n=109)		Female (n=840)		Sig.	Comments Pattern of Variation
	Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D		
1) SCM	2.61	.36	2.68	.34	p<.05	Female > Male
2) SUM	2.76	.49	2.82	.44	N.S	-
3) SMC	2.87	.46	2.80	.48	N.S	-

The results of ANOVA in Table 4.7 show that significant variations were found in the frequency of students' use of reported CSs to convey a message to the interlocutor (SCM) with female students reporting employing CSs significantly more

frequently than did male students. However, no significant differences were found in the use of CSs to understand the message (SUM) or to maintain the conversation (SMC) according to this variable.

#### 4.3.2.2 Variation in Frequency of Communication Strategy Use under the Three Main Categories According to Type of Study Program

Table 4.8 demonstrates variations in frequency of reported students' CS use under the three main categories according to their type of study program.

**Table 4.8 Variation in Frequency of Communication Strategy Use under the Three Main Categories According to Type of Study Program**

Strategy Category	English Education (n=478)		Non-English Education (n=471)		Sig.	Comments
	Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D		
1) SCM	2.70	.33	2.64	.35	p<.01	English Education > Non-English Education
2) SUM	2.83	.41	2.80	.48	N.S	-
3) SMC	2.81	.44	2.80	.51	N.S	-

As demonstrated in Table 4.8, based on the ANOVA results, significant variations were found in the frequency of students' use of CSs to convey a message to the interlocutor. The students studying in the English Education program reported employing CSs significantly more frequently than those studying in the Non-English Education program. However, no significant variations were found in the use of CSs of students to understand the message (SUM), or to maintain the conversation (SMC) according to this variable.

### 4.3.2.3 Variation in Frequency of Communication Strategy Use under the Three Main Categories According to Foreign Language Learning Experience

The ANOVA results presented in Table 4.9 below show variations in frequency of reported students' CS use under the three main categories according to their foreign language learning experience.

**Table 4.9 Variation in Frequency of Communication Strategy Use under the Three Main Categories According to Foreign Language Learning Experience**

Strategy Category	Only English (n=237)		English+ or English++ (n=712)		Sig.	Comments Pattern of Variation
	Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D		
1) SCM	2.65	.30	2.67	.36	N.S	-
2) SUM	2.80	.39	2.82	.47	N.S	-
3) SMC	2.77	.47	2.82	.48	N.S	-

As can be seen in Table 4.9, based on the results from ANOVA, no significant variations were found in the frequency of CS use of any categories according to this variable. In other words, both students, who have more foreign language learning experience and those with only English language learning experience, did not report employing CSs for any purposes of the three main categories significantly differently. All of the mean frequency scores of students' use of CSs are considered in the 'medium' frequency of CS use.

#### 4.3.2.4 Variation in Frequency of Communication Strategy Use under the Three Main Categories According to Attitude towards speaking English

Table 4.10 presents variations in frequency of students' reported CS use under the three main categories according to their attitude towards speaking English.

**Table 4.10 Variation in Frequency of Communication Strategy Use under the Three Main Categories According to Attitude toward Speaking English**

Attitude towards Speaking English	Positive (n=894)		Negative (n=55)			Comments
Strategy Category	Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D	Sig.	Pattern of Variation
1) SCM	2.67	.34	2.60	.34	N.S	-
2) SUM	2.82	.45	2.72	.43	N.S	-
3) SMC	2.82	.48	2.55	.47	p<.001	Positive>Negative

As can be seen in Table 4.10, based on the ANOVA results, significant variations were found in the frequency of students' CS use to maintain the conversation. Students with positive attitude towards speaking English reported employing CSs significantly more frequently than those with negative attitude towards speaking English. However, no significant variations were found in the use of CSs of students to convey a message to the interlocutor (SCM) or to understand the message (SUM) according to this variable. The mean frequency scores of these categories are considered 'medium' frequency of CS use. Table 4.11 summarizes significant variations in frequency of use of communication strategies in the SCM, SUM, and SMC categories according to the four variables.

**Table 4.11 Summary of Significant Variations in Frequency of Use of CSs under the Three Main Categories: SCM, SUM, and SMC According to the Four Independent Variables**

Strategy Category	Gender	Type of Study Program	Foreign Language Learning Experience	Attitude towards speaking English
1) SCM	Yes	Yes	N.S	N.S
2) SUM	N.S	N.S	N.S	N.S
3) SMC	N.S	N.S	N.S	Yes

In sum, when taking a look at variations based on the results of ANOVA shown in Table 4.11, we can see a clearer picture of students' use of CSs at this level. That is, the frequency of students' reported CS use in the SCM category varied significantly according to their gender and type of study program; SMC varied significantly according only to attitude towards speaking English. However, no significant variations were found in frequency of students' CS use in all the three main categories according to their foreign language learning experience.

#### **4.4 Variation of Individual Communication Strategy Use**

Sections 4.4 and 4.5 discuss significant variations in frequency of students' overall strategy use across the entire survey, use of strategies in the three main categories in relation to the four investigated variables. In this section, the Chi-square tests were used to check all of the individual CS items for significant variations by the four independent variables. The percentage of students' reporting a high use of CSs (3 and 4 in the CS questionnaire), and the observed Chi-square ( $\chi^2$ ) value were employed so as to demonstrate the strength of variation in use of each individual strategy. The individual strategies were presented here in order of the percentage of students in terms of each variable reported high use (3 and 4 in the CS questionnaire),

ranking from highest to lowest. In order to get a better understanding in an overall picture of the CSs, the forty-three individual items were reported being frequently used, analyzed in terms of each of the four investigated variables.

#### 4.4.1 Variation in Use of Individual Communication Strategies According to Gender of Students

In this section, the emphasis is on the individual CSs in terms of variation in CS use and the patterns of variation of CS use. The results of the Chi-square tests shown in Table 4.12 reveal significant variations in use of ten out of forty-three individual CS by this variable.

**Table 4.12 Variation in Use of Individual Communication Strategies According to Gender of Students**

Individual Communication strategies	% of high use (3 and 4)		Observed $\chi^2$
	Male	Female	
<b>Used more by female students- 8 strategies</b>			
<b>SCM15:</b> Using non-verbal expressions such as mime, gestures, and facial expressions	67.0	78.5	$\chi^2=7.21$ P<.01
<b>SCM6:</b> Thinking in Thai before speaking	63.3	76.4	$\chi^2=8.85$ P<.01
<b>SUM10:</b> Trying to translate into Thai little by little to understand what the speaker has said	62.4	74.8	$\chi^2=7.56$ P<.01
<b>SUM3:</b> Asking the interlocutor to slow down	53.2	70.6	$\chi^2=13.54$ P<.01
<b>SCM19:</b> Referring to a dictionary, a book, objects or materials	43.1	61.4	$\chi^2=13.40$ P<.01
<b>SCM14:</b> Spelling or writing out the intended words, phrases, or sentences	40.4	53.0	$\chi^2=6.14$ P<.05
<b>SCM16:</b> Appealing for assistance from other people around to clarify the interlocutor's message	35.8	52.4	$\chi^2=10.64$ P<.01
<b>SCM21:</b> Preparing the message by trying to anticipate what the interlocutor is going to say based on the context	36.7	47.5	$\chi^2=4.53$ P<.05
<b>Used more by male students - 2 strategies</b>			
<b>SMC4:</b> Feeling all right for taking risks while speaking	58.7	48.3	$\chi^2=4.16$ P<.05
<b>SMC5:</b> Not minding if one can't understand every single detail and trying to keep speaking	58.7	48.6	$\chi^2=3.97$ P<.05

The Chi-square test results shown in Table 5.7 reveal the significant variations in students' use of individual CSs related to their gender, with a significantly greater percentage of female than male students reported high use of 8 CSs for coping with their oral communication breakdowns. Meanwhile, a significantly greater percentage of male than female students reported high use of 2 CSs.

A significantly greater percentage of female than male students reported employing CSs to convey a message to the interlocutor. Examples are "Spelling or writing out the intended words, phrases, or sentences" (SCM14); and "Preparing the message by trying to anticipate what the interlocutor is going to say based on the context" (SCM21). Moreover, a significantly higher percentage of female than male students also reported employing strategies to convey a message to the interlocutor such as "Appealing for assistance from other people around to clarify the interlocutor's message" (SCM16); "Appealing for assistance from the interlocutor" (SCM17), and "Using non-verbal expressions such as mime, gestures, and facial expressions" (SCM15). Regarding the strategies for understanding the message, they include "Asking the interlocutor to slow down" (SUM3); and "Trying to translate into Thai little by little to understand what the speaker has said" (SUM10).

Meanwhile, a significantly greater percentage of male than female students reported employing high use of CSs mainly to keep the conversation going, which are "Feeling all right for taking risks while speaking" (SMC4); and "Not minding if one can't understand every single detail and trying to keep speaking" (SMC5).

#### 4.4.2 Variation in Use of Individual Communication Strategies According to Type of Study Program

The Chi-square test results demonstrate that eight out of forty-three CSs varied significantly according to this variable. Table 4.13 below shows the variations in students' individual CS use according to their type of study program.

**Table 4.13 Variation in Use of Individual Communication Strategies According to Type of Study Program**

Individual Communication strategies Used more by English Education students - 8 strategies	% of high use (3 and 4)		Observed $\chi^2$
	English Education	Non-English Education	
<b>SCM9:</b> Making use of expressions which have been previously learnt	90.2	85.8	$\chi^2=4.33$ P<.05
<b>SCM15:</b> Using non-verbal expressions such as mime, gestures, and facial expressions	82.2	72.0	$\chi^2=14.11$ P<.001
<b>SMC7:</b> Speaking more slowly to gain time to think and keep the conversation going smoothly	79.5	71.8	$\chi^2=7.71$ P<.01
<b>SCM3:</b> Giving examples if the listener doesn't understand what one is saying	71.1	62.8	$\chi^2=7.37$ P<.01
<b>SCM1:</b> Using fillers (e.g. well, you know, okay, um, or uh) when one cannot think of what to say	67.6	61.4	$\chi^2=4.00$ P<.05
<b>SMC6:</b> Changing the way of saying things according to the context in order to continue conversation	67.4	58.6	$\chi^2=7.82$ P<.01
<b>SUM11:</b> Repeating, summarizing, paraphrasing what one has heard and asking one's interlocutor to confirm	57.5	48.2	$\chi^2=8.30$ P<.01
<b>SCM13:</b> Making up a new word in order to communicate a desired concept	53.3	46.5	$\chi^2=4.45$ P<.05

The results from the Chi-square tests shown in Table 4.13 reveal the significant variations in students' use of individual CSs related to their types of study program. A significantly higher percentage of students in the English Education program, than those in the Non-English Education program, reported high use of all 8 CSs. A closer look at the finding reveals that with significant differences related to

this variable, all of the 8 CSs were reported with high frequency use by more than 50 per cent of students in the English Education program, and 6 strategies were reported with high frequency of use by more than 50 per cent of those in the Non-English Education program.

A significantly greater percentage of students in the English Education program reported employing CSs to convey the message to the interlocutor, than those in the Non-English Education program. Examples are: “Making use of expressions which have been previously learnt” (SCM9); “Giving examples if the listener doesn't understand what one is saying” (SCM3); “Using fillers (e.g. well, you know, okay, um, or uh) when one cannot think of what to say” (SCM1); “Making up a new word in order to communicate a desired concept” (SCM13); and “Using non-verbal expressions such as mime, gestures, and facial expressions” (SCM15). In terms of the CSs for understanding the message, students reported “Repeating, summarizing, paraphrasing what one has heard and asking one's interlocutor to confirm” (SUM11). In respect of the CSs for maintaining the conversation, “Speaking more slowly to gain time to think and keep the conversation going smoothly” (SMC7); and “Changing the way of saying things according to the context in order to continue conversation” (SMC6).

#### **4.4.3 Variation in Use of Individual Communication Strategies According to Foreign Language Learning Experience**

This section considers the individual CSs regarding the variations in CS use as well as the patterns of variation of CS use. The results of the Chi-square tests reveal that five out of forty-three CSs varied significantly according to this variable, as shown below in Table 4.14.

**Table 4.14 Variation in Use of Individual Communication Strategies According to Foreign Language Learning Experience**

Individual Communication strategies	% of high use (3 and 4)		Observed $\chi^2$
	Only English	English+ or English++	
<b>Used more by students with more foreign language learning experience - 4 strategies</b>			
<b>SMC8:</b> Talking about something else to gain time to think	43.5	54.1	$\chi^2=8.02$ P<.01
<b>SMC5:</b> Not minding if one can't understand every single detail and trying to keep speaking	42.2	52.2	$\chi^2=7.19$ P<.01
<b>SCM20:</b> Drawing a picture	15.2	22.8	$\chi^2=6.16$ P<.05
<b>SUM12:</b> Giving up when one can't make oneself understood	11.0	17.3	$\chi^2=5.34$ P<.05
<b>Used more by students with limited foreign language learning experience- 1 strategy</b>			
<b>SCM15:</b> Using non-verbal expressions such as mime, gestures, and facial expressions	86.1	74.2	$\chi^2=14.32$ P<.001

The results from the Chi-square tests shown in Table 4.14 reveal a significantly higher percentage of students who were taking other foreign languages, apart from English language, than those who were taking only English language, reported high use of 4 strategies. Examples are: “Talking about something else to gain time to think” (SMC8) (54.1% students who were taking other foreign languages, apart from English language; 43.5% students who were taking only English language); and “Not minding if one can't understand every single detail and trying to keep speaking” (SMC5) (52.2% students who were taking other foreign languages, apart from English language; 42.2% students who were taking only English language as a foreign language);

In contrast, a significantly greater percentage of students who were taking only English language reported employing high use of CSs mainly to convey a message to the interlocutor, which is ‘Using non-verbal expressions such as mime, gestures, and

facial expressions' (SCM15) (86.1% students who were taking only English language as a foreign language; 74.2% students who were taking other foreign languages, apart from English language).

#### 4.4.4 Variation in Use of Individual Communication Strategies According to Attitude towards speaking English

The Chi-square test results demonstrate that thirteen out of forty-three CSs varied significantly according to this variable. When compared with the other three variables, this variable seems to have the strongest relationships with students' choices of strategy use, with a larger proportion of significant variations in students' use of individual strategies across the communication strategy questionnaire found to be related to their attitude towards speaking English. Table 4.15 shows the individual CS with significant variations according to their attitude towards speaking English.

**Table 4.15 Variation in Use of Individual Communication Strategies According to Attitude towards speaking English**

Individual Communication strategies	% of high use (3 and 4)		Observed $\chi^2$
	Positive	Negative	
<b>Used more by students with positive attitude - 13 strategies</b>			
<b>SMC2:</b> Paying attention to the speaker's eye contact, facial expression and gestures	89.8	76.4	$\chi^2 = 9.62$ P<.01
<b>SUM8:</b> Trying to catch the speaker's main point	87.7	76.4	$\chi^2 = 5.90$ P<.05
<b>SCM10:</b> Making use of expressions found in some sources of media	85.2	65.5	$\chi^2 = 15.15$ P<.01
<b>SMC1:</b> Trying to relax and enjoy the conversation	84.5	72.7	$\chi^2 = 5.24$ P<.05
<b>SMC3:</b> Actively encouraging oneself to express what one wants to say	82.4	61.8	$\chi^2 = 14.46$ P<.01
<b>SMC7:</b> Speaking more slowly to gain time to think and keep the conversation going smoothly	76.4	63.6	$\chi^2 = 4.58$ P<.05
<b>SUM1:</b> Trying to catch every word that the speaker uses	74.4	52.7	$\chi^2 = 12.37$ P<.01

**Table 4.15 Variation in Use of Individual Communication Strategies According to Attitude towards speaking English (Cont.)**

Individual Communication strategies	% of high use (3 and 4)		Observed $\chi^2$
	Positive	Negative	
<b>Used more by students with positive attitude - 13 strategies</b>			
<b>SCM3:</b> Giving examples if the listener doesn't understand what one is saying	67.9	52.7	$\chi^2=5.39$ P<.05
<b>SMC6:</b> Changing the way of saying things according to the context in order to continue conversation	64.1	45.5	$\chi^2=7.72$ P<.01
<b>SCM8:</b> Correcting one's own pronunciation, grammar and lexical mistakes	59.2	45.5	$\chi^2=4.01$ P<.05
<b>SMC4:</b> Feeling all right for taking risks while speaking	51.1	23.6	$\chi^2=15.65$ P<.01
<b>SMC5:</b> Not minding if one can't understand every single detail and trying to keep speaking	51.1	27.3	$\chi^2=11.79$ P<.01
<b>SCM21:</b> Preparing the message by trying to anticipate what the interlocutor is going to say based on the context	47.5	25.5	$\chi^2=10.17$ P<.01

The results from the Chi-square tests shown in Table 4.15 reveal the significant variations in students' use of individual CSs related to their attitude towards speaking English. A significantly higher percentage of students with positive attitude towards speaking English than those with negative attitude towards speaking English reported high use of all 13 CSs.

A significantly greater percentage of students with positive attitude towards speaking English reported employing high use of CSs to convey a message to the interlocutor than those with negative attitude towards speaking English. Examples are: "Making use of expressions found in some sources of media" (SCM10); "Giving examples if the listener doesn't understand what one is saying" (SCM3); "Correcting one's own pronunciation, grammar and lexical mistakes" (SCM8); and "Preparing the message by trying to anticipate what the interlocutor is going to say based on the context" (SCM21). A significantly higher percentage of

students with positive attitude towards speaking English than those with negative attitude towards speaking English, also reported employing CSs to understand the message. These reported strategies are: “Trying to catch the speaker's main point” (SUM8); and “Trying to catch every word that the speaker uses” (SUM1).

The other significant variations patterns in students' individual CS use with high frequency level illustrates that a significantly greater percentage students with positive attitude towards speaking English than those with negative attitude towards speaking English reported employing CSs to maintain the conversation. The reported strategies are “Paying attention to the speaker's eye contact, facial expressions and gestures” (SMC2); “Trying to relax and enjoy the conversation” (SMC1); “Actively encouraging oneself to express what one wants to say” (SMC3); “Speaking more slowly to gain time to think and keep the conversation going smoothly” (SMC7); “Changing the way of saying things according to the context in order to continue conversation” (SMC6); “Feeling all right for taking risks while speaking” (SMC4); and “Not minding if one can't understand every single detail and trying to keep speaking” (SMC5).

In the following part, factor analysis will be used in order to seek the underlying patterns among the investigated variables, to identify complex interrelationships among the investigated variables as well as factors strongly related to the variables of the present study.

## 4.5 Factor analysis

Factor analysis is a way of describing the nature of underlying patterns among a large number of variables (Cohen and Manion, 1994). Meyers, Gamst and Guarino (2006) categorized factor analysis into two main types: exploratory and confirmatory. The exploratory factor analysis allows researchers to explore the correlations between the variables to generate the factor structure based on those relationships, while the confirmatory factor analysis allows researchers to have a preceding assumption for a factor structure in which they believe that it underlines the variables under study. The strength of factor analysis is that it provides an empirical basis for reducing a large number of variables to a small number of factors, with each factor representing a set of variables that are moderately or highly correlated with each other (Shohamy, 1990; Robson, 2000; and Gall, Gall, and Borg, 2007). Further, Howitt and Cramer (2011) remark that factor analysis is more subjective and judgmental than most statistical techniques. It is because of the subjectivity of interpreting the meaning of factors as well as many variants of factor analysis. For the present study, since the researcher did not have a clear idea or pre-assumption about what the factor structure might be, factor analysis was intended to be exploratory, rather than confirmatory, so as to figure out the underlying factors that might have some sort of relationship with the set of variables and the data in the present study.

In order to seek the underlying structure of the communication strategies across the strategy inventory, a principal component factor analysis, and the varimax rotation were conducted on the correlation of twenty-six CSs which were found significantly different according to the four investigated variables. Initially, six factors

were extracted with the eigenvalues equal to or greater than 1.00. As can be seen in Table 4.16 below presents the eigenvalues or the sums of squared loadings of the extracted six factors.

**Table 4.16: The Sum of Squared Factor Loadings of the Initial Six Factors**

Factors	Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings (Eigenvalues)		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative%
1	5.59	19.96	19.96
2	3.26	11.63	31.59
3	1.86	6.64	38.23
4	1.57	5.61	43.83
5	1.21	4.33	48.16
6	1.04	3.71	51.87

Table 4.16 demonstrates that the six factors accounted for 51.87% of the variability among 26 CSs which were found significantly varied according to the four investigated variables as mentioned earlier. Actually, there could be as many factors as variables which were needed to be started off with and this could make it difficult to interpret. Thus, the researcher decided to examine further by reducing the number of factors to four and five. The results of the varimax rotation show slightly different groupings of strategies between four and five factors. Having also taken the factor interpretation into consideration, the researcher found that it would be more straightforward to interpret the extracted four factors rather than the initial six or five extracted ones.

As can be seen in Table 4.16, the percentage of variance suggests that almost 50 per cent of the total variation between the frequencies of strategy use can be explained by the first four principal components. In other words, the 43.83 percent of the variability was not explained by the four factors; as a result, other influences may make a difference in strategy use. Seeking the major patterns among variables,

factor loadings follow all of the rules for correlation coefficients, which vary from -1.00 through 0.00 to +1.00 (Howitt and Cramer, 2011). Besides, a factor loading is 0.3 or higher, the variable should be included as one of the factor measures and used to define the factor (Foster et al., 2006; Howitt and Cramer, 2011).

In the present study, each factor has been described in terms of the relationship of the majority of the communication strategy items which share common characteristics under the same factor. Table 4.17 below presents the four extracted factors, the factor loading on each strategy item, and the percentage of variance accounted for by each factor.

**Table 4.17: List of the Four Extracted Factors**

<b>Factor 1: Strategies for keeping the conversation going (8 items)</b>	<b>Factor Loading</b>	<b>% of variance</b>
SMC5: Not minding if one can't understand every single detail and trying to keep speaking	.73	
SMC3: Actively encouraging oneself to express what one wants to say	.72	
SMC1: Trying to relax and enjoy the conversation	.72	
SMC2: Paying attention to the speaker's eye contact, facial expression and gestures	.71	19.96
SMC6: Changing the way of saying things according to the context in order to continue conversation	.70	
SMC4: Feeling all right for taking risks while speaking	.68	
SMC7: Speaking more slowly to gain time to think and keep the conversation going smoothly	.55	
SMC8: Talking about something else to gain time to think	.51	
<b>Factor 2: Strategies for clarifying utterances (7 items)</b>	<b>Factor Loading</b>	<b>% of variance</b>
SCM17: Appealing for assistance from the interlocutor	.713	
SCM16: Appealing for assistance from other people around to clarify the interlocutor's message	.697	
SCM19: Referring to a dictionary, a book, objects or materials	.670	11.63
SCM20: Drawing a picture	.577	

**Table 4.17: List of the Four Extracted Factors (Cont.)**

<b>Factor 2: Strategies for clarifying utterances (7 items) (Cont.)</b>	<b>Factor Loading</b>	<b>% of variance</b>
SCM21: Preparing the message by trying to anticipate what the interlocutor is going to say based on the context	.509	11.63
SCM6: Thinking in Thai before speaking	.394	
SCM1: Using fillers (e.g. well, you know, okay, um, or uh) when one cannot think of what to say	.370	
<b>Factor 3: Strategies for sending a message relying on other sources (5 items)</b>	<b>Factor Loading</b>	<b>% of variance</b>
SCM9: Making use of expressions which have been previously learnt	.730	6.64
SCM10: Making use of expressions found in some sources of media	.690	
SCM8: Correcting one's own pronunciation, grammar and lexical mistakes	.521	
SCM15: Using non-verbal expressions such as mime, gestures, and facial expressions	.446	
SCM3: Giving examples if the listener doesn't understand what one is saying	.403	
<b>Factor 4: Strategies for getting the message (6 items)</b>	<b>Factor Loading</b>	<b>% of variance</b>
SUM10: Trying to translate into native language little by little to understand what the speaker has said	.692	5.61
SUM1: Trying to catch every word that the speaker uses.	.643	
SUM3: Asking the interlocutor to slow down	.590	
SUM11: Repeating, summarizing, paraphrasing what one has heard and ask one's interlocutor to confirm	.508	
SUM8: Trying to catch the speaker's main point	.461	
SUM12: Giving up when one can't make oneself understood	.459	

Table 4.17 illustrates the details of the four extracted factors as the results of the factor analysis, that is varimax rotation. It shows that:

- Factor 1, '**Strategies for keeping the conversation going**' accounted for 19.96 per cent of the variance among the CSs in the strategy questionnaire for the present study. It comprised eight of the communication strategies for maintaining the conversation while communication. The five strategies were used based on students' self-motivation, for example, "Feeling all right for taking risks while speaking" (SMC4); "Actively encouraging oneself to express what one wants to say" (SMC3); and "Trying to relax

and enjoy the conversation” (‘SMC1). Meanwhile, another three strategies were used relying on the context and the interlocutor. Those are: “Changing the way of saying things according to the context in order to continue conversation” (SMC6); “Paying attention to the speaker's eye contact, facial expression and gestures” (SMC2); and “Speaking more slowly to gain time to think and keep the conversation going smoothly” (SMC7).

- Factor 2, ‘**Strategies for clarifying utterances**’ accounted for 11.63 per cent of the whole strategy variance. It consists of seven strategies for getting the message across to the interlocutor. These strategies entail: 1) self-reliant strategy, which is “Preparing the message by trying to anticipate what the interlocutor is going to say based on the context”(SCM21); 2) non-self-reliant strategies, which involve students’ reliance on the interlocutor, another person, or other sources, that is, “Appealing for assistance from other people around to clarify the interlocutor's message”(SCM16); “Appealing for assistance from the interlocutor” (SCM17); “Referring to a dictionary, a book, objects or materials”; ‘SCM20: Drawing a picture’ (SCM19); 3) time-gaining strategies, namely “Using fillers (e.g. well, you know, okay, um, or uh) when one cannot think of what to say” (SCM1); and 4) strategies related to convey an intended message which are likely to be time-consuming. This fourth group includes ‘SCM6: Thinking in Thai before speaking’.
- Factor 3 which is termed as ‘**Strategies for sending a message relying on other sources**’, accounted for 6.64 per cent of the variance of the strategy

items. This factor comprises five strategies. Five strategies of this factor were divided into two groups: students' language exposure and language learning and non-verbal strategies. Students' language exposure and language learning strategies are: "Making use of expressions which have been previously learnt" (SCM9); "Making use of expressions found in some sources of media" (SCM10); "Correcting one's own pronunciation, grammar and lexical mistakes" (SCM8); and "Giving examples if the listener doesn't understand what one is saying" (SCM3). Meanwhile, non-verbal strategy is "Using non-verbal expressions such as mime, gestures, and facial expressions" (SCM15).

- Factor 4 which is termed as '**Strategies for getting the message**', accounted for 5.61 percent of the variance of the strategy items. All of the strategies reported being employed in order to understand the message are divided into two groups: direct and indirect. The former comprises two strategies, which are "Asking the interlocutor to slow down" (SUM3); and "Repeating, summarizing, paraphrasing what one has heard and ask one's interlocutor to confirm" (SUM11); whereas, the latter four strategies are considered as indirect strategies, which are "Trying to catch the speaker's main point" (SUM8); "Trying to catch every word that the speaker uses" (SUM1); "Trying to translate into Thai little by little to understand what the speaker has said" (SUM10); and "Giving up when one can't make oneself understood" (SUM12).

As can be seen above, the underlying factors of communication strategies, the percentage of variance of each factor, and the factor loading for each strategy item have been identified. These enable the researcher to examine which of these factors are strongly related to each of the four investigated variables.

In exploring such a strong relationship, the factors which are strongly related to a particular variable are focused. For the purpose of the discussions of the factor analysis results in the following section, as suggested by Seliger and Shohamy (1990), the criteria for the strong relation between the factors and each of the variables. That is, if half or more of the communication strategies in that particular factor have a loading of .50 or more, showing a significant variation in relation to that variable, a factor can be accepted to be strongly related to that variable.

In the present investigation, the results of the varimax rotation show that one factor was strongly related to 'gender of students', and two factors appeared to have a strong relationship with 'attitude towards speaking English'. None of factors were found having strong relationship with 'type of study program' or 'foreign language learning experience'. The full details of the factors which were found to be strongly related to each of the variables are presented in Table 4.18 and Table 4.19 below.

#### **4.5.1 Factors Strongly Related to 'Gender of Students'**

Table 4.18 below illustrates the factor which was strongly related to 'gender of students'. As reported in Sections 4.3.1-4.3.6, the results from ANOVA did not show significant variations in the students' reported use of CSs in overall but under the SCM category according to their gender, the results of Chi-square tests reveal significant variations in students' reported use of some individual strategies. According to the results of the factor analysis, Factor 2, 'Strategies for clarifying

utterances' was found to be strong related to this variable. It involves the students' CS use for conveying the message to the interlocutor rather than strategies for understanding the message and maintaining the conversation.

**Table 4.18 Factor Strongly Related to 'Gender of Students'**

<b>Factor 2: Strategies for clarifying utterances (7 items)</b>	<b>Factor Loading</b>	<b>Comments</b>
SCM17: Appealing for assistance from the interlocutor	.713	Female > Male
SCM16: Appealing for assistance from other people around to clarify the interlocutor's message	.697	Female > Male
SCM19: Referring to a dictionary, a book, objects or materials	.670	Female > Male
SCM20: Drawing a picture	.577	N.S.
SCM21: Preparing the message by trying to anticipate what the interlocutor is going to say based on the context	.509	Female > Male
SCM6: Thinking in Thai before speaking	.394	Female > Male
SCM1: Using fillers (e.g. well, you know, okay, um, or uh) when one cannot think of what to say	.370	N.S.

#### **4.5.2 Factors Strongly Related to 'Attitude towards speaking English'**

Table 4.19 below demonstrates Factors 1 and 3, which were found to be strongly related to this variable. The results of ANOVA revealed the significant variations in frequency of strategy use in the overall and under the SCM category in relation to their attitude towards speaking English, with the students who hold positive attitude towards reported employing the strategies significantly more frequently than did those who hold negative attitude. The results of the factor analysis have confirmed the results of ANOVA in respect of variations in students' reported use of strategies under the SCM and SMC categories.

**Table 4.19 Factors Strongly Related to ‘Attitude towards speaking English’**

<b>Factor 1: Strategies for keeping the conversation going (8 items)</b>	<b>Factor Loading</b>	<b>Comments</b>
SMC5: Not minding if one can't understand every single detail and trying to keep speaking	.73	Positive>Negative
SMC3: Actively encouraging oneself to express what one wants to say	.72	Positive>Negative
SMC1: Trying to relax and enjoy the conversation	.72	Positive>Negative
SMC2: Paying attention to the speaker's eye contact, facial expression and gestures	.71	Positive>Negative
SMC6: Changing the way of saying things according to the context in order to continue the conversation	.70	Positive>Negative
SMC4: Feeling all right for taking risks while speaking	.68	Positive>Negative
SMC7: Speaking more slowly to gain time to think and keep the conversation going smoothly	.55	Positive>Negative
SMC8: Talking about something else to gain time to think	.51	N.S.
<b>Factor 3: Strategies for sending a message relying on other sources (5 items)</b>	<b>Factor Loading</b>	<b>Comments</b>
SCM9: Making use of expressions which have been previously learnt	.730	N.S.
SCM10: Making use of expressions found in some sources of media	.690	Positive>Negative
SCM8: Correcting one's own pronunciation, grammar and lexical mistakes	.521	Positive>Negative
SCM15: Using non-verbal expressions such as mime, gestures, and facial expressions	.446	N.S.
SCM3: Giving examples if the listener doesn't understand what one is saying	.403	Positive>Negative

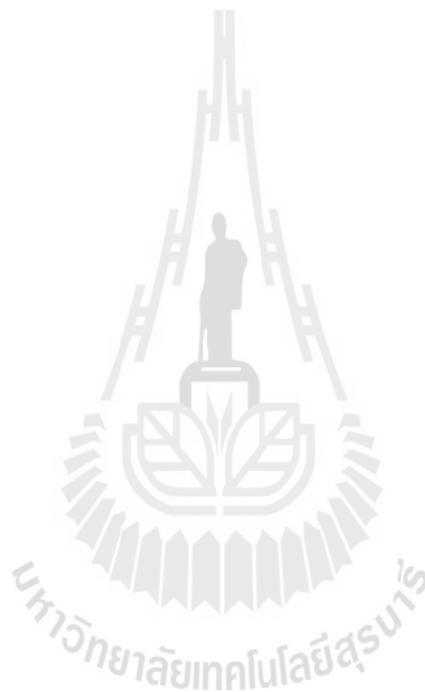
## 4.6 Summary

This chapter illustrates the frequency of communication strategy use reported by 949 English-major students studying at the tertiary level in the Northeast of Thailand at different layers. The description of the frequency of students' CS use, based on the mean frequency scores, was provided at three main levels: 1) an overall strategy use; 2) CS use in three main categories: SCM, SUM, and SMC; and 3) CS use at the 43 individual items. The summary of each focal result is as follows:

- Regarding the frequency of the overall strategy use, 949 English-majors reported employing CSs at the moderate level.

- According to the results from ANOVA, significant variations in frequency of students' use were found related to only one out of the four variables, which is students' attitude towards speaking English. Meanwhile, no significance in frequency of student's reported overall CS use was found according to the other three investigated variables: gender of students, type of study program, and foreign language learning experience.
- In terms of the frequency of use of communication strategies in the SCM, SUM, and SMC categories, 949 English-major students reported employing strategies at the moderate level.
- In terms of the frequency of use of 43 individual CSs, the students reported employing 10 strategies at the high level, 30 strategies at the moderate level, while 3 strategies at the low level.
- According to the results of Chi-square tests, significant variations in students' reported were found related to all the four investigated variables.
- Four factors (Factor 1 – Factor 4) were extracted as the results of factor analysis. The results of the factor analysis provide parallel evidence to the findings obtained through the different levels of ANOVA.
- Factor 1 'Strategies for keeping the conversation going' and Factor 3 'Strategies for sending a message relying on other sources' were found to be strongly related to students' attitude towards speaking English.
- Factor 2 'Strategies for clarifying utterances' was found to be strongly related to gender of students.

In conclusion, the results of the present study have provided us with more useful and additional information for further research regarding CS use by English majors studying at the tertiary level in the Northeast of Thailand. Chapter 5 reports the results from another research perspective: the qualitative analysis of data obtained through the semi-structured interviews.



# **CHAPTER 5**

## **REASONS FOR STUDENTS' REPORTED USE OF COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES**

### **5.1 Introduction and Purpose of the Chapter**

The aims of this chapter are: 1) to report the results of the qualitative data obtained through the semi-structured interviews which were conducted with 45 English-major students studying at the tertiary level in the Northeast of Thailand; and 2) to explore the students' reasons for frequent and infrequent use of CSs.

As mentioned earlier, the quantitative data were collected and analyzed to examine the frequency of students' use of CS and the variations in the frequency of students' CS use in relation to the four investigated variables: gender of students, type of study program, foreign language learning experience, and attitude towards speaking English. After the CS questionnaires were conducted with the students at each of the participating universities, the semi-structured interviews were conducted with 45 English-major students based on convenience and availability.

In the present investigation, the interviews were carried out in Thai to ensure greater accuracy of research results. The interviews were recorded with students' permission and then transcribed. Then the transcriptions were translated from Thai into English. The validation through back translation was done by two of the researcher's colleagues whose English and Thai are comparatively good.

As suggested by Strauss and Corbin (1990), Punch (2005), and Neuman (2006), the coding technique has been used to analyze the interview transcriptions. The concrete coding has been described as follows: The number shows the sequences of the students interviewed from the 9 participating universities, namely, 'KKU 1' to 'KKU 5' are the students interviewed from Khon Kaen University, 'RMSU 6' to 'RMSU 10' mean the students interviewed from Rajabhat Maha Sarakham University, 'RMUTS 11' to 'RMUTS 15' cover the students interviewed from Rajamangala University of Technology Isan, Sakon Nakhon Campus, 'MU 16' to 'MU 20' refer to the students interviewed from Mahasarakham University, 'UDRU 21' to 'UDRU 25' indicate the students interviewed from Udon Thani Rajabhat University, 'NRRU 26' to 'NRRU 30' are the students from Nakhon Ratchasima Rajabhat University, 'RERU 31' to 'RERU 35' shows the students interviewed from Roi Et Rajabhat University, 'RMUTK 36' to 'RMUTK 40' mean the students interviewed from Rajamangala University of Technology Isan, Khonkaen Campus, and 'RMUTN 41' to 'RMUTN 45' indicate the students interviewed from Rajamangala University of Technology Isan, Nakhon Ratchasima Campus.

As proposed by Intaraprasert (2000), the strategies could be classified based on the purpose of strategy use. Therefore, for the present study, CS classification system was conducted according to the reported purpose of strategy use. When all the interview data obtained were transcribed, all reasons from each informant were made a list by the researcher. It was found that different reasons were given by different informants. To deal with such a variety of reasons, the researcher has been suggested by the supervisor to take into consideration only the top and bottom five strategies.

At this stage, the process and the results of the analysis of the data obtained through the semi-structured interviews are presented in the following section.

## **5.2 Reasons for Students' Reported Frequent and Infrequent Use of Certain Strategies**

In order to find out the reasons behind students' choices of CS use, the students were asked why they reported employing certain strategies frequently and certain strategies infrequently. A variety of reasons have been provided. All the answers of were explored carefully so as to figure out the common patterns of reasons with the same strategy.

To deal with the qualitative data, the data were transcribed more or less verbatim and translated into English for the content analysis. The reasons of use of each strategy have been categorized into small groups. The subgroups were identified and labeled. They were validated by the researcher's supervisor and four Ph.D. students majoring in Language Studies at Suranaree University of Technology. Then the subgroups were put together. After that, the new categories were established from reasons which appeared to be similar under the frequent strategy use. In the same way, new categories emerged under the infrequent strategy use. The results of the semi-structured interviews are presented in the subsequent section.

### **5.2.1 Reasons for the Frequent Use of Certain Strategies**

According to the results of the present investigation, it was found that a strong relationship did not exist but significant differences in CS use in relation to students' gender and type of study program have been found at the SCM category. That means male or female students who were studying in either the English Education Program

or Non-English Education Program tended to use CSs for conveying the message to the interlocutor the most frequent when running into communication problems. As supported by the results of semi-structured interview, interviewees reported the most frequent use of SCM and SMC categories for conveying the message to the interlocutor as well as maintaining the conversation when confronting oral communication breakdowns. It was revealed that the common reasons why students reported employing certain strategies frequently when dealing with oral communication problems. Ten refined categories emerged as the ten reasons behind the participants' strategy choices: 1) Being familiar with certain strategies; 2) Being effective strategies in the communication; 3) Creating a pleasant atmosphere of conversation; 4) Being easy to understand for the interlocutor; 5) Having personal preferences with certain strategies; 6) Wishing to make the interlocutor understand; 7) Wishing to be fashionable; 8) Wishing to improve one's pronunciation; 9) Wishing to gain more linguistic knowledge; and 10) Wishing to improve language ability.

1) **Being familiar with certain strategies**

Being familiar with certain strategies is the first reason found from students' responses which explained their use of CSs. Some students reported employing certain strategies frequently because they usually speak Thai most of the time in their daily life. As a result, they used a literal translation when speaking. Some students reported that they have learnt certain strategies to the point so that they used those strategies automatically. Five of these strategies and some examples of the participants' reasons are presented below;

**SCM6: “Thinking in Thai before speaking”**

RERU33 .....*I usually think in Thai before speaking. I am familiar with this strategy. In fact, my teacher of English taught me to think in English but I cannot do that. I get used to thinking in Thai.....*

**SCM7: “Translating literally from Thai into English”**

RMUTS12 .....*When I speak with a foreigner, I cannot remember English words that I want to speak so that I use Thai words instead..... I get used to translating words literally.....I am familiar with this strategy.*

RMUTS 13 .....*When I speak English, I try to think about Thai words first. Then I arrange word by word in Thai as a sentence. I get used to using this strategy because when I translate literally from Thai to English, the interlocutor can understand what I am saying. Sometimes, when I make mistakes, my teacher of English helps me to correct it.*

**SCM9: “Making use of expressions which have been previously learnt”**

RMUTS12 .....*I get used to this kind of strategy. I often use those expressions I have learnt so that I can remember and use them when speaking. I usually use those sentences when I speak English; as a result, I can remember them and use them all the time.*

MU16 *I often use this strategy because I often hear my teacher use those words while teaching. Those sentences are not language expressions in textbooks but I can apply those expressions in my daily life. As a result, I can use those words or sentences automatically. Sometimes, I was assigned to do oral presentation. I have a chance to practice speaking. My teacher gave me a topic to present. I have been taught how to speak properly and correctly. Thus, I often use this kind of strategy.*

**SCM12: “Using synonyms, antonyms and familiar words, phrases, or sentences”**

KKU1 *I often use this strategy. In fact, I usually use synonym in writing but not in speaking. However, in case I have to speak with a foreigner, for example, if I want to change the topic, I remember what kind of words I can use. Those words pop up in my head and I know how to use them automatically. As a result, I get used to using those words or sentences.*

**SUM8: “Trying to catch the speaker’s main point”**

RMUTS15 *.....I try to catch the main point because I think it is supposed to be what I think. I try to catch the key words when speaking in English. If I try to catch every single word and translate those words, I cannot understand all of those words. I think it is useless. In case I really don't understand the interlocutor's message, I prefer guessing word meaning by catching key words. Therefore, when I speak with foreigners I usually use this strategy. I get used to using it.....*

**2) Being effective strategies in the communication**

Some students reported using certain strategies because those strategies were workable and correct. They were confident that they can make use of it in a real situation as well as allow students and the interlocutor to understand each other's messages. Two strategies that were frequently used because they were reportedly effective and some examples of the participants' reasons can be seen below:

**SCM9: “Making use of expressions which have been previously learnt”**

KKU3 *I always use this strategy because I have learnt those language expressions for several times..... I am sure that they are correct.*

UDRU25 *I often use this strategy because I am confident that those sentences that I have learnt are correct grammar. In my opinion, I think those sentences are simple sentences which enable both the interlocutor and me to understand each other.*

**SCM10: “Making use of expressions found in some sources of media”**

RMSU7 *.....I often watch TV so that I remember those words automatically. I frequently hear those words, which make me familiar with those words. One more thing, those words are used on the media, which means they are correct and can be used in real situations. I am confident that those sentences are correct and I strongly believe that I can make use of them in real situations.*

MU16 *.....When I was young, I enjoyed playing computer games. I played English games. I was familiar with the commands in English so that I used some words I heard from computer games to communicate with other people. ...I am pretty sure that this strategy can make my statements more beautiful and precise..... Especially, words which appear in journals or newspapers are useable and easy to understand.*

### 3) Creating a pleasant atmosphere of conversation

Some students reported that they wanted to create a pleasant atmosphere of conversation in order to encourage themselves to speak and enjoy speaking, impress the interlocutor and make the conversation interesting and lively. Three of these strategies and some examples of the participants' reasons are seen below;

#### SCM12: "Using synonyms, antonyms and familiar words, phrases, or sentences"

- RMUTS11 ..... *I have learnt those words since primary and up to high school level. I think they are easy to remember. In addition, those kinds of words keep the conversation interesting and not monotonous.....*
- MU19 *I often use this strategy because I don't want to use the same word all the time. I think it is repetitious. Using synonyms, antonyms, antonyms and familiar words not only help me gain more knowledge but also make the conversation more lively.....*

#### SCM15: "Using non-verbal expressions such as mime, gestures, and facial Expressions"

- RMUTK37 .....*it enables me to be relaxed and get accustomed to the interlocutor.....I find that speaking English while using body language is another way to make the conversation more interesting.....*

#### SMC1: "Trying to relax and enjoy the conversation"

- RMSU10 .....*It makes me desire to speak. It enables me to keep the conversation going continuously. Besides, this strategy creates a good atmosphere of conversation as well as the interlocutor may feel relaxed.....*

### 4) Being easy to understand the interlocutor

Some students reported that they used certain strategies because those strategies are easy to understand when communicating in English. Below are some examples:

**SCM9: “Making use of expressions which have been previously learnt”**

RMUTK36 *When I was in high school, my teacher taught me such informative language lessons.....I often use this strategy because those sentences are polite and it is easier for the interlocutor to understand my messages and better than translating the message from English into Thai.....*

**SCM11: “Reducing the message and using simple expressions”**

KKU2 *.....sometimes I have to communicate with the interlocutor with a long sentence, it is difficult for the interlocutor to understand my messages. I use this strategy because it helps to make my messages easy to understand. It is also systematically and concise.....*

**5) Having personal preferences with certain strategies**

Some students reported that they used certain strategies based on their personal preferences. They wanted to use a variety of vocabulary in order to make the conversation lively and interesting. They also wanted to use simple words or sentences in order to understand each other. Frequent use of three CSs and infrequent use of eight CSs have been used for this reason. Examples are:

**SCM11: “Reducing the message and using simple expressions”**

RMUTS14 *I like to use this strategy because I don't like to speak in long sentences. I think the shorter, the better.....*

**SCM12: “Using synonyms, antonyms and familiar words, phrases, or sentences”**

RMSU9 *.....I use synonyms, antonyms, or phrases because I don't want to make my speaking repetitious. I like to use this strategy because I don't want to use the same word all the time.....*

**SCM15: “Using non-verbal expressions such as mime, gestures, and facial expression”**

RERU32 *I often use body language because I cannot remember the word that I want to say. In my opinion, it seems to me that speaking English is going well with acting. This strategy makes my conversation more interesting. I like to use this strategy because it enables me to get more familiar with the interlocutor and make the conversation smooth.*

## 6) Wishing to make themselves understood

Some students reported that they used certain strategies when the interlocutor does not understand their intended message. Three strategies reported being used frequently so as to make themselves understood. Some examples of the participants' reasons are shown below;

### SCM3: “Giving examples if the listener doesn’t understand what one is saying”

KKU1 *.....When speaking, I give examples in order to help the interlocutor get my message. I think he will get a better understanding.... I want the interlocutor to catch what I said.*

### SCM12: “Using synonyms, antonyms and familiar words, phrases, or sentences”

MU16 *I often use this strategy.... For example, I speak with my teacher; I have to use appropriate words. In the meantime, when I speak to my students, I will use different words from those that I have said to my*

MU16 *teacher. For example, I would say ‘I am exhausted’ to my teacher; ‘I am tired’ to my students. It is depends on the interlocutor’s language proficiency level, the status of interlocutor (e.g. teachers, friends). I use this strategy in order to make the interlocutor understand the message.*

### SCM15: “Using non-verbal expressions such as mime, gestures, and facial expressions”

RMUTS13 *I use body language because I can’t find words to speak. I have a limited of vocabulary knowledge. I think this strategy can help the interlocutor understand what I am saying.....*

UDRU22 *I use this strategy not only to speak English but also Thai. I use it automatically. I also use this strategy to explain what I am talking about in order to help the interlocutor get the message easily and precisely.*

## 7) Wishing to be fashionable

Some students reported that they used a certain strategy because they wanted to be fashionable. They felt that words or sentences that they have learnt or heard were up to date. Besides, they found that teenagers’ language allowed them to be

fashionable as well. Only one strategy was frequently used because of being fashionable and some examples of the participants' reasons are presented below:

**SCM10: 'Making use of expressions found in some sources of media'**

KKU1 *.....I think the sentences that I have heard through the media are fashionable, up to date. In my view, when I use these expressions, I will be fashionable.....*

MU18 *.....I often use facebook and watch youtube website that makes me get accustomed to those words.....I think the words or sentences that I have heard are fashionable as well as it is a teenager's language. I think if I use teenagers' language, I will be fashionable.....*

**8) Wishing to improve one's pronunciation**

Some students found that pronunciation is important when communicating. Therefore, they used certain strategies so as to pronounce words properly and correctly. Two of these strategies and some examples of the participants' reasons are seen below;

**SCM8: "Correcting one's own pronunciation, grammar and lexical mistakes"**

KKU2 *I always use this strategy. For example, I talk about the past. I said "I went to the market yesterday. I buy banana." At the time, I realized that I used wrong verb. So I corrected myself immediately by saying from 'I buy' to 'I bought'. I want to practice and improve speaking skill and want to pronounce words correctly. When I realize that I say something wrong I do not want to let it go. I want to correct myself as well as make the interlocutor understand what I said.*

**SUM2: "Asking the interlocutor for a repetition"**

RERU33 *I ask the interlocutor for a repetition because I want to learn and recognize new words and pronounce them correctly. I want to check whether what I have heard is correct or not .....*

**9) Wishing to gain more linguistic knowledge**

Some students reported that they realized that they have insufficient vocabulary knowledge. As a result of it, they used certain strategies in order to learn

and gain more linguistic knowledge. There were two strategies that the students reported using frequently because of this reason. Following are some examples of the participants' reasons.

**SCM9: “Making use of expressions which have been previously learnt”**

MU17 *I always use this strategy because I am confident that those sentences that I have learnt are correct and I also use those sentences in order to expand my vocabulary knowledge.*

**SCM10: “Making use of expressions found in some sources of media”**

KKU2 *.....I use this strategy because I want to practice and review what I have learnt from the media. Therefore, when I have a chance to speak English, I try to use it. In my view, those words or sentences also make the conversation more interesting. I want to learn new words as well as idioms. The more I use those words, the better I can remember them.*

KKU5 *I watch the TV program by Aj.Adam. He teaches English with Thai subtitle. Then I use those words or phrases that I can remember correctly to speak with the interlocutor..... Moreover, I use this strategy because I want to practice and gain more linguistic knowledge....*

**10) Wishing to improve language ability**

Some students reported that they use certain strategies in order to practice and improve their language ability. Moreover, they reported that they used certain strategies because they wanted to review what they have learnt or heard as well as they wanted to use new words so as to improve their speaking skill. Therefore, they employed them frequently. Three strategies are frequently employed as they wanted to improve one's language ability. Some examples of the participants' reason are presented below;

**SCM8: “Correcting one's own pronunciation, grammar and lexical mistakes”**

RMUTS15 *.....I am afraid that the word meaning may be changed that leads the interlocutor to get misunderstanding. I want to practice and improve*

*my speaking skill. In my opinion, I think when I correct my mistakes at the time of speaking, I will learn and remember it and the next time I won't make the same mistake.*

**SCM10: “Making use of expressions found in some sources of media”**

RERU31 *I make use of words that I found in social media because I think if I use those words, the interlocutor can understand my messages. I find that many foreigners like to connect with others through social media; so I try to gain more knowledge by acquiring language in some sources of media, like social network. I also want to try to use new words from media in order to practice and improve my speaking skill.*

**SCM12: “Using synonyms, antonyms and familiar words, phrases, or sentences”**

RMSU6 *First of all I use this strategy because I want to add a variety to the conversation. The more I use those words, the better I can remember them. ....I want to review what I have learnt and improve my language ability....*

**5.2.2 Reasons for the Infrequent use of Certain Strategies**

In response to the research question ‘Why do students report employing certain communication strategies frequently and certain strategies infrequently?’ the same forty-five participants were asked to provide the reasons for using certain CSs infrequently as well. The participants provided a variety of reasons. All the participants’ answers were examined and compared carefully in order to seek the common patterns of reasons within the same strategy. This process revealed seven categories which are the common reasons why participants reported employing certain strategies infrequently, when dealing with oral communication breakdowns. The seven categories are as follows: 1) Avoiding embarrassment; 2) Caring about the interlocutor’s feeling; 3) Wasting time; 4) Considering about manners and etiquette; 5) Avoiding the trap of pretending to understand; 6) Wishing to overcome oral communication breakdowns by oneself; and 7) Wishing to improve one’s speaking ability.

### 1) Avoiding embarrassment

When asked about the reasons they employed certain CSs infrequently, they reported that they did not want to be embarrassed. They were afraid of making mistakes while speaking. Two strategies infrequently used because of psychological factors and some examples of the participants' reasons are presented below:

#### SCM17: 'Appealing for assistance from the interlocutor'

KKU1 *When I am in doubt, I don't dare to appeal for help from the interlocutor. Because I am embarrassed. Sometimes, I don't know what to say.....*

#### SCM18: "Making a phone call to another person for assistance"

NRRU28 *..... In case, it is an important issue, I will ask the interlocutor directly. .... For me, I sometimes think that I am stupid because I cannot catch the interlocutor's message. In my view, when I solve problems by myself, I will find not only what I want to know, but I also gain more information which I can apply in other situations. However, I seldom use this strategy because I'm afraid that the interlocutor may think I am stupid. I don't want to feel like I am stupid.*

### 2) Caring about the interlocutor's feeling

Some students also wanted to respect and consider the interlocutor's feelings in order to give a good impression to other people. There are three strategies that the students reported using infrequently due to taking the interlocutor's feeling into consideration. Following are some examples of participants' reasons.

#### SCM18: "Making a phone call to another person for assistance"

RMSU8 *I never use this strategy because I don't want to disturb anybody. It is my problem so I think I prefer solving problems by myself. I am considerate of my friends. .... I am also afraid that the interlocutor may think that I am ignoring him.*

RMSU10 *I never make a phone call to my friends. In that situation, if I use this strategy, I think the interlocutor may feel bored. I think the interlocutor may wonder why I call my friends. In my opinion, I think the interlocutor wants me to speak with him in case I don't understand his message instead of making a call to somebody. I think he realizes that*

RMSU8 *I am not a native speaker so that if I don't understand his message, I should ask him directly.....*

**SCM19: “Referring to a dictionary, a book, objects or materials”**

NRRU28 *I seldom use this strategy because I hardly ever carry out a dictionary. If I want to look up a word's meaning, I will use a dictionary in my cellphone. However, in practice, I rarely look up words while communicating. The first reason is that I feel strange using that kind of strategy. It seems to me that if I use this strategy, I am offending the interlocutor. For example, while the interlocutor is speaking to me; I am looking up for the meaning of words. That means I have already lost my attention on him. As a result, I don't use this strategy....I am concerned about the interlocutor's feeling.*

**SUM12: ‘Giving up when one can't make oneself understood’**

KKU2 *..... I want to improve my speaking skill. For me, I am not good at speaking; so if I have a chance, I want to practice. I don't want to stop talking with the interlocutor because I don't want to make him feel adrift. I want the foreigners find that Thais are friendly as well as I enjoy exchanging ideas with them.....*

**3) Wasting time**

Some students reported that they did not want to waste either their time or the interlocutor's time using certain strategies. Three strategies that were used infrequently because of this time wasting notion are as follows:

**SCM16: “Appealing for assistance from other people around to clarify the interlocutor's message”**

RMSU9 *.....In my opinion, I think the problems happen immediately. If I ask for help from other people to clarify the interlocutor's message, I don't want to waste his time. I think this strategy is a waste of time. Besides, I don't want to keep the interlocutor waiting. I prefer making mistakes when speaking to keep him waiting. I also take manners into consideration.*

**SCM18: “Making a phone call to another person for assistance”**

RMSU6 *I never make a phone call to another person for assistance because I think it is a waste of time. I don't want to keep the interlocutor*

waiting. The conversation will take longer. The conversation will be boring. I think this strategy makes me not interesting.

MU16 *Actually, sometimes, when I want to know what the interlocutor is talking about. I will deal with this communication problem by using other strategies. In my opinion, I think this strategy is time-consuming. If I call my friends during the conversation, it will make the conversation prolonged or extended.....*

#### SCM20: “Drawing a picture”

KKU2 *I never use this strategy. I prefer speaking to the interlocutor to drawing a picture when dealing with oral communication breakdowns in English. I think drawing is difficult. It is a waste of time. I think this strategy will take a long time for me to finish drawing a picture. This kind of strategy is time-consuming. I don't want to keep the interlocutor waiting too long.....*

RMUTS11 *I think drawing a picture wastes my time and I don't want to bore.....*

#### 4) Considering about manners and etiquette

Some students reported that they used certain strategies because they were concerned about the manner and etiquette when speaking with the interlocutor in order to give a good impression to other people. Two strategies reported being used infrequently because of manners and etiquette considerations are shown below:

#### SCM17: “Appealing for assistance from the interlocutor”

RMSU9 *I seldom use this strategy because I think about manners. Suppose, if I ask for help from the interlocutor, then he asks me what I mean. I am afraid that I cannot explain to him. I am also considerate to ask him for help.*

#### SCM18: “Making a phone call to another person for assistance”

RMUTS14 *.....I don't think making a phone call to somebody for assistance cannot help me to cope with communication problem. I think when I make a call and ask for help from my friends, I afraid my friends could not get my message. I don't want to keep the interlocutor waiting. I think it is not a good manner to make a call while speaking with the interlocutor.*

NRRU26 *.....If I don't get the interlocutor's message, I will let him know that I don't understand and ask him for a repetition. I never use this strategy because I want to pay attention on the interlocutor. It is not a*

*good manner to keep someone waiting while speaking. I will ask the interlocutor to explain or speak slowly instead.....*

### 5) Avoiding the trap of pretending to understand

Some students used certain strategies because they did not want to pretend that they understood the message. On the other hand, they preferred telling the interlocutor that they did not understand directly. One strategy belongs to this group. Examples of participants' explanations regarding this reason are:

#### SMC9: "Pretending to understand in order to make attempt to carry on the conversation"

RERU31 *.....It is no use pretending to understand the message. I prefer asking the interlocutor what I have heard and understood is right or wrong.....*

RERU34 *I seldom use this strategy in order to maintain the conversation. In fact, I don't really have such a serious problem because my foreign friends and I generally talk about general topics. I don't think pretending to understand the message can solve communication problems. In my opinion, I will tell directly that I don't understand his message. Moreover, we often chat on facebook. When I don't understand their message, I look up vocabulary through a dictionary online.*

### 6) Wishing to overcome oral communication breakdowns by oneself

Some students reported that they seldom used certain strategies because they wanted to try their best. They did not want to give up. They believed that they can solve problems by themselves. Three strategies were used infrequently for this reason, as can be seen in the following instances.

#### SCM16: "Appealing for assistance from other people around to clarify the interlocutor's message"

MU17 *I seldom use this strategy because I am considerate. For example, while I am speaking with the interlocutor, then I ask for help from my friends due to communication problems. I don't want to keep him waiting. Sometimes my friends don't pay attention what I am saying,*

*as a result, I not only waste my time to explain to my friends, but also waste the interlocutor's time. I will try my best first. If I cannot deal with it, I will ask for help from my friends. Nevertheless, I prefer solving problems by myself.*

**SCM18: “Making a phone call to another person for assistance”**

MU17 ..... *If I call a friend of mine, my friend is busy or she/he is in a noisy place, or does not understand what I am saying, I need to speak and*

**SCM18: “Making a phone call to another person for assistance” (Cont.)**

MU17 *explain to him again and again. I think it is a waste of time. More than that, my friend's answer may touch a little point that I want to know. For me, when I encounter communication difficulties, I want to do my best. I prefer solving the problems by myself.*

**SUM12: “Giving up when one can't make oneself understood”**

RMUTK36 .....*I seldom give up when I cannot catch the interlocutor's message because I enjoy talking with foreigners. I like chatting and speaking with them. I want to make friends. I also want to solve problems by myself as much as I can. I want to do my best.*.....

**7) Wishing to improve one's speaking ability**

As reported in the interviews, some students reported that they seldom employed some certain strategies because they wanted to improve their speaking ability, i.e., get better at English. As a result, two strategies were reported to be used infrequently. Following are some examples of the participants' reasons.

**SCM16: “Appealing for assistance from other people around to clarify the interlocutor's message”**

MU16 *As a matter of fact, I seldom use this strategy while communication. In the classroom, if I am in doubt or don't know what to say, I sometimes ask my friends. However, I seldom use this strategy because I want to practice and improve myself. I think I can deal with communication breakdowns because I think I usually practice and prepare myself.*

**SUM12: “Giving up when one can’t make oneself understood”**

KKU2 *.....At the time of speaking, I seldom give up when I cannot make myself understood because I enjoy talking with foreigners. In case I couldn't understand the topic, I will try to talk about another interesting topic. I want to improve my speaking skill. For me, I am not good at speaking; so if I have a chance, I want to practice. I don't want to stop talking with the interlocutor because I don't want to make him feel adrift. I want the foreigners find that Thais are friendly as well as I enjoy exchanging ideas with them.....*

**SUM12: “Giving up when one can’t make oneself understood” (Cont.)**

KKU5 *.....I never use this strategy because I like speaking English so much. I myself think that I'm not fluent at English enough. So I want to improve myself. Moreover, I think English is an essential language an international language. Especially, since the AEC is nearly open, English language is considered as an international language. If I give up speaking and practicing, I won't be able to get better at English. Hence, if I want to improve myself, I should not give up when facing communication problems.*

MU18 *I never use this strategy. As I am studying in major of English Education, I think the duty of teacher of English is to teach and facilitate the students to be able to use English efficiently. So, I think if I want to be a good teacher, I have to develop my speaking skill.*

**5.3 Summary**

This chapter aims at reporting the results of the qualitative data from 45 students' semi-structured interviews. The interviews were conducted either right after the questionnaire session or on the same day when the participants had finished their CSs questionnaire responses. The interviews were conducted mainly in order to elicit answers for Research Question 3: Why do students report employing certain CSs frequently and certain CSs infrequently? The main aim of the interviews was to obtain in-depth information and to triangulate the data so as to provide further insights into CSs use by students majoring in English in the Northeast of Thailand.

Based on the interviewing data, 10 reasons why students reported frequent use of certain strategies emerged from the data, and 7 reasons why students reported infrequent use of certain strategies emerged from the data. They are:

**Reasons for employing certain strategies frequently**

- 1) Being familiar with certain strategies
- 2) Being effective strategies in the communication
- 3) Creating a pleasant atmosphere of conversation
- 4) Being easy to understand the interlocutor
- 5) Having personal preferences with certain strategies
- 6) Wishing to make themselves understood
- 7) Wishing to be fashionable
- 8) Wishing to improve their pronunciation
- 9) Wishing to gain more linguistic knowledge
- 10) Wishing to improve language ability

**Reasons for employing certain strategies infrequently**

- 1) Avoiding embarrassment
- 2) Caring about the interlocutor's feeling
- 3) Wasting time
- 4) Considering about manners and etiquette
- 5) Avoiding the trap of pretending to understand
- 6) Wishing to overcome oral communication breakdowns by oneself
- 7) Wishing to improve one's speaking ability.

To sum up, the results of the semi-structured interviews have provided us with not only useful information for further research in the area of CSs studies, but also enable us to obtain in-depth reasons for students' employment of CSs. That is to say, the results of the qualitative data have complemented the results of the quantitative data on students' CS use for dealing with communication breakdowns. Chapter 6, which is the last chapter of the present investigation, will summarize the research findings in response to the research questions proposed in Chapter 3. Furthermore, the discussions of the research findings, the implications and the limitations of the present investigation and proposals for future research will be presented respectively.

# **CHAPTER 6**

## **SUMMARY, DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSION**

### **6.1 Introduction and Purpose of the Chapter**

The main purpose of this chapter is to conclude the principal findings of the present study in response to the research questions proposed in Chapter 3. This is followed by a discussion of the research findings, the implications arising from the research findings for the teaching and learning of English for English-major students studying at the tertiary level in the Northeast of Thailand, and the contributions of the present study to the related areas. Finally, the limitations of the present study and proposals for future research are presented.

The researcher has systematically explored the reported frequency of use of CSs by 949 English-major students studying at the tertiary level in the Northeast of Thailand. Chapter 4 presents the significant variations in strategy use, specifically the relationships between students' reported frequency of CS use and the four investigated variables, which are gender of students, type of study program, foreign language learning experience, and attitude towards speaking English. Chapter 5 mainly focuses on examining the reasons why students reported employing certain CSs frequently and certain CSs infrequently. In this chapter, the summary of the findings based on the research questions, as well as other apparent significant differences related to each investigated variable will be presented to give the reader a better understanding of those significant variations.

## 6.2 Summary of Research Findings

The present study reported the research findings of students' reported communication strategy use at the overall use, category and individual level in Chapter 4 and the reasons behind the students' strategy choices why students reported employing certain strategies frequently and certain strategies infrequently in Chapter 5 are summarised based on the questions below;

### **6.2.1 Research Question 1: What is the frequency of the CSs reported being employed by Thai students majoring in English studying at universities in the Northeast of Thailand?**

The research findings reveal that the students' reported overall use of communication strategies based on the holistic mean score was at the moderate level. The mean frequency score was 2.74. The mean frequency scores of the SCM, SUM and SMC categories were 2.67, 2.81 and 2.81 respectively, which fall into the moderate level.

According to the individual communication strategy level, it was found that more than three fourths of the individual strategies were reported being used at the moderate level. To be specific, the students reported the moderate frequency of use of 30 individual strategies in the SCM, SUM and SMC categories. Three individual communication strategies have been reported the high frequency of use with the mean scores of 3.26, 3.25 and 3.24 respectively. These particular strategies were "Making use of expressions which have been previously learnt" (SCM9); "Trying to catch the speaker's main point" (SUM8); and "Paying attention to the speaker's eye contact" (SMC2). The lowest frequency of communication strategy use was "Giving up when on can't make oneself understood" (SUM12), with the mean score of 1.78 and

“Making a phone call to another person for assistance” (SCM18), with the mean score of 1.70.

**6.2.2 Research Question 2: Do students’ choices of CSs vary significantly with their gender, type of study program, foreign language learning experience, and attitude toward speaking English? If they do, what are the main patterns of variation?**

The researcher investigated the variations in communication strategy use, as well as the patterns of variation in Chapter 4. As found from the data obtained through the CSQ and ASEQ questionnaires responded to by 949 participants, the findings at the three levels of the data analysis related to students’ gender, type of study program, foreign language learning experience, and attitude towards speaking English are summarized as follows:

**6.2.2.1 Communication Strategy Use and Gender of Students**

- **Overall Strategy Use**

As for the students’ gender, the results of the ANOVA revealed no significant variations in students’ reported frequency of overall strategy use. This means that students’ overall strategy use did not vary significantly according to the students’ gender.

- **Use of Strategies in the SCM, SUM and SMC Categories**

The ANOVA results revealed that significant differences were found in the learners’ use of strategies related to their gender in the SCM category with females reporting employing CSs significantly more frequently than did males. No significant differences were found in the use of strategies under the SUM and SMC categories.

- **Use of Individual Communication Strategies**

The ANOVA results showed that significant differences were found in the SCM category in relation to the students' gender. Further, the Chi-square ( $\chi^2$ ) tests demonstrated that six individual SCM strategies and two individual SUM strategies varied significantly according to this variable with a significantly higher percentage of female students than male students reporting high use of 8 strategies. Examples are, "Using non-verbal expressions such as mime, gestures, and facial expressions" (SCM15) (78% females and 67% males); "Thinking in Thai before speaking" (SCM6) (76.4% females and 63.3% males); and "Trying to translate into native language little by little to understand what the speaker has said" (SUM10) (74.8% females and 62.4% males).

However, a significantly higher percentage of male students than female students reported high use of 2 strategies, which are "Feeling all right for taking risks while speaking" (SMC4) (58.7% males and 48.3 females) and "Not minding if one can't understand every single detail and trying to keep speaking" (SMC5) (58.7% males and 48.6% females).

#### **6.2.2.2 Communication Strategy Use and Type of Study Program**

- **Overall Strategy Use**

The ANOVA results revealed that no significant variations were found in students' reported frequency of overall strategy use in relation to type of study program. This means that no significant differences existed in terms of overall use of communication strategies and students' type of study program.

- **Use of Strategies in the SCM, SUM and SMC Categories**

Based on the results from ANOVA, significant variations were found in the students' use of strategies related to their type of study program in the SCM category with the students studying in the English Education program reporting employing CSs significantly more frequently than did those studying in the Non-English Education program. No significant differences were found in the SUM and SMC categories.

- **Use of Individual Communication Strategies**

The results from the Chi-square ( $\chi^2$ ) tests revealed that use of altogether eight individual items of strategies varied significantly according to the type of study program. It was found that a significantly higher percentage of students in English Education program than those in the non-English Education program reported high use of all 8 strategies. Examples are “Making use of expressions which have been previously learnt” (SCM9) (90.2% English Education students and 85.8 % Non-English Education students); “Repeating, summarizing, paraphrasing what one has heard and ask one’s interlocutor to confirm” (SUM11) (82.2% English Education students and 72% Non-English Education students); and “Speaking more slowly to gain time to think and keep the conversation going smoothly” (SMC7) (79.5% English Education students and 71.8% Non-English Education students).

### **6.2.2.3 Communication Strategy Use and Foreign Language**

#### **Learning Experience**

- **Overall Strategy Use**

The results from the ANOVA revealed no significant variations in students' reported frequency of overall strategy use according to foreign language

learning experience. This means that there was no significant difference between the overall use of communication strategies and students' foreign language learning experience.

- **Use of Strategies in the SCM, SUM and SMC Categories**

The ANOVA results revealed no significant variations in the frequency of students' use of communication strategies in the SCM, SUM and SMC categories according to students' foreign language learning experience.

- **Use of Individual Communication Strategies**

The results from the Chi-square ( $\chi^2$ ) test revealed that two individual SCM strategies, one individual SUM strategy, and two individual SMC strategies varied significantly according to this variable.

The results from the Chi-square ( $\chi^2$ ) test showed that a significantly higher percentage of the students who have more foreign language learning experience than those with only English language learning experience reported high use of 4 strategies, which are: "SMC 8 Talking about something else to gain time to think"; "Not minding if one can't understand every single detail and trying to keep speaking" (SMC5); "Drawing a picture" (SCM20); and "giving up when one can't make oneself understood" (SUM12). However, a significantly higher percentage of the students with only English language learning experience than those with more foreign language learning experience reported high use of one strategy, that is, "Using non-verbal expressions such as mime, gestures, and facial expressions" (SCM15).

#### **6.2.2.4 Communication Strategy Use and Attitude towards**

##### **Speaking English**

- **Overall Strategy Use**

The results from the ANOVA revealed that significant variations were found in students' reported frequency of overall strategy use according to the attitude towards speaking English.

- **Use of Strategies in the SCM, SUM and SMC Categories**

The ANOVA results revealed that significant differences were found in the SMC category according to attitude towards speaking English. In this category, the students with positive attitude towards speaking English reported employing the strategies significantly more frequently than did those with negative attitude towards speaking English. However, in terms of the students' employment of communication strategies in the SCM and SUM categories, no significant variations were found in relation to this variable.

- **Use of Individual Communication Strategies**

The results from the Chi-square ( $\chi^2$ ) tests revealed that 13 individual communication strategies out of 43 communication strategies across the questionnaire varied significantly in relation to attitude towards speaking English. A significantly higher percentage of English major students with positive attitude towards speaking English than those with negative attitude towards speaking English reported high use of all the 13 strategies. For example, "Paying attention to the speaker's eye contact, facial expression and gestures" (SMC2) (89.8% positive attitude students and 76.4% negative attitude students); "Trying to catch the speaker's main point" (SUM8) (87.7% positive attitude students and 76.4% negative attitude students); and

“Making use of expressions found in some sources of media” (SCM10) (85.2% positive attitude students and 65.5% negative attitude students).

#### **6.2.2.5 The Factor Analysis and the Main Significant Variation Patterns**

In order to seek the underlying patterns of communication strategies across the inventory, which varied significantly according to the four investigated variables, a principal component factor analysis using varimax rotation was carried out. Initially, six factors were extracted with the eigenvalues equal to or greater than 1.00. These four factors accounted for 43.83% of the variability among the 26 communication strategies which varied significantly in relation to the four variables.

For the present investigation, each factor was defined based on the content or the relationship of the majority of communication strategy items which appear under the same factor. The four extracted factors, the factor loadings on each strategy item, and the percentage of variance accounted for by each factor were presented as follows:

- Factor 1, termed as ‘Strategies for keeping the conversation going’ accounted for 19.96 per cent of the variance among the communication strategies in the questionnaire. It consisted of eight strategies of maintaining the conversation going while communicating with the interlocutor.
- Factor 2, termed as ‘Strategies for clarifying utterances’ accounted for 11.63 per cent of the whole strategy variance. This factor comprised seven of meaning-exemplifying strategies which related

to strategies of conveying meaning to the interlocutors while communication.

- Factor 3, termed as ‘Strategies for sending a message relying on other sources’ accounted for 6.64 per cent of the variance of the strategy items. It included five strategies of conveying a message based on other sources such as verbal expressions found in media or non-verbal expressions.
- Factor 4, termed as ‘Strategies for getting the message’ accounted for 5.61 per cent of the variance of the whole strategy variance. It comprised six strategies for understanding the message while oral communication in English.

To conclude, four factors were extracted as the results of a factor analysis. Factor 2: ‘Strategies for clarifying utterances’, was found to be strongly related to students’ gender; Factor 1, ‘Strategies for keeping the conversation going’, and Factor3: ‘Strategies for sending a message relying on other sources’, were found to be strongly related to attitude towards speaking English.

### **6.2.3 Research Question 3: Why do students report employing certain communication strategies frequently and certain strategies infrequently?**

The reasons behind students’ choices of CS use have been explored in order to find out why they reported employing certain strategies frequently and infrequently. As emerged from the data obtained through the semi-structured interview carried out with 45 participants, the emergent reasons include:

- **Reasons for employing certain strategies frequently**
  - 1) Being familiar with certain strategies
  - 2) Being effective strategies in the communication
  - 3) Creating a pleasant atmosphere of conversation
  - 4) Being easy to understand the interlocutor
  - 5) Having personal preferences with certain strategies
  - 6) Wishing to make themselves understood
  - 7) Wishing to be fashionable
  - 8) Wishing to improve one's pronunciation
  - 9) Wishing to gain more linguistic knowledge
  - 10) Wishing to improve language ability
  
- **Reasons for employing certain strategies infrequently**
  - 1) Avoiding embarrassment
  - 2) Caring about the interlocutor's feeling
  - 3) Wasting time
  - 4) Considering about manners and etiquette
  - 5) Avoiding the trap of pretending to understand
  - 6) Wishing to overcome oral communication breakdowns by oneself
  - 7) Wishing to improve one's speaking ability.

### **6.3 Discussion of the Research Findings**

As seen in the previous section, the responses to Research Questions 1 to 3 were focused. Based on the responses to those research questions, the relationships of communication strategy use at three different levels by 949 university English major students in the Northeast of Thailand and the four investigated variables have been described. In this section, further discussions of the research findings according to the four variables: students' gender, type of study program, foreign language learning experience and attitude towards speaking English as well as plausible explanations for apparent significant variations in use of certain communication strategies are presented.

#### **6.3.1 Communication Strategy Use and Students' Gender**

Gender communication is one of the great effects on oral communication in English either in interpersonal interaction or public speaking. The intended message

cannot be understood as well as the goal may not be reached unless men and women improve their communication skills. In recent years, it is obvious that communicative style differences between males and females have gained more attention by several researchers (e.g. Haas, 1979; Green and Oxford, 1995; Zeynep, 1997; Kelley, 1997; Maubach and Morgan, 2001; Ok, 2003; Limei, 2008; Preedatawat, 2009; Lai, 2010; Somsai, 2011; Bui and Intaraprasert, 2012; Tao and Intaraprasert, 2013). Most previous empirical research works have revealed that gender differences have a significant impact on the extent of strategy use. This is reaffirmed by Ellis (1994) that gender of students is one of the factors which may impact their choices of strategy use for learning a foreign or second language.

In the present investigation, the findings revealed no significant differences of CS employment in the overall strategy use and in the SUM, SMC categories, but in the SCM category and individual items of CS employment according to students' gender. However, at the individual level, the results of the present study showed that there was a strong relationship between students' gender and their choices of CS use in the individual items of SCM category, being consistent with the studies by Ghani (2003), Somsai (2011), Bui (2012), and Tao (2013). The results of their studies revealed that males and females reported employing significantly higher frequency of use of certain strategies, as stated by Ghani (2003, p.33), "males do better than females in the use of some strategies". In Thailand, the findings are also consistent with Somsai (2011) that female students reported employing CSs with greater frequency than did male students.

As can be seen in Table 4.12 (Chapter 4), at the individual level, the findings showed that six individual items of SCM and two individual items of SUM category

were being employed by female students, while male students reported employing two individual items of SMC category. Based on the CS taxonomy of Mariani (2010), female students tend to use para- and extra- linguistic strategies to convey the intended message to the interlocutor, i.e., “Using non-verbal expressions such as mime, gestures, and facial expressions” (SCM15); “Spelling or writing out the intended words, phrases, or sentences” (SCM14); and “Referring to a dictionary, a book, objects or material” (SCM19). They also tend to ask for help from the interlocutor or other people not only for conveying the message, but also getting the message, i.e., “Appealing for assistance from other people to clarify the interlocutor’s message” (SCM16), and “Appealing for assistance from the interlocutor” (SCM17).

Additionally, female students reported significantly more frequent employment of CSs in order to understand the message, that is ‘SUM3: Asking the interlocutor to slow down’ and ‘SUM10: Trying to translate into Thai little by little to understand what the speaker has said’ than did male students. Meanwhile, male students preferred employing risk-taking strategies for maintaining the conversation than their counterparts, which include: ‘SMC4: Feeling all right for taking risks while speaking’ and ‘SMC5: Not minding if one can’t understand every single detail and trying to keep speaking’. Some possible explanation hypothesized by the researcher for the significant differences in the strategy use based on students’ gender. They are: communication styles, social interaction, and personality types.

The first possible explanation can be made based on men and women communication styles. Tannen (2001, p.5) suggested that “people have different conversational styles, influenced by the part of the country they grew up in, their ethnic backgrounds and those of their parents, their age, class, and gender.”

While communicating, men and women express themselves in different ways and for different reason: men tend to focus on independence while women focus on intimacy (Tannen, 1990). Additionally, Hass (1979) also asserted that men may be more loquacious and directive; women are often more supportive, polite, and expressive. Females tend to use talk to express feelings, be more co-operative and create relationship while males talk more to get attention, assert a position, establish status, be competitive and show independence in conversation (Adler and Elmhorst, 1999). Hence, it is plausible to say that conversational styles of gender differences may be related to different communication strategy use.

Although the present investigation lacks significant variations of CS employment in overall use or by the SCM, SUM and SMC categories, the findings of the present study showed a minor relationship between the gender of the students and their CS use at the individual items level. Male students reported employing risk-taking strategies more than their female counterparts for coping with communication breakdowns. Meanwhile, more interactional strategies and nonverbal strategies were reported being employed by female students in order to convey and understand the intended and received message. This finding was consistent with a study by Somsai (2011) that male students are more keen on managing their stress or anxiety while communicating in English so as to maintain the conversation than female students. In the meantime, female students tend to use communication strategies for conveying and understanding while communicating with the interlocutor. Besides, the findings of present study were in line with a study by Bui (2012) that male and female English majors studying at the universities in the South of Vietnam reported employing certain individual CSs differently. This is

reaffirmed by Tao (2013) that females tend to use different CSs from males at the individual level so as to cooperate and have a tendency towards interaction, and try to make themselves understood.

Apart from that, one more possible explanation for the variations of individual CS use between male and female students and the extent of strategy use would be female's social interaction skill. According to Oxford (1995), the differences in strategy use between male and female students are due to both brain hemisphericity and socialization. Further, a study by Loori (2005) revealed that males preferred learning activities involving logical and mathematical intelligences, whereas females preferred learning activities involving intrapersonal intelligence. This was consistent with Ok (2003) that females are superior to, or at least very different from, males in many social skills with females showing a greater social orientation. Moreover, this is reaffirmed by a study of Hall (2011), the results showed that females are not only better L2 learners, but also more effective social interaction skills and strategies than males. In the present study, it was found that male students reported employing risk-taking strategies more than their female counterparts for coping with communication breakdowns. Meanwhile, more interactional strategies and nonverbal strategies were reported being employed by female students in order to convey and understand the intended and received message when communicating with the interlocutor. It was plausible to explain that social interaction may have an impact on those males and females to use CSs differently.

The last factor that may possibly be an explanation for the significant differences in CS use and gender difference was personality types. Ehrman and Oxford (1989) and Oxford and Nyikos (1989) suggested that gender

differences possibly are related to women's greater social orientation, stronger verbal skills, and greater conformity to norms, both linguistic and academic. Indeed, things are not always what they seem. While speaking, women tend to speak carefully to avoid embarrassment. It was found that females were worried that they may make a mistake, which may cause them to lose face, while male students preferred to give the interlocutor an impression with their oral ability and solving the problems by themselves. This is consistent with Coleman (1996) who found that female students were more afraid of feeling embarrassed by their mistakes than male students.

In summary, through a closer look at the results of previous research works and the present investigation, we found that female English majors studying at the tertiary level in the Northeast of Thailand were more interactive and cooperative in using certain strategies to deal with communication breakdowns. Three plausible explanations have been hypothesized by the researcher for the significant differences in individual strategy use based on students' gender: (1) communication styles, (2) social interaction, and (3) personality types. Nevertheless, we cannot be definitely certain about what really caused these significant differences. Hence, further research to explore these aspects is still needed. Remarkably, for future research, the three possible explanations should not be taken for granted as one of the investigated variables for exploring factors affecting students' use of oral communication strategies as well as pedagogical implications.

### **6.3.2 Communication Strategy Use and Type of Study Program**

As presented in Chapter 2, a few studies have been carried out to investigate the relationship between use of CSs and type of study program (e.g., Sienprapassorn, 1993; Preedatawat, 2009; Mei and Nathalang, 2010).

Mei and Nathalang's (2010) found that academic major had an effect on learners' CS use. On the contrary, a study by Preedatawat (2009), reported no significant differences between learners' use of CSs and field of study. In the present study, a strong relationship did not exist in the overall level but significant differences in CS use in relation to type of study program have been found at the category and the individual strategy levels.

The findings of the present investigation showed no significant variations in the overall strategy use or in the SUM and SMC categories in relation to type of study program. However, the significant variations in the SCM category have been found related to type of study program with the students in the English Education program reporting more frequent use of these strategies than those studying in the Non-English Education program. This could possibly be explained by certain factors which have been hypothesized by the researcher. They were: different concentration of program, students' concern for accuracy, and communication environment.

The first possible factor which might explain the significant difference was students' different concentration of program. As stated by Hutchinson and Waters (1987), language use varies in different contexts. For the present study, the students study in an English program, the two programs provide different concentrations. The first one is Education-oriented and the second one is Art-oriented. With respect to the course content, the English Education deals with English for language studies or for teacher training, while, the Non-English Education is characterized by such features as the vocabulary used in specific areas and language structures common for specialized context use. For the present study, it was found that students studying in either English Education or Non-English Education program

used CSs differently. The results of the present study was consistent a review of recent research by Mei and Nathalang (2010) and Bui (2012), they found that academic major was one of factors affecting students' CS use. Therefore, it might be possible that they use different CSs to deal with communication breakdowns.

Students' concern for accuracy was also hypothesized to be a factor which may explain such significant differences. According to some interviewees, accuracy is indispensable when communicating in English. They reported that CSs helped them to be confident when speaking with the interlocutor in a target language. Students in the English Education program reported making high use of expressions which have been previously learnt, using non-verbal expressions, speaking more slowly, or giving examples to deal with their oral communication breakdowns in English. This is consistent with Jamshidnejad (2011), CSs usage in L2 interpersonal communication allows language learners to promote accuracy level of their target language. This is reaffirmed a study by Dobao (2001), language learners of English tended to use CSs as their desire to be highly accurate and detailed. Consequently, it is hypothesized by the researcher that students' concern for accuracy has an effect on their communication strategy use.

Another possible explanation for the findings of the present investigation according to the relationship between use of individual CSs and type of study program was communication environment. Nambiar (2009) also confirmed that learners' learning environment had an effect on their language learning and strategy use, which some CSs have been included. For the present study, with a different concentration of program, i.e., English Education and Non-English Education Program; the subjects of may be required to be taught in different environment in

order to well-prepared for their future career. Students in the English Education Program were supposed to teach at educational institutions while those studying in the Non-English Education Program tended to work for either state or private sectors, such as business or tourism industry. It could be said that the types of interlocutors and the content of their conversations may be shaped because of communication environment. Therefore, communication environment might have been related to students' use of different CSs to deal with communication breakdowns.

To sum up, different concentration of program, students' concern for accuracy and communication environment have been hypothesized that they are possibly attributed to the significant variations in learners' individual CS use in relation to their type of study program. Yet, there has been no definite evidence what really caused these significant differences. Hence, these aspects still need to be explored in future research.

### **6.3.3 Communication Strategy Use and Foreign Language Learning**

#### **Experience**

Through the review of the past research works on CSs, no empirical study has been carried out to investigate the relationship between student's foreign language experience and communication strategy use. For the present study, the findings revealed no significant variations in the overall strategy use or in the SCM, SUM, and SMC categories; however, significant variations of students' strategy use at the individual strategy level were found.

Based on the individual items of communication strategies, the students with more foreign language learning experience reported employing certain communication strategies more than those with limited foreign language learning

experience. For instance, ‘Taking about something else to gain time to think (SMC8); and ‘Not minding if one can’t understand every single detail and trying to keep speaking (SMC5). Meanwhile, nonverbal strategies (e.g. mime, gestures, and facial expressions) were reported being more frequently employed by students with limited foreign language learning experience.

A possible explanation for such significant differences was exposure to oral communication in English. As stated by Norton and Toohey (2001), the success of good language learners, especially in communication, relies greatly on the degree and quality of exposure to variety of conversations in their communities. Thus it could be said that students who studying more than two languages have more exposure to English language than those who studying only English. It could also be implied that students with more exposure in many foreign languages are more accustomed to using communication strategies when speaking, in that they are more likely to use a variety of communication strategies than those who are limited only to English language learning.

A number of past research studies have been explored the link between use of communication strategies and students’ exposure to English language (e.g. Huang, 2010; Somsai, 2011; Bui, 2012; and Tao, 2013). Huang (2010) reported that the frequency of speaking English outside the classroom had a strong relationship with students’ use of oral CSs. This was also consistent with Somsai and Intaraprasert (2011), reporting that the frequency and variety of strategy use were more frequently used by students who had more exposure to oral communication in English.

A few researchers (e.g. Brett, 2001; Lee, 2007; Prinyajarn, 2007; and Kongsom, 2009) in the field of CS studies have investigated and paid more attention on the usefulness of teaching and training communication strategies to language learners for both English and non-English majors. They found that learners improved their learning performance and displayed higher self-efficacy (Lee, 2007), made greater use of communication strategies (Prinyajarn, 2007; and Kongsom, 2009), especially, realized the usefulness of communication strategies (Kongsom, 2009). Those findings were consistent with what Mariani (2010) suggests, i.e. communication strategies not only train learners in the flexibility they need to deal with the unexpected and the unpredictable, but also help learners to bridge the gap between the classroom and the outside reality, between formal and informal learning.

Individual learning style was another possible factor affecting both groups of students' choices of communication strategy. Learning styles are the different ways in which learners perceive, absorb, process, and recall new information and skills (VanPatten and Benati, 2010). Some learners are fantastically quick at picking up language just by looking and listening; for some learners, it may take a little longer (Harmer, 2000). As supported by a study of Braxton (1999), preferred learning styles did influence the listening strategies of ESL university learners.

Taking a closer look at the individual strategy use, we found that the students who had more foreign language learning experience tended to use more risk-taking strategies more often in order to convey an intended message and maintain the conversation. On the other hand, non-verbal strategies were reported being employed more frequently by students who had limited foreign language learning experience.

Based on the results of the semi-structured interview, some students reported that they learned English through not only in the classroom but also outside the classroom, for instance, speaking with foreigners, joining the social media, watching TV., listening to music, reading newspapers, and playing games. Those activities were the way that they acquire and improve their language acquisition. Thus, it is plausible to explain that students' learning styles might be related to students' foreign language learning experience leading them to use different communication strategies for different purposes.

In conclusion, the two hypothesized factors which were exposure to oral communication in English and individual learning style are possibly contributed to the high CSs use by students who had more foreign language learning experience. Still, there has been no definite evidence for what really caused these significant differences. Consequently, exploration of these aspects is needed.

#### **6.3.4 Communication Strategy Use and Attitude towards Speaking**

##### **English**

A pessimist always sees the difficulty in every opportunity; an optimist always sees the opportunity in every difficulty (Churchill cited in Kennedy, 2011, p. 3). People tend to share either one of these attitudes when facing problems. Attitudes are generally viewed as either positive or negative and can strongly affect L2 learning (Oxford, 2011). Regarding language acquisition, it is believed that attitude is one of focal factors affecting the success of EFL or ESL language learners. Attitude has been receiving more attention in different areas of research works (e.g. Elydirim and Ashton, 2006; Sadighi and Zarafshan, 2006; and Cetingoz and Ozkal, 2009). They found that students who have positive attitude

towards language learning employ more strategies than the negative attitude students. In the field of CSs, a review of recent research works by Prinyajarn (2007), Kongsom (2009), Dong and Fangpeng (2010), Bui and Intaraprasert (2012), and Tao and Intaraprasert (2013) reported that attitudes have such a great impact on students' strategy use.

In the present study, the findings revealed that great significant variations had been found in the overall strategy use, in SMC category as well as in the individual items. It showed that English majors with positive attitude towards speaking English reported significantly higher use of 13 strategies than did those with negative attitude. That means that 13 out of total 43 communication strategies varied significantly in relation to attitude towards speaking English. When compared with the other three variables, students' attitude has been found to be the strongest factor related to their strategy use. Furthermore, when encountering communication difficulties, at the individual level (as presented in Table 5.10), self-reliant achievement strategies were more frequently used by the students who hold positive attitude towards speaking English. This findings are consistent with the results of studies by Bui and Intaraprasert (2012) and Tao and Intaraprasert (2013).

The first possible explanation for the findings of the present study related to the link between use of individual CSs and attitude towards speaking English was motivation. Attitudes are considered as components of motivation in language learning (Gardner, 1985). Once Ryun (cited in Sander, 2012, p. 9) said, "Motivation is what gets you started, habit is what keeps you going". Whenever ones are motivated to do something repeatedly, like language learning, that action can form into habit. Skehan (1989) remarks that those students who do well experience reward, and are

encouraged to try harder whereas students who do not do so well are discouraged by their lack of success, as a result, lack persistence. In addition, Oxford (1990) states that more motivated learners tended to employ more strategies than less motivated learners. According to a study by Oxford and Nyikos (1989, p. 294), conclude that “The degree of expressed motivation to learn the language was the most powerful influence on strategy choice.”

Based on the results of semi-structured interviews, all 45 English major interviewees reported that they loved and enjoyed learning English. They found that English is fun, interesting, challenging and useful. They also reasoned that they wanted to learn English because English is an international language which enables them to get a good job with good salary, further their education overseas, make friends with foreigners, explore new things as well as exchange ideas with other people. Some students reported that they decided to learn English because of an inspiring English teacher who encouraged them to further their English study. That is, motivation may have been one of main factors influencing on students’ language learning, which CS use has been included. It was hypothesized by the researcher that the more students are motivated to acquire language, the more they use CSs.

Students’ language/oral proficiency was another explanation for the significant variations in individual CS use regarding attitude towards speaking English. According to the results of past research works (e.g. Si-Qing, 1990; Nakatani, 2006 and 2010; and Dong and Fangpeng, 2010) on CSs in other countries, more/less successful students reported employing different types and frequency of CSs. In the Thai context, the results of past research works (e.g. Weerarak, 2003;

Pornpibol, 2005; Prinyajarn, 2007; and Chuanchaisit and Prapphal, 2009) also confirmed that students' language/oral proficiency was a factor influencing different CSs used to different degrees. More able students preferred risk-taking strategies while less able students tended to use more risk-avoidance strategies when confronting speaking problems (Wannaruk, 2002; Pornpibol, 2005; and Chuanchaisit, 2009). These findings were consistent with what Intaraprasert (2000) states that successful students may be highly motivated to seek opportunities to expose themselves to English outside the classroom setting. In the present study, although there was no information about the students' general language proficiency, it was reported by some interviewees that they loved learning English because they achieved it better than other subjects. That means students' language/oral proficiency was possibly related to their CS employment. This was consistent with Ellis (1994), language learners' CS use could result in learners' language/oral proficiency and learners' language/oral proficiency could have an effect on their CS use.

Another possible explanation hypothesized by the researcher was that the students' attitude towards speaking English is attributable to opportunities to speak English. As stated by Littlewood (1984), another important effect on the students' proficiency they achieve will be the quality of the learning opportunities which the environment offers. In Thailand, Thai students have been taught by most proficient at reading and least at speaking and listening. This leads those Thai learners to a lack of opportunity for improving their speaking and insufficient command of English skills for real-world communication (Karnnawakul, 2004; Kimsuvan, 2004; and Choomthong, 2014).

Based on the results of the present study, the strongest relationship between students' CS use and attitude towards speaking English was found. The students with positive attitude towards speaking English reported high use of certain strategies than those with negative attitude. Apparently, the students who hold positive attitude towards speaking English reported significantly different employing some certain strategies, for instance "Feeling all right for taking risks while speaking (SMC4)"; and "Not minding if one can't understand every single detail and trying to keep speaking (SMC5)". Supported by the results of semi-structured interview, lacking opportunities to speak English with native speakers, some interviewees reported that when they had a chance to talk with them, they felt nervous and did not know what to do. However, all of them reported that they did not give up when encountering communication difficulties because they wanted to practice and improve their speaking skill. This result is in line with Bui (2012), students who hold positive attitude towards speaking English have more opportunities to communicate orally in English than those students who hold negative attitude towards speaking English. Hence, it is hypothesized by the researcher that opportunities to speak English may be contributed to the variations of individual CS use in students with different attitude towards speaking English.

To sum up, based on the findings, we found that students who held positive attitude reported employing significantly more frequently than those students who held negative attitude for dealing with communication breakdowns. Three factors, namely, motivation, language/oral proficiency, and opportunities to speak English have been possibly hypothesized that significant variations in individual strategy use according to students' attitude towards spoken English. Yet, we cannot be definitely

certain about what really caused these significant differences; hence, research to examine these aspects is still required.

## **6.4 Implications of the Research Findings for the Teaching and Learning of English for English Majors Studying at Universities in the Northeast of Thailand**

From the research findings summarized in Section 6.2 in response to the research questions, it was found that English majors, generally, studying at the tertiary level in the Northeast of Thailand mostly used communication strategies at the moderate level. There is a relationship between students' attitude towards speaking English and their strategy use at all three levels: overall use of CSs, CS use in the SMC category, and individual CS use. In addition, students' gender, type of study program, and foreign language learning experience have been found associated with use of strategies in the three main categories and individual strategy items. As a result, some implications for the teaching and learning of English communication strategies for English majors studying at the tertiary level in the Northeast of Thailand can be drawn as follows.

1. CS training should be held for teachers of English and language learners for raising their awareness of its importance, encourage them to apply and teach it in the classroom. Because teachers are a good model for language students, whatever the teachers have said or done, the student will learn and absorb the way they behave through their teaching and speaking. So, if the teachers use CSs more frequently, the students will absorb those strategies and use it automatically eventually.

For language learners, if they know how to use each strategy, they could overcome any communication problems appropriately and keep the conversation flowing. Eventually, they will improve their speaking skill and be more confident when speaking with the target native speakers. Furthermore, for those learners who do not have any problems with their oral communication, CSs will enable them to enhance their communication effectiveness as well.

2. Based on the research findings, the female English majors reported employing strategies more frequently than did male students. Females should be encouraged to use risk taking strategies and feel free and relax in dealing with communication breakdowns; meanwhile, males need more encouragement about using a wide range of communication strategies. Some researchers point out that gender differences have an effect on students' strategy use based on their communication styles (Hass, 1979; Tannen, 1990 and 2001; Gray, 2003; Mori and Gobel, 2006; and Kiesling, 2007) and social interaction (Oxford, 1995; Ok, 2003; Loori ,2005; and Hall, 2011), personality factor (Huang and Naerssen, 1987; Coleman, 1996; Biyaem, 1997; and Bui and Intaraprasert, 2012). As a result, the teachers should take these issues into consideration. They should raise students' awareness of individual differences which will help them to understand and know how to use different and appropriate strategies for dealing with communication problems and enhancing the effectiveness of their oral communication.

3. When compared with the students studying in the Non-English Education Programs, a significantly greater proportion of those in English Education Programs reported employing eight strategies. They reported that they used these certain strategies because they felt confident in what they had learned from their teachers

were correct. Hence, teachers should use communication strategies while teaching and design learning activities based on type of study program focusing on communication strategies which can help the students get accustomed to it, especially they can use it effectively both inside and outside the classroom.

4. Another finding of the present investigation indicated that students, who had more foreign language learning experience, reported higher use of CSs than did those who had limited foreign language learning experience. The students from the former group tend to use achievement and interaction strategies, meanwhile the students from the latter group prefer employing nonverbal strategies. Hence, it is recommended that teachers should offer more stress-free and inspired use of CS while teaching, in order to encourage the students who had limited foreign language learning experience to use a wider range of strategies, especially achievement strategies when tackling communication difficulties. As suggested by Mariani (2010, p. 32), “if teaching methodologies and assessment procedures stress accuracy and correctness, this may lead learners to use avoidance strategies and steer clear of or limit their use of more risk-taking achievement strategies. If, on the other hand, teachers and methodologies put a premium on a more fluent and creative use of language, learners may be more stimulated to use achievement strategies.”

5. Arising out of the findings, the students with positive attitude towards speaking English reported greater use of communication strategies than did those with negative attitude towards speaking English. It is advisable that the teachers should stimulate and encourage the students, especially those who hold negative attitude, by creating relaxing and safe classroom. As proposed by Maslow's (1970 cited in Goodall and Goodall, 2006) theory of human motivation,

there is a hierarchy of human needs which are ranked from lower order needs, for example, food, clothes, air, safety, love, and sense of belonging, to higher order needs, for example, self-esteem and self-actualization. Maslow also suggests that the most basic needs have to be met first. This means that when the classroom atmosphere is virtuous and innocuous, the students will feel more comfortable and harmless, which will lead them to be more willing and motivated to learning.

6. The teachers should not only teach and present students verbal and nonverbal strategies to students, but also intercultural strategies. As Kramsch (1998, p. 3) puts it, “language symbolizes cultural reality”. Since non-verbal language can have different meanings in different cultures so that language learners and users should be made aware of these issues and invited to take great care in choosing and using non-verbal strategies (Mariani, 2010).

According to Hymes (1974 cited in Foley and Thompson, 2003; p.45), communicative competence is:

The knowledge of sentences, not only as grammatical but also as appropriate. [The child] acquires the competences as to when to speak, when not, and as to what to talk about with whom, whom where and in what manner. In short, a child becomes able to accomplish a repertoire of speech acts, to take part in speech events, and to evaluate their accomplishment by others.

In real communication, we cannot deny that effective oral communication consists of several focal factors, for example, message sender, intended message, message receiver, the status of interlocutor, time, context of oral situation, cultural differences and so on. No matter what sort of conversation it is, we should not miss the point that we have to know the word to express and know how to act properly when speaking as well. In other words, “the real art of communication is

not only to speak the right thing in the right place but to leave unsaid the wrong thing at tempting moment” (Nevill, cited in Booher, 2011, p.22).

## **6.5 Contributions of the Present Study**

Based on the research findings, present investigation had made significant contributions to the research of communication strategies. The contributions can be characterized as follows.

1. As mentioned in Chapter 2, very few previous research works have been carried out on CSs in Thailand context, especially with English majors. Furthermore, most of past research works focus have generally been limited to examining the CS teaching effectiveness. In the present study, it has partly filled strategies employed by English major students studying at the tertiary level in the Northeast of Thailand for dealing with communications breakdowns. As a result, the research findings may be generalized to other groups of English major at the tertiary level in the Northeast of Thailand only.

2. Generally, most of the past research works focused on exploring the relationship between use of CS and gender, exposure to oral communication in English, language proficiency level, and attitude towards speaking English. The present study has expanded the focal point of study through a variety of proposed variables, apart from students’ gender and exposure to oral communication in English and attitude towards speaking English, namely, type of study program and foreign language learning experience. It can be said the present investigation has expanded the focus of research in the field.

3. In order to ensure the validity and reliability of the present study, mixed-method data collection and analysis have been employed. Questionnaires and semi-structured interviews were used to gather data. The quantitative data were analyzed by statistical methods, that is, descriptive statistics, an Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), and Chi-square tests ( $\chi^2$ ), and factor analysis. For qualitative data analysis, coding, grouping, and categorizing were used to analyze data. The data collection and analysis can be a useful guide for other research to apply in similar type of research design, data collection, data analysis and data reported.

## **6.6 Limitations of the Present Study and Proposal for Future**

### **Research**

The present investigation was valid and valuable in addressing the research questions, which were to describe the frequency of strategy use reported by English-major students studying at the tertiary level in the Northeast of Thailand; to investigate the variation patterns and to explore the link between the frequency of students' reported employment of CSs at different levels in relation to each of investigate variables: gender of students, type of study program, foreign language learning experience, and attitude towards speaking English.

Also, the present study investigated reasons why students reported employing certain strategies frequently and certain strategies infrequently. Yet, certain limitations have been acknowledged in conducting this present investigation. These limitations should be taken into account for future research and presented as follows:

1. In this present study, the communication strategy questionnaire (CSQ) and semi-structured interviews were employed to collect and elicit data from English majors studying at tertiary level in the Northeast of Thailand. Nevertheless, every gathering data methods has it merits and drawbacks; thus, it would yield more in-depth information if other data collection methods, for instance, performance recording, classroom observation, diary, speaking tasks, or verbal reports, were used in the present investigation so as to triangulate the research results.

2. This present study aimed to find out the employment of CSs by English majors studying at universities in the Northeast of Thailand. If there were the involvement of students from other universities in other parts of the country, the research findings would be more useful and interesting. This would provide an overall picture of use of CSs by English majors throughout the country.

3. The mix-method should have been adopted when designing the present study for research question 3, why do students report employing certain strategies frequently and certain strategies infrequently? It would be better if future research further explored the student's point of view, what should be done to promote the use of communication strategies? This would help the researchers to triangulate the research finding to be more valid and reliable as well as be a guideline for pedagogical implications for teachers and language learners of English, syllabus designers and related parties.

4. In order to help interviewees recall the exact strategies they used when confronting communication problems, group interviews should be employed.

5. The present investigation was limited to four investigated variables. In the literature review in Chapter 2 and the discussion part in Chapter 6 have shown

and discussed that other aspects, for example, personality types, types of interlocutor, teacher's nationality, university types, communication styles, and individual learning styles have not been conducted whether these factors have effects on the use of CSs of Thai students majoring in English or not. Consequently, those aspects should be taken into account in future research.

## **6.7 Conclusion**

The present investigation has contributed to the field of CS in terms of the communication strategy use and the investigated variables. One of the major contributions of the present investigation is to identify the use of CSs by English-major students studying at the tertiary level in the Northeast of Thailand having to deal with communication breakdowns in their English oral communication. The CSs had been categorized based on communicative purposes, that is, strategies for conveying an intended message (SCM), strategies for understanding the message (SUM), and strategies for maintaining the conversation (SMC). Of the four investigated variables, two variables, that is, foreign language learning experience and attitude towards speaking English have never been explored before. Moreover, the in-depth data for the reason why students reported employing certain communication strategies frequently and certain strategies infrequently have been well examined.

Lastly, based on the research findings, the researchers for the present investigation have proposed some pedagogical implications for the teaching and learning of English by English-major students, particularly for those studying at the tertiary level in the Northeast of Thailand. In addition, limitations of the present

study have been acknowledged and some suggestions have also been made for future research in the field of CSs. The researcher believed that this present study may shed some light to CS researchers, EFL educators, and language learners to gain further insights into how to tackle communication difficulties in their oral communication as well as how CS are used by students in different learning contexts.



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## Do you have an opportunity to communicate in English at all?

Yes  No

If "Yes", where do you communicate in English? (You can choose more than one).

In the classroom  At home  At tutoring center(s)  
 In English speaking club(s)  Other(s) (Please specify)

### Communication Strategy Questionnaire

**Instructions:** The Communication Strategy Questionnaire (CSQ) is designed to collect information about how you deal with problems in your oral communication in English. In the statements below, you will find various communication strategies. Please read each statement carefully considering how frequent you resort to the strategy when you are confronted with oral communication problems while interacting using the following criteria. Then mark your response with a '✓' in the corresponding space provided.

**"Never"** means that when communication problems occurred while you were interacting in English, you *never* used the strategy described in the statement.

**"Sometimes"** means that when communication problems occurred while you were interacting in English, you used the strategy described in the statement about *less than half the time of the total strategy use*.

**"Often"** means that when communication problems occurred while you were interacting in English, you used the strategy described in the statement about *more than half the time of the total strategy use*.

**"Always/almost always"** means that when communication problems occurred while you were interacting in English, you used the strategy described in the statement about *more than three quarter the time of the total strategy use*.

#### For example:

1. Have you got any oral communication problems while interacting in English?

Yes  No

If no, stop responding to the questionnaire.

If yes, how often do the problems occur?

sometimes  often  always

And please respond question nos. 2 - 4

2. Have you got any problems getting the message across to the interlocutor?

Yes  No

If 'Yes', how often do you employ the following strategies to deal with the problems?

Communication Strategy	Frequency of Your Own Communication Strategy Use			
	Always/ Almost always	Often	Sometimes	Never/ Almost never
1. Thinking in Thai before speaking	✓			

**Part One: Strategies for conveying an intended message**

1. Have you got any oral communication problems while interacting in English?

Yes

No

If no, stop responding the questionnaire.

If yes, please respond to question nos. 2 - 4

2. Have you got any problems getting the message across to the interlocutor?

Yes

No

If no, stop answering the Part One.

If 'Yes', how often do you employ the following strategies to deal with the problems?

Communication Strategy	Frequency of Your Own Communication Strategy Use			
	Always/ Almost always	Often	Sometimes	Never/ Almost never
1. Using fillers (e.g. well, you know, okay, um, or uh) when one cannot think of what to say				
2. Using circumlocution (paraphrase)				
3. Giving examples if the listener doesn't understand what one is saying				
4. Repeating words, phrases, or sentences a few times				
5. Switching some unknown words or phrases into Thai				
6. Thinking in Thai before speaking				
7. Translating literally from Thai into English				
8. Correcting one's own pronunciation, grammar and lexical mistakes				
9. Making use of expressions which have been previously learnt				
10. Making use of expressions found in some sources of media				
11. Reducing the message and using simple expressions				
12. Using synonym, antonym familiar words, phrases, or sentences				
13. Making up a new word in order to communicate a desired concept				
14. Spelling or writing out the intended words, phrases, or sentences				
15. Using non-verbal expressions such as mime, gestures, and facial expressions				
16. Appealing for assistance from other people around to clarify the interlocutor's message				
17. Appealing for assistance from the interlocutor				
18. Making a phone call to another person for assistance				
19. Referring to a dictionary, a book, objects or materials				

Communication Strategy	Frequency of Your Own Communication Strategy Use			
	Always/ Almost always	Often	Sometimes	Never/ Almost never
20. Drawing a picture				
21. Preparing the message by trying to anticipate what the interlocutor is going to say based on the context				

### Part Two: Strategies to Understand the Interlocutor's Message

1. Have you got any problems understanding the interlocutor's message?

Yes  No

If no, stop answering the Part Two.

If 'Yes', how often do you employ the following strategies to deal with the problems?

Communication Strategy	Frequency of Your Own Communication Strategy Use			
	Always/ Almost always	Often	Sometimes	Never/ Almost never
1. Trying to catch every word that the speaker uses				
2. Asking the interlocutor for a repetition				
3. Asking the interlocutor to slow down				
4. Asking the speaker to give an example and use easy words when one is not sure what he/she said				
5. Paying attention to one's pronunciation and intonation				
6. Making a clarification request when one is not sure what the speaker has said				
7. Especially paying attention to the interrogative when listening to WH-questions				
8. Trying to catch the speaker's main point				
9. Guessing the meaning of what the interlocutor has said				
10. Trying to translate into native language little by little to understand what the speaker has said				
11. Repeating, summarizing, paraphrasing what one has heard and ask one's interlocutor to confirm				
12. Giving up when one can't make oneself understood				

**Part Three: Strategies for maintaining the conversation**

1. Have you tried to maintain the conversation as intended?

Yes  No

If no, stop answering the Part Three.

If 'Yes', how often do you employ the following strategies to help you maintain the conversation as intended?

Communication Strategy	Frequency of Your Own Communication Strategy Use			
	Always/ Almost always	Often	Sometimes	Never/ Almost never
1. Trying to relax and enjoy the conversation				
2. Paying attention to the speaker's eye contact, facial expression and gestures				
3. Actively encouraging oneself to express what one wants to say				
4. Feeling all right for taking risks while speaking				
5. Not minding if one can't understand every single detail and trying to keep speaking				
6. Changing the way of saying things according to the context in order to continue conversations				
7. Speaking more slowly to gain time to think and keep the conversation going smoothly				
8. Talking about something else to gain time to think				
9. Pretending to understand in order to make attempt to carry on the conversation				
10. Apologizing if one has said or done something inappropriate and trying to correct (cultural) misunderstandings				

Besides the above-mentioned strategies, are there any other ways which you do to deal with communication breakdowns?

Yes  No

If "Yes", please specify the strategies

- 1) \_\_\_\_\_
- 2) \_\_\_\_\_
- 3) \_\_\_\_\_

**Thank you very much for your co-operation**

The researcher's name: Parichart Toomnan  
 Lecturer, Khon Kaen University, Nong Khai Campus  
 E-mail: ..... Tel.: .....

# APPENDIX B

## Communication Strategy Questionnaire (Thai Version)

### แบบสอบถาม

แบบสอบถามนี้สร้างขึ้นเพื่อรวบรวมข้อมูลเกี่ยวกับ การใช้กลวิธีการสื่อสารภาษาอังกฤษของนักศึกษาระดับอุดมศึกษาวิชาเอกภาษาอังกฤษ ที่กำลังศึกษา ณ มหาวิทยาลัยในภาคตะวันออกเฉียงเหนือ แบบสอบถามนี้ประกอบด้วยเนื้อหา 3 ด้าน ได้แก่ (1) ข้อมูลทั่วไปเกี่ยวกับผู้ตอบแบบสอบถาม (2) การใช้กลวิธีการสื่อสาร และ (3) ทักษะคิดของผู้ตอบแบบสอบถามเกี่ยวกับการพูดภาษาอังกฤษ ผู้วิจัยหวังเป็นอย่างยิ่งว่าผู้ตอบแบบสอบถามจะให้ข้อมูลและตอบคำถามตามความเห็นของตนเอง ซึ่งการตอบแบบสอบถามนี้ไม่ใช่การทดสอบจึงไม่มีคำตอบที่ 'ถูก' หรือ 'ผิด' คำตอบของท่านจะถูกใช้สำหรับการวิจัยนี้เท่านั้นและจะได้รับการรักษาเป็นความลับอย่างสูงสุด ทั้งนี้ขอคิดเห็นของผู้ตอบแบบสอบถามจะไม่ส่งผลกระทบต่อผลการเรียนของท่านที่มหาวิทยาลัยขอขอบคุณในความร่วมมือ มา ณ ที่นี้

### ส่วนที่ 1

#### ข้อมูลทั่วไปเกี่ยวกับผู้ตอบแบบสอบถาม

โปรดทำเครื่องหมาย (✓) หรือกรอกข้อความที่ตรงกับความเป็นจริงของนักศึกษา

- เพศ:  ชาย  หญิง
- กำลังศึกษา ณ มหาวิทยาลัย \_\_\_\_\_ วิทยาเขต \_\_\_\_\_
- วิชาเอกภาษาอังกฤษในโปรแกรม:  ศึกษาศาสตร์บัณฑิต  ศิลปศาสตรบัณฑิต
- นักศึกษากำลังศึกษา  ชั้นปีที่ 1  ชั้นปีที่ 2  ชั้นปีที่ 3  ชั้นปีที่ 4
- นอกจากภาษาอังกฤษแล้ว นักศึกษายังเรียนภาษาต่างประเทศอื่น ๆ หรือไม่  
 เรียนเฉพาะภาษาอังกฤษ  
 เรียนภาษาต่างประเทศอื่น ๆ (สามารถเลือกได้มากกว่าหนึ่งตัวเลือก)  
 จีน  ญี่ปุ่น  ฝรั่งเศส  อื่นๆ.....
- นักศึกษาคิดว่าการพูดภาษาอังกฤษเป็นเรื่อง.... (สามารถเลือกได้มากกว่าหนึ่งตัวเลือก)  
 ง่าย  ยาก  น่าเบื่อ  น่าสนใจ  
 มีประโยชน์  ไม่มีประโยชน์  อื่นๆ (โปรดระบุ) \_\_\_\_\_
- เมื่อนักศึกษาเรียนภาษาอังกฤษ อาจารย์ของนักศึกษาได้สอนวิธีการแก้ปัญหาการสื่อสารภาษาอังกฤษหรือไม่  
 สอน  ไม่ได้สอน  
ถ้าสอน อาจารย์ของนักศึกษาสอนวิธีการแก้ปัญหาในการสื่อสารอย่างไร

นักศึกษาคิดว่าสิ่งที่อาจารย์ของนักศึกษาสอนใช้ได้ผลหรือไม่

- ได้ผล  ไม่ได้ผล

ถ้าไม่ได้ผล ทำไม่ถึงไม่ได้ผล

## 8. นักศึกษามีโอกาสในการสื่อสารภาษาอังกฤษหรือไม่

มี  ไม่มี

ถ้ามี นักศึกษาสนทนาภาษาอังกฤษที่ไหน (นักศึกษาสามารถเลือกได้มากกว่าหนึ่งตัวเลือก)

ในชั้นเรียน  ที่บ้าน  ที่โรงเรียนกวดวิชา  
 ที่ชมรมภาษาอังกฤษ  อื่นๆ (โปรดระบุ)

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## ส่วนที่ 2

## แบบสอบถามเกี่ยวกับวิธีการแก้ปัญหาการสื่อสารภาษาอังกฤษ

**คำชี้แจง:** แบบสอบถามนี้สร้างขึ้นเพื่อรวบรวมข้อมูลเกี่ยวกับวิธีการแก้ปัญหาการสื่อสารภาษาอังกฤษของนักศึกษาวิชาเอกภาษาอังกฤษ นักศึกษาโปรดอ่านและพิจารณาว่าในขณะที่นักศึกษาสนทนาภาษาอังกฤษกับคู่สนทนา นักศึกษาใช้วิธีการแก้ปัญหาการสื่อสารภาษาอังกฤษ ที่ปรากฏในแบบสอบถามนี้บ่อยเพียงใด โดยให้นักศึกษาพิจารณาเลือกวิธีการแก้ปัญหาการสื่อสารภาษาอังกฤษที่กำหนด ให้สอดคล้องกับความเป็นจริงที่นักศึกษาใช้ โดยทำเครื่องหมาย ✓ ลงในช่องว่างโดยพิจารณาตามเกณฑ์ต่อไปนี้

“ไม่เคย”	หมายถึง นักศึกษา <u>ไม่เคย</u> ใช้วิธีการแก้ปัญหาการสื่อสารภาษาอังกฤษดังกล่าวเลย
“บางครั้ง”	หมายถึง นักศึกษาใช้วิธีการแก้ปัญหาการสื่อสารภาษาอังกฤษดังกล่าว <u>บางครั้ง</u>
“บ่อย”	หมายถึง นักศึกษาใช้วิธีการแก้ปัญหาการสื่อสารภาษาอังกฤษดังกล่าว <u>บ่อยครั้ง</u> ของการใช้วิธีการแก้ปัญหาการสื่อสารภาษาอังกฤษที่ นี้ ก ที่ ก ย า ใ ช้ ทั้งหมด
“สม่ำเสมอ หรือ เกือบสม่ำเสมอ”	หมายถึง นักศึกษาใช้วิธีการแก้ปัญหาการสื่อสารภาษาอังกฤษดังกล่าว <u>สม่ำเสมอ หรือ เกือบสม่ำเสมอ</u> ของใช้วิธีการ แก้ปัญหา การสื่อสารภาษาอังกฤษที่นักศึกษาใช้ทั้งหมด

## ตัวอย่าง:

1. เมื่อนักศึกษาสนทนาภาษาอังกฤษ นักศึกษามีปัญหาการสื่อสารกับคู่สนทนาหรือไม่

มี  ไม่มี

ถ้าไม่มี ให้หยุดตอบแบบสอบถาม

ถ้ามี ปัญหาในการสื่อสารนั้นเกิดขึ้นบ่อยเพียงใด

บางครั้ง  บ่อยครั้ง  ทุกครั้ง

และโปรดตอบคำถามข้อ 2 - 4

2. นักศึกษาเคยมีปัญหาในการพูดเพื่อสื่อสารกับคู่สนทนาหรือไม่?

เคย  ไม่เคย

ถ้าเคย นักศึกษาใช้วิธีการต่อไปนี้ บ่อยเพียงใด เพื่อแก้ปัญหาเหล่านั้น

วิธีการแก้ปัญหาการสื่อสารภาษาอังกฤษ	ความถี่ในการใช้			
	สม่ำเสมอ/เกือบ สม่ำเสมอ	บ่อยครั้ง	บางครั้ง	ไม่เคย
1. คิดเป็นภาษาไทยก่อนพูดภาษาอังกฤษ	✓			

ส่วนที่ 1: กลวิธีการสื่อสารในการส่งสาร

1. เมื่อนักศึกษาสนทนาภาษาอังกฤษ นักศึกษามีปัญหาการสื่อสารกับคู่สนทนาหรือไม่

มี

ไม่มี

ถ้าไม่มี ให้หาคำตอบแบบสอบถาม

ถ้ามี โปรดตอบคำถามข้อ 2 - 4

2. นักศึกษาเคยมีปัญหาในการพูดเพื่อสื่อสารกับคู่สนทนาหรือไม่?

เคย

ไม่เคย

ถ้าเคย นักศึกษาใช้วิธีการต่อไปนี้บ่อยเพียงใดเพื่อแก้ปัญหาเหล่านั้น

วิธีการแก้ปัญหาการสื่อสารภาษาอังกฤษ	ความถี่ในการใช้			
	สม่ำเสมอ/เกือบ สม่ำเสมอ	บ่อยครั้ง	บางครั้ง	ไม่เคย
1. การใช้คำพูดต่างๆ เช่น well, you know, okay, um หรือ uh เมื่อนักศึกษาไม่ทราบว่าจะพูดอะไร				
2. การใช้คำพูดอ้อมไปอ้อมมา (การเปลี่ยนคำพูดใหม่)				
3. ยกตัวอย่างให้ฟัง ถ้าผู้ฟังไม่เข้าใจว่าผู้พูดพูดถึงอะไร				
4. พูดคำ วลี หรือประโยคซ้ำ				
5. ใช้ภาษาไทยแทนคำ หรือวลีที่ไม่ทราบในภาษาอังกฤษ				
6. คิดเป็นภาษาไทยก่อนพูดภาษาอังกฤษ				
7. แปลความหมายตรงตัวจากภาษาไทยเป็นภาษาอังกฤษ				
8. หากออกเสียงผิด ใช้ไวยากรณ์หรือคำคิด นักศึกษาจะแก้ไขให้ถูกต้องด้วยตนเอง				
9. ใช้ประโยคที่นักศึกษาเคยเรียนมา				
10. ใช้ประโยคที่นักศึกษาได้พบเห็นในสื่อต่างๆ				
11. ตัดทอนข้อความและใช้ประโยคง่ายๆ				
12. ใช้คำเหมือน คำตรงกันข้าม รวมทั้งคำ วลี หรือประโยคต่างๆ ที่คุ้นเคย				
13. แต่งคำใหม่เพื่อให้สื่อสารได้ตรงกับเนื้อหา				
14. สะกดคำหรือเขียนคำ วลี หรือประโยคที่ต้องการสื่อสาร				
15. ใช้ภาษาท่าทางในการสื่อสาร เช่น ภาษามือ ภาษาท่าทาง หรือการแสดงออกทางสีหน้า				
16. ขอความช่วยเหลือกับคนรอบข้างเพื่ออธิบายข้อความของคู่สนทนา				
17. ขอความช่วยเหลือจากคู่สนทนา				
18. โทรศัพทหาคอนอื่นเพื่อขอความช่วยเหลือในสิ่งที่นักศึกษาต้องการสื่อสาร				
19. ใช้พจนานุกรม หนังสือ สิ่งของ หรือวัสดุต่างๆ ช่วยในการสื่อสาร				
20. วาดภาพประกอบเพื่อช่วยในการสื่อสาร				
21. เตรียมคำพูดโดยพยายามคาดเดาว่าคู่สนทนาจะพูดอะไรโดยใช้บริบทการสนทนา				

ส่วนที่ 2: กลวิธีการสื่อสารในการทำความเข้าใจสารที่ได้รับ

1. นักศึกษาเคยมีปัญหาในการเข้าใจสารที่ได้รับจากคู่สนทนาหรือไม่

เคย

ไม่เคย

ถ้าเคย นักศึกษาใช้วิธีการต่อไปนี้บ่อยเพียงใดเพื่อแก้ปัญหาเหล่านั้น

วิธีการแก้ปัญหาการสื่อสารภาษาอังกฤษ	ความถี่ในการใช้			
	สม่ำเสมอ/เกือบ สม่ำเสมอ	บ่อยครั้ง	บางครั้ง	ไม่เคย
1. พยายามจับคำพูดทุกคำที่คู่สนทนาสื่อออกมา				
2. ขอให้คู่สนทนาพูดซ้ำอีก				
3. ขอให้คู่สนทนาพูดช้าลง				
4. ขอให้คู่สนทนายกตัวอย่างและใช้คำพูดง่ายๆ เมื่อนักศึกษาไม่แน่ใจ ในสิ่งที่คู่สนทนาพูด				
5. ตั้งใจฟังการออกเสียงสูงต่ำในประโยคของคู่สนทนา				
6. เมื่อไม่มั่นใจในสิ่งที่คู่สนทนาพูด นักศึกษาขอให้คู่สนทนาช่วยอธิบาย ให้ฟังอีกครั้ง				
7. ตั้งใจฟังคู่สนทนาพูดโดยเฉพาะประโยคที่เป็นคำถาม				
8. พยายามจับใจความสำคัญที่คู่สนทนาสื่อสารออกมา				
9. เคารพความหมายในสิ่งที่คู่สนทนาได้สื่อออกมา				
10. พยายามแปลสารเป็นภาษาไทยที่ละเอียดและน้อยเพื่อให้เข้าใจในสิ่งที่ คู่สนทนาสื่อออกมา				
11. พูดซ้ำ สรุป เรียงเรียงสารใหม่ในสิ่งที่ได้ยินและขอให้คู่สนทนา ยืนยันว่าถูกต้องหรือไม่				
12. สัมผัสถึงความตั้งใจในการฟังและพูดเมื่อไม่สามารถทำความเข้าใจใน สารที่คู่สนทนาสื่อออกมา				

ส่วนที่ 3: กลวิธีการสื่อสารในการทำให้การสนทนาดำเนินต่อ

1. นักศึกษาเคยพยายามให้การสนทนาดำเนินต่อไปตามที่ตั้งใจหรือไม่?

เคย

ไม่เคย

ถ้าเคย นักศึกษาใช้วิธีการต่อไปนี้บ่อยเพียงใดเพื่อช่วยให้การสนทนาดำเนินต่อไปตามที่ตั้งใจ

วิธีการแก้ปัญหาการสื่อสารภาษาอังกฤษ	ความถี่ในการใช้			
	สม่ำเสมอ/เกือบ สม่ำเสมอ	บ่อยครั้ง	บางครั้ง	ไม่เคย
1. พยายามทำตนเองผ่อนคลายและสนุกกับการสนทนา				
2. ใส่ใจกับคู่สนทนาโดยการมองตา แสดงออกทางสีหน้าและท่าทาง				
3. กระตุ้นตนเองให้แสดงออกในสิ่งที่อยากสื่อสารกับคู่สนทนา				
4. นักศึกษาไม่รู้สึกกังวลที่จะกล่าวถึงความคิดลงในขณะพูด				
5. ไม่รู้สึกกังวลเมื่อนักศึกษาจะไม่สามารถเข้าใจทุกๆ คำพูด และยัง พยายามที่จะพูดต่อไป				
6. เปลี่ยนวิธีการพูดเพื่อให้สอดคล้องกับบริบทเพื่อให้การสนทนาดำเนิน ต่อไปได้				

วิธีการแก้ปัญหาการสื่อสารภาษาอังกฤษ	ความถี่ในการใช้			
	สม่ำเสมอ/เกือบ สม่ำเสมอ	บ่อยครั้ง	บางครั้ง	ไม่เคย
7. พุดช้าลง เพื่อใช้เวลาในการคิดคำพูดและเพื่อให้การสนทนาคำเนินไปอย่างราบรื่น				
8. พุดเกี่ยวกับเรื่องอื่นๆ เพื่อให้มีเวลาในการคิดสารที่จะสื่อออกไป				
9. แสร้งทำคนว่าเข้าใจสารที่คู่สนทนาพูดเพื่อให้การสนทนาคำเนินต่อไปได้				
10. ขอโทษคู่สนทนาหากนักศึกษาพูดหรือทำบางสิ่งบางอย่างที่ไม่เหมาะสมและพยายามทำความเข้าใจ (เกี่ยวกับวัฒนธรรม) กับสิ่งที่ตนเองเข้าใจผิดให้ถูกต้อง				

นอกจากวิธีการแก้ไขปัญหาการสื่อสารภาษาอังกฤษข้างต้น มีวิธีการอื่นๆ หรือไม่ที่นักศึกษาใช้ในการแก้ปัญหาการสื่อสารภาษาอังกฤษ

มี

ไม่มี

ถ้าไม่มี โปรดตอบแบบสอบถามในตอนต้นที่ 3

ถ้ามี โปรดระบุวิธีการแก้ปัญหาการสื่อสารภาษาอังกฤษที่นักศึกษาใช้

- 1) \_\_\_\_\_
- 2) \_\_\_\_\_
- 3) \_\_\_\_\_
- 4) \_\_\_\_\_
- 5) \_\_\_\_\_

มหาวิทยาลัยเทคโนโลยีสุรนารี

## APPENDIX C

### Attitude towards speaking English

*This survey is conducted by the researcher for her PhD degree as well as to better understand attitude towards speaking English held by Thai university students. This is not a test, so there is no 'right' or 'wrong' answers. Your responses will be used for this research only and will be treated with utmost confidentiality. They will not affect any of your grades at university. We appreciate your cooperation.*

.....

**Instructions:** Attitude towards speaking English is designed to obtain information about your attitude towards speaking English. In the statements below, you will find various attitude towards speaking English. Please read each statement carefully considering how you resort to the attitude when you orally communicate in English with people using the following criteria. Then mark your response with a '✓' in the corresponding space provided.

.....

<b>“Strongly Agree”</b>	means that you <u>completely agree</u> on the attitude described in the statement.
<b>“Agree”</b>	means that you <u>agree</u> on the attitude described in the statement.
<b>“Undecided”</b>	means that you <u>are not sure</u> about the attitude described in the statement.
<b>“Disagree”</b>	means that you <u>do not agree</u> on the attitude described in the statement.
<b>“Strongly Disagree”</b>	means that you completely do not agree on the attitude described in the statement.

**Example:**

Statements	Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1) Speaking English is fun.		✓			

Do you strongly agree, agree, disagree or strongly disagree with the following statements?

Statements	Strongly agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1. You enjoy speaking English.					
2. Speaking English is fun.					
3. Being able to speak English often makes you happy.					
4. Being able to speak English gives you a feeling of success.					
5. Speaking English is important to you in general.					
6. You speak English because it will make your parents or your teacher proud of you.					
7. You speak English because you want to do well on oral tests.					
8. You speak English because you want to communicate with foreigners.					
9. Speaking English is important to you because you want to make friends with foreigners.					
10. Speaking English is important to you because you might study overseas.					
11. Speaking English is important to you because you might need it later for your job.					
12. You speak English because all educated people can do that.					
13. You speak English because you have to do it.					
14. You think you speak English well.					
15. You like to mimic other people's accents.					
16. You can mimic other accents well					
17. You think if you put much effort in practicing, you can speak English well.					
18. At school, if you didn't know how give and answer in English for sure, you would sometimes answer out loud in class anyway.					
19. You are not worried about making mistakes when you speak English.					
20. You are not afraid of being laughed at when you make mistakes in speaking.					

☺ Thank you very much ☺

## APPENDIX D

### Attitude towards speaking English (Thai Version)

#### แบบสอบถาม

แบบสอบถามนี้สร้างขึ้นเพื่อรวบรวมข้อมูลเกี่ยวกับทัศนคติของนักศึกษาระดับอุดมศึกษาวิชาเอกภาษาอังกฤษที่กำลังศึกษา ณ มหาวิทยาลัยในภาคตะวันออกเฉียงเหนือที่มีต่อการสนทนาภาษาอังกฤษ ซึ่งการตอบแบบสอบถามนี้ไม่ใช่การทดสอบจึงไม่มีคำตอบที่ 'ถูก' หรือ 'ผิด' คำตอบของท่านจะถูกใช้สำหรับการวิจัยเท่านั้นและจะได้รับการรักษาเป็นความลับอย่างสูงสุด ทั้งนี้ข้อคิดเห็นของผู้ตอบแบบสอบถามจะไม่ส่งผลกระทบต่อผลการเรียนของท่านที่มหาวิทยาลัย ขอขอบคุณในความร่วมมือ มา ณ ที่นี้

คำชี้แจง: แบบสอบถามนี้สร้างขึ้นเพื่อรวบรวมข้อมูลเกี่ยวกับทัศนคติของนักศึกษาระดับอุดมศึกษาวิชาเอกภาษาอังกฤษที่มีต่อการสนทนาภาษาอังกฤษ นักศึกษาโปรดอ่านและพิจารณาว่าในขณะที่นักศึกษาสอนภาษาอังกฤษกับคู่สนทนา นักศึกษามีทัศนคติต่อการพูดภาษาอังกฤษที่ปรากฏในแบบสอบถามนี้เพียงใด โดยให้นักศึกษาพิจารณาเลือกระดับความคิดเห็นที่กำหนดให้สอดคล้องกับความเป็นจริงที่นักศึกษาใช้ โดยทำเครื่องหมาย '✓' ลงในช่องว่างโดยพิจารณาตามเกณฑ์ต่อไปนี้

“เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง”	หมายถึง นักศึกษาเห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่งกับทัศนคติที่บรรยายในประโยค
“เห็นด้วย”	หมายถึง นักศึกษาเห็นด้วยกับทัศนคติที่บรรยายในประโยค
“ไม่แน่ใจ”	หมายถึง นักศึกษาไม่แน่ใจกับทัศนคติที่บรรยายในประโยค
“ไม่เห็นด้วย”	หมายถึง นักศึกษาไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่งกับทัศนคติที่บรรยายในประโยค
“ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง”	หมายถึง นักศึกษาไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่งกับทัศนคติที่บรรยายในประโยค

คำชี้แจง: โปรดทำเครื่องหมาย (✓) ในช่องว่างที่นักศึกษาพิจารณาว่าเหมาะสมที่สุด

ตัวอย่าง:

ทัศนคติเกี่ยวกับการพูดภาษาอังกฤษ	เห็นด้วย อย่างยิ่ง	เห็นด้วย	ไม่แน่ใจ	ไม่เห็นด้วย	ไม่เห็นด้วย อย่างยิ่ง
1) คุณรู้สึกสนุกที่ได้พูดภาษาอังกฤษ		✓			

นักศึกษาเห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง เห็นด้วย ไม่เห็นด้วย หรือไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่งเกี่ยวกับทัศนคติที่มีต่อการพูดภาษาอังกฤษเหล่านี้

ทัศนคติเกี่ยวกับการพูดภาษาอังกฤษ	เห็นด้วย อย่างยิ่ง	เห็นด้วย	ไม่แน่ใจ	ไม่เห็นด้วย	ไม่เห็นด้วย อย่างยิ่ง
1) คุณรู้สึกสนุกที่ได้พูดภาษาอังกฤษ					
2) การพูดภาษาอังกฤษเป็นเรื่องที่สนุก					
3) การพูดภาษาอังกฤษได้ทำให้คุณมีความสุข					
4) การพูดภาษาอังกฤษได้ทำให้คุณรู้สึกว่าคุณประสบความสำเร็จ					
5) การพูดภาษาอังกฤษเป็นสิ่งที่สำคัญสำหรับคุณ					
6) คุณพูดภาษาอังกฤษเพราะอยากให้คุณพ่อคุณแม่หรือครูอาจารย์ภูมิใจในตัวคุณ					
7) คุณพูดภาษาอังกฤษเพราะคุณต้องการทำการสอบพูดภาษาอังกฤษให้ได้					
8) คุณพูดภาษาอังกฤษเพราะคุณต้องการสื่อสารกับชาวต่างชาติ					
9) การพูดภาษาอังกฤษเป็นสิ่งที่สำคัญสำหรับคุณเพราะคุณต้องการมีเพื่อนชาวต่างชาติ					
10) การพูดภาษาอังกฤษเป็นสิ่งที่สำคัญสำหรับคุณเพราะคุณอาจจะไปเรียนต่อที่ต่างประเทศ					
11) การพูดภาษาอังกฤษเป็นสิ่งที่สำคัญสำหรับคุณเพราะคุณอาจมีความจำเป็นที่ต้องพูดภาษาอังกฤษในการทำงาน					
12) คุณพูดภาษาอังกฤษเพราะคนที่มีความรู้ทุกคนสามารถพูดภาษาอังกฤษได้					
13) คุณพูดภาษาอังกฤษเพราะคุณจำเป็นต้องพูด					
14) คุณคิดว่าคุณพูดภาษาอังกฤษได้ดี					
15) คุณชอบเขียนแบบสำเนียงพูดของผู้อื่น					
16) คุณสามารถเขียนแบบสำเนียงภาษาอังกฤษได้ดี					
17) คุณคิดว่าหากคุณพยายามมากขึ้นคุณก็จะพูดภาษาอังกฤษได้ดี					
18) หากคุณไม่รู้ว่าจะตอบเป็นภาษาอังกฤษอย่างไรที่โรงเรียน บางครั้งคุณก็จะตอบเสียงดังในชั้นเรียน					
19) เมื่อคุณพูดภาษาอังกฤษผิด คุณก็ไม่รู้สึกกังวล					
20) คุณไม่รู้สึกลัว หากมีคนหัวเราะเยาะเมื่อคุณพูดผิด					

☺ Thank you very much for your co-operation ☺

## **APPENDIX E**

### **Interviewing Questions**

1. What is your name?
2. How long have you been learning English?
3. Without thinking too deeply about it, say what 3 key words come to your mind when you hear the word 'English'?
4. Do you like English? Why do you like/do not like English?
5. What has been your most positive experience of learning English?
6. What has been your most negative experience of learning English?
7. When you have communication problems, how do you tackle such problems?
8. Why do you use certain strategies frequently and certain strategy infrequently for dealing with communication breakdowns and maintain the conversation?

## APPENDIX F

### Interviewing Questions (Thai Version)

1. คุณชื่ออะไร
2. คุณเรียนภาษาอังกฤษมานานเท่าไร
3. หากคุณสามารถยืมคำว่าภาษาอังกฤษ 3 คำแรกที่คุณตอบได้โดยไม่ต้องคิด คุณคิดถึงคือคำว่าอะไร
4. คุณชอบภาษาอังกฤษหรือไม่ ทำไมชอบ/ไม่ชอบภาษาอังกฤษ
5. ประสบการณ์ด้านบวกที่สุดในการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษของคุณคืออะไร
6. ประสบการณ์ด้านลบที่สุดในการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษของคุณคืออะไร
7. เมื่อคุณประสบปัญหาในการสื่อสาร คุณมีวิธีการแก้ไขปัญหาดังกล่าวอย่างไร
8. ทำไมคุณถึงใช้กลวิธีการสื่อสารนี้บ่อยและไม่บ่อยเมื่อประสบปัญหาการสื่อสารหรือเพื่อให้การสนทนาคำเนิ่นต่อ

## APPENDIX G

### A Sample Interview Transcript

**Interviewee:** MU17

**Place:** Maharakham University

**Date:** 27 August 2013

**Duration:** 15 minutes

.....  
Interviewer: What is your name?

Interviewee: My name is .....

Interviewer: What grade are you in now?

Interviewee: I am a third year student.

Interviewer: How long have you been learning English?

Interviewee: I have been learning English since elementary level.

Interviewer: Without thinking too deeply about it, say what 3 key words come to your mind when you hear the word 'English'?

Interviewee: 3 key words come to my mind when I hear the word 'English' are fun, foreigners, culture, language and vocabulary.

Interviewer: Do you like English? Why do you like/do not like English?

Interviewee: I like English because I want to gain new experiences, cultural differences, and learn new things. It helps me to improve my knowledge and experience. For me, I think English is fun.

Interviewer: What has been your most positive experience of learning English?

Interviewee: I can speak English in my daily life. I have more opportunity to use English more than people who cannot speak English. For example, when I travel and meet foreigners, I can communicate with them than those who cannot speak English. Moreover, I had a chance to go to aboard when I was in a high school. Because of my good achievement of English, I was a representative of students to go aboard.

Interviewer: Where did you go?

Interviewee: I went to Malaysia and Singapore for joining the seminar not being an exchange student. At first, I was excited, happy and excited. I never think that I have a chance to go overseas. Then I prepared myself in advance what I had to do and prepare before go there. At that time I tried to improve my English in order to improve and expand my vocabulary knowledge. In my opinion, when I get there, I have to speak with them in English. Because I did not have my teachers to help me to translate the message, as a result, I had to practice speaking English before I went there. So I realized that if I can speak English, I would have a better chance than those who cannot speak English.

Interviewer: What has been your most negative experience of learning English?

Interviewee: When I meet foreigners, at first I am afraid to speak with them. I don't know what I have to say with them. If I talk to them, what is the next topic that I should talk about? I feel worried when I have to communicate with foreigners, I am afraid that he could not understand me. I felt that when I was in a high school because I studied with a foreign teacher, but right now my English is better.

Interviewer: When you have communication problems, how do you tackle such problems?

Interviewee: I try to practice speaking English with myself or speak English in front of the mirror in order to increase my confidence when speaking. When my teacher assign a pair work, I always volunteer myself to be a representative to speak at the front of the class. When I have communication problems, I solve problems by keeping speaking.

Interviewer: By the way, according the questionnaire, let me as you the reasons why do you use certain strategies frequently and certain strategy infrequently for dealing with communication breakdowns and maintain the conversation?

Interviewee: Of course.

Interviewer: Why do you frequently 'make use of expressions which have been previously learnt'?

Interviewee: I think what I have learnt from my teacher is correct so that I use those sentences to communicate with foreigners as well as apply it in my

Interviewee: language learning. I am confident that those sentences are correct. I also use those sentences in order to expand my vocabulary knowledge.

Interviewer: Anything else?

Interviewee: For now, I have no more reasons for this strategy.

Interviewer: Why do you frequently 'make use of expressions found in some sources of media'?

Interviewee: I enjoy listening to music and watch soundtrack movies, I use those words or sentences, phrases because they simple words which I can apply it in my daily English communication.

Interviewer: What is the reason you use this strategy?

Interviewee: This strategy enables a long sentence to be a short and precise sentence. It is also easy to remember and use when communicating. Then I try to use it because they are concise, precise, and easy to understand. As a result, I often use this strategy.

Interviewer: Why do you frequently 'reduce the message and using simple expressions'?

Interviewee: As I mentioned earlier, the words or sentences in songs or movies are simple, short, concise, precise and easy to understand. I use this strategy as the same reason as the previous strategy.

Interviewer: Why do you frequently ‘use synonym, antonym familiar words, phrases, or sentences’?

Interviewee: They are simple words such as good, well, better. So, when I write an essay, I use different words in order to make my writing not repetitive.

Interviewer: What you are saying is you think words that are used in writing can be used in speaking as well?

Interviewee: Absolutely. I think when I speak English, I want to use a variety of words not only use the same word all the time. At the meantime, I also learn new words.

Interviewer: Why do you frequently ‘use non-verbal expressions such as mime, gestures, and facial expressions’?

Interviewee: I often use this strategy because it is easy to use. It is a kind of effective strategy. When facing communication breakdowns, giving explanation through body language is easy to understand. It makes the interlocutor get a better understanding. It also enables me and the interlocutor gets a mutual understanding.

Interviewer: Anything else?

Interviewee: This strategy is also used to greet people. For example, if my friends and I are standing in a different place which is a little bit far away from each other, we can use body language, such as waving hands for greeting or saying good bye to each other instead of speaking out loud.

Interviewer: Now, let's move on to certain strategies that you infrequently use when dealing with communication breakdowns?

Interviewee: Okay.

Interviewer: Why do you infrequently 'appeal for assistance from other people around to clarify the interlocutor's message'?

Interviewee: I sometimes use this strategy because I am considerate. For example, while I am speaking with the interlocutor, then I call my friend due to communication problems. I don't want to keep him waiting. Sometimes my friends don't pay attention what I am saying, as a result, I not only waste my time to explain to my friends, but also waste the interlocutor's time. Therefore, I prefer solving problems by myself.

Interviewer: Why do you infrequently 'appeal for assistance from the interlocutor'?

Interviewee: I sometimes use this strategy. I sometimes think about the word that I want to express so that I want to find out it by myself. In my view, I think that the interlocutor does not know what is in my mind. For example, I think about my family; so he cannot imagine or know much about my family background. So, I will try to explain to him by myself. I will try to be myself and use my linguistic knowledge to explain to him as much as I can.

Interviewer: You mean in some situations, the interlocutor does not know about some topics or details that you want to express, so it is difficult for you to ask for help from him, is that right?

Interviewee: Yes.

Interviewer: Why do you infrequently ‘make a phone call to another person for assistance’?

Interviewee: I never use this strategy because I am considerate and afraid that the speaker may have to wait for me while I call my friends. If I call a friend of mine, my friend is busy or is in a noisy place, or does not understand what I am saying, I need to speak slowly and explain to him again and again. I think it is a waste of time. More than that, my friend’s answer may touch a little point that I expect to know. As a result, I prefer solving the problems by myself.

Interviewer: Why do you infrequently ‘draw a picture’?

Interviewee: I sometimes use this strategy because I am not good at drawing pictures. Another reason is that I seldom carry out tools, like pens, papers, etc. with me when communicating with foreigners. It is not convenient for me. I think it is time consuming as well. Hence, I prefer using body language instead.

Interviewer: Anything else?

Interviewee: No.

Interviewer: Why do you infrequently ‘give up when one can’t make oneself understood’?

Interviewee: I never give up when I cannot make myself understood. For me, English is a part of my life. I have learnt it since I was from kindergarten up to high school level. English has been taught in all education level. Right now I love English. I need to use it every day. The more I learn English, the more I love it. I think ‘the more frequently I speak English, the better I will become’. At this point, I think I am happy with it. I wish to learn English more. I don’t want to give up learning English. If I stop studying it, it means that I have to go back at the starting point again. In my opinion, English is good and necessary. I want to improve my speaking skill.

Interviewer: Well, that’s all for today. Thank you very much for your time and cooperation.

Interviewee: It’s my pleasure. Thank you very much for giving me a chance to share my ideas with you.

## APPENDIX H

### Universities and Number of Participants for the Present Investigation

No.	University	Step 1 (Questionnaire)			Step 2 (Interview)		
		English Education	Non-English Education	Total	English Education	Non-English Education	Total
<b>Universities located in the Northeast of Thailand</b>							
<b>Public University</b>							
1.	Khon Kaen University	0	118	118	0	5	5
2.	Maharakham university	117	0	117	5	0	5
<b>Rajabhat University</b>							
5.	Maha Sarakham Rajabhat University	0	120	120	0	5	5
6.	Nakhon Ratchasima Rajabhat University	119	0	119	5	0	5
7.	Roi Et Rajabhat University	124	0	124	5	0	5
11.	Udon Thani Rajabhat University	116	0	116	5	0	5
<b>Rajamangala University of Technology Isan</b>							
1.	Rajamangala University of Technology Isan Nakhon Ratchasima Campus	0	90	90	0	5	5
3.	Rajamangala University of Technology Isan Khon Kean Campus	0	115	115	0	5	5
4.	Rajamangala University of Technology Isan Sakonkakhon Campus	0	30	30	0	5	5
<b>Subtotal</b>		476	473	949	20	25	45
<b>Total</b>							
		476	473	949	20	25	45

## **CURRICULUM VITAE**

Parichart Toomnan was born in Nong Khai, Thailand on 24 February, 1976. She obtained her Master's degree in Curriculum and Instruction from Khon Kaen University in 2002. She also received a Master of Arts in English from Srinakarinwirot University, Prasarnmit Campus in 2007. After teaching English for many years, in 2010, she was enrolled in the doctoral program of English Language Studies of the School of Foreign Languages, Institute of Social Technology, Suranaree University of Technology, Thailand. Then in 2014, she undertook the English programme at The Language Centre, the University of Leeds, the UK. She obtained her Ph.D. degree in the academic year 2014.

She has over 10 years of teaching experience. She has been teaching English in universities, for instance, Nakhon Pathom Rajabhat University (2003); Valaya Alongkorn Rajabhat University under the Royal Patronage, Bangkok Campus (2005); Mahachulalongkornrajavidyalaya University, Nong Khai Campus (2007) and Khon Kaen University, Khon Kaen Campus (2008). Currently, she is working as a lecturer of English at the Faculty of Liberal Arts, Khon Kaen University, Nong Khai Campus.

Her academic areas of interests are mainly in language learning strategies and communication strategies. She is also much interested in second language acquisition, teacher training, EFL learning and teaching as well as intercultural communication.