

**USE OF COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES BY
ENGLISHMAJORS AT RAJAMANGALA
UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY**



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

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การใช้กลวิธีการสื่อสารของนักศึกษาวิชาเอกภาษาอังกฤษ
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สุรภา สมสัย : การใช้กลวิธีการสื่อสารของนักศึกษาวิชาเอกภาษาอังกฤษ มหาวิทยาลัยเทคโนโลยีราชมงคล (USE OF COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES BY ENGLISH MAJORS AT RAJAMANGALA UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY) อาจารย์ที่ปรึกษา : รองศาสตราจารย์ ดร.ชาญณรงค์ อินทรประเสริฐ, 262 หน้า

การวิจัยครั้งนี้มีวัตถุประสงค์เพื่อสำรวจการใช้กลวิธีการสื่อสารของนักศึกษามหาวิทยาลัยเทคโนโลยีราชมงคล วิชาเอกภาษาอังกฤษเพื่อการสื่อสารสากล และศึกษาความสัมพันธ์ระหว่างความถี่ของการใช้กลวิธีในการสื่อสารกับตัวแปร 4 ตัว ได้แก่ เพศของนักศึกษา (ชายและหญิง) การใช้ภาษาอังกฤษในการสื่อสาร (จำกัดเฉพาะในห้องเรียน และไม่จำกัดเฉพาะในห้องเรียน) ระดับชั้นที่กำลังศึกษา (ระดับสูง ระดับกลาง และระดับต้น) ที่ตั้งของมหาวิทยาลัย (ในแหล่งท่องเที่ยวชาวต่างประเทศ และนอกแหล่งท่องเที่ยวชาวต่างประเทศ) กลุ่มตัวอย่างในการศึกษาค้นคว้าครั้งนี้คือ นักศึกษาจำนวน 48 คน (ในการสัมภาษณ์) ได้จากการสุ่มตัวอย่างแบบเจาะจง (Purposive sampling method) และจำนวน 811 คน (ในการตอบแบบสอบถาม) ได้จากการสุ่มตัวอย่างแบบแบ่งชั้นภูมิ (Stratified random sampling method) จากมหาวิทยาลัยเทคโนโลยีราชมงคล วิชาเอกภาษาอังกฤษเพื่อการสื่อสารสากลทั้งสิ้นในปี ในปีการศึกษา 2552 การเก็บข้อมูลแบ่งเป็น 2 ช่วง ได้แก่ ช่วงที่ 1) การสัมภาษณ์ และช่วงที่ 2) แบบสอบถามซึ่งสร้างจากข้อมูลวิเคราะห์จากการสัมภาษณ์ในช่วงที่ 1

แบบสอบถามที่ผู้วิจัยสร้างขึ้นเพื่อใช้เป็นเครื่องมือในการเก็บรวบรวมข้อมูลนั้น ได้ทำการตรวจสอบความเที่ยงตรงโดยมีค่าดัชนีความสอดคล้อง โดยเฉลี่ยที่ระดับ .99 และความเชื่อมั่นโดยมีค่าสัมประสิทธิ์อัลฟาร์ที่ระดับ .92 การวิเคราะห์ข้อมูลทางสถิติประกอบด้วย สถิติเชิงบรรยาย สถิติการวิเคราะห์ความแปรปรวน และการทดสอบไค-สแควร์

ผลการวิจัยพบว่า ความถี่ในการใช้กลวิธีการสื่อสารของนักศึกษายู่ในระดับปานกลางทั้งในโดยภาพรวม และใน 4 กลวิธีหลัก ซึ่งได้แก่ 1) กลวิธีการสื่อสารเพื่อส่งสารได้อย่างต่อเนื่อง 2) กลวิธีการสื่อสารเพื่อส่งสารแบบไม่ต่อเนื่อง 3) กลวิธีการสื่อสารเพื่อเข้าใจสารที่ได้รับ และ 4) กลวิธีการสื่อสารเพื่อรักษาการสนทนาให้ดำเนินต่อไป ทั้งนี้ นักศึกษารายงานความถี่สูงสุดในการใช้กลวิธี ‘ใช้คำ วลี หรือประโยคที่นักศึกษาคุ้นเคย เพื่อส่งสารได้อย่างต่อเนื่อง’ และต่ำสุดในการใช้กลวิธี ‘โทรศัพท์หาเพื่อนเพื่อขอความช่วยเหลือเพื่อส่งสารแบบไม่ต่อเนื่อง’ นอกจากนี้ ผลการวิเคราะห์ข้อมูลแสดงให้เห็นอีกว่า โดยภาพรวม ความถี่ของการใช้กลวิธีการสื่อสารของนักศึกษามีความสัมพันธ์อย่างมีนัยสำคัญกับเพศ และ โอกาสการใช้ภาษาอังกฤษในการสื่อสารของนักศึกษา โดยพบว่านักศึกษาเพศหญิงรายงานความถี่ในการใช้กลวิธีสูงกว่าเพศชายอย่างมีนัยสำคัญ และ

นักศึกษาที่มีโอกาสการใช้ภาษาอังกฤษในการสื่อสาร ไม่จำกัดเฉพาะในห้องเรียนรายงานความถี่ในการใช้กลวิธีสูงกว่านักศึกษาที่มีโอกาสการใช้ภาษาอังกฤษจำกัดเฉพาะในห้องเรียนอย่างมีนัยสำคัญ



สาขาวิชาภาษาอังกฤษ
ปีการศึกษา 2554

ลายมือชื่อนักศึกษา _____
ลายมือชื่ออาจารย์ที่ปรึกษา _____

SURAPA SOMSAI : USE OF COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES BY
ENGLISH MAJORS AT RAJAMANGALA UNIVERSITY OF
TECHNOLOGY. THESIS ADVISOR : ASSOC. PROF. CHANNARONG
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ENGLISH-MAJOR STUDENTS/ COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES/ ORAL
COMMUNICATION PROBLEM/ CONTINUOUS INTERACTION STRATEGIES

The objectives of the present study are to investigate types and frequency of communication strategy use of Rajamangala University of Technology (RMUT) students majoring in English for International Communication (EIC), and to examine the relationships as well as patterns of variations in the frequency of students' reported strategy use at different levels with reference to the four variables: gender of students, exposure to oral communication in English, level of study, and location of institution. The participants in the study were 48 students (involving in the interviews) selected through the purposive sampling method, and 811 students (responding to the questionnaires) selected through the stratified random sampling method. They were all studying in the four-year EIC major at RMUTs in academic year 2009. There were two main phases of data collection. A semi-structured interview was used in the first phase and the strategy questionnaire, which was generated from the data obtained through the interviews, was used as the main method in the second phase for data collection.

The Index of Item-Objective Congruence (IOC) was employed to check for the content validity of the research-constructed questionnaire. The estimate value of

the content validity was .99. For the internal consistency of the questionnaire, the Alpha Coefficient (α) or Cronbach Alpha was used with the estimate value of .92. The statistical methods used for data analysis involved descriptive statistics, an Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), and the Chi-square tests (χ^2).

The findings revealed that 811 RMUT students majoring in EIC reported employing CSs, as a whole, with medium frequency. The students also reported employing strategies at the medium frequency level in each of the four categories, namely Continuous Interaction Strategies for Conveying a Message to the Interlocutor, Discontinuous Interaction Strategies for Conveying a Message to the Interlocutor, Strategies for Understanding the Message, and Strategies for Maintaining the Conversation. The highest frequency of 44 individual CS use in all the four categories was 'using familiar words, phrases, or sentences to convey the message to the interlocutor continuously' whilst 'making a phone call to another person for assistance to convey the message to the interlocutor' was reportedly employed the least frequently. The findings also showed that there was a relationship between the students' overall CS use and gender of students and exposure to oral communication in English. Female students reported greater overall CS use than did male counterparts; and students with non-limited exposure to oral communication in English to classroom instructions reported more frequent use than did those with limited exposure.

School of English

Academic Year 2011

Student's Signature _____

Advisor's Signature _____

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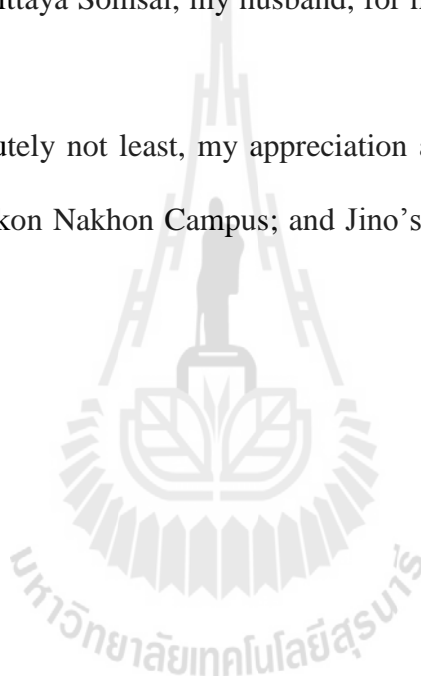


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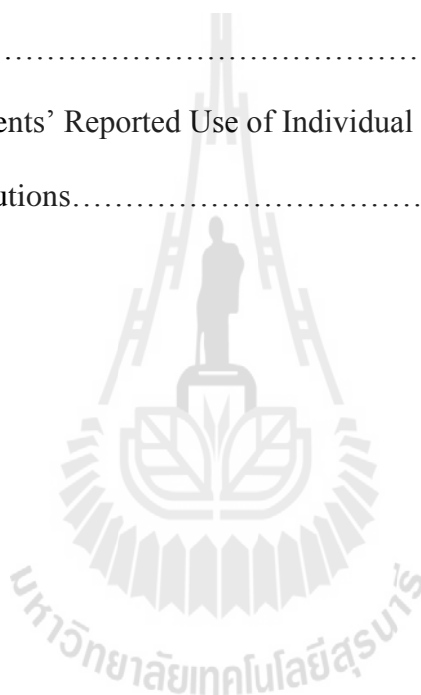
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CHAPTER 1

BACKGROUND TO STUDY

1.1 Introduction and Purpose of the Chapter

This chapter introduces the background to and context for the present investigation. The subsequent section addresses the terms used in the present study. This is followed by the background of Rajamangala Universities of Technology (RMUTs) and English language teaching and learning. Then, the research objectives and the outcomes of the study are presented. The Chapter ends with the outline of the thesis.

The notion of communication strategies (CSs) has been introduced since the early 1970s noticing the mismatch between L2 learners' linguistic knowledge and communicative intentions which causes a great number of language phenomena aiming at handling difficulties or breakdowns in oral communication (Corder, 1983; Dörnyei & Scott, 1997). Since then CSs have been the focus of increasing interest in terms of both research and their applications to the foreign language (FL) teaching. The earliest research studies mainly focus on the nature of CSs including CS definitions, identifications, and classifications. Subsequently, a substantial number of empirical studies have been conducted to answer questions on learners' CS use in relation to learner characteristics, and on the practical implications of CSs, namely teaching and training CSs to language learners.

It is undeniable that English is the vital medium of international communication in most countries in the world. According to Crystal (1997), it was estimated that over a third of the world's population were routinely exposed to English. In addition, as pointed out by Finster (2004), a recent publication by the International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language (IATEFL) shows that communication among non-native speakers of English represents 80 percent of global English use. However, Crystal (1997, p. 60) remarks, "only a proportion of these people actually have some command of English". Later on, Crystal (2003) further estimates that approximately a quarter of the world's population have only 'reasonable' competence in conversation, not good command of English. 'A reasonable level of attainment' is an assumable criterion based on the countries where English has an official status and where it is taught in schools, for all those who have completed secondary or further education and are over the age of 25 (Crystal, 1997).

In such an instance, based on a considerable number of people with only reasonable competence especially of those FL learners, this may be, to some extent, because language teachers may fail to create opportunities for genuine or natural communication in the language classrooms (Kumaravadivelu, 1993). Moreover, FL learners generally lack exposure to native speakers of English for authentic communication outside the classrooms. Whenever they leave the classrooms, they automatically turn to speak their mother tongue or dialect. So, they have little opportunity to practise what they have learned in the classrooms for their genuine communication in the real world (Campbell, 2004). In this sense, although the communicative language teaching method which mainly focuses on meaning and language use has been adopted, the learners' learning outcome is still not efficient

enough (Chen, 2005). This is linked to the ideas suggested from some research that language learning occurs best when learners are engaged in meaningful communication (Krashen, 1982; Lightbown & Spada, 1999). Long (1985) asserts that interactions frequently require modification of input through negotiations or reformulations leading to L2 acquisition of learners, which would probably take place if they could access real-life target language communication whereby they can talk to their interlocutors as well as negotiate the meaning to avoid misunderstanding both inside and outside the classroom settings on a regular basis.

It is now commonplace to state that the communicative approach has played an important role in language teaching. Adopting the approach, language learners are expected to be able to efficiently express what they mean in the target language and successfully achieve communications in real-life situations (Lightbown & Spada, 1999). The ultimate goal of language teaching under the communicative approach is to improve the communicative competence of language learners (Richards et. al., 1985; Dörnyei and Thurrel, 1991). It is believed that language learners can significantly improve their communicative competence by developing their ability to use CSs (Canale, 1983). Therefore, the present study is intended to focus on a crucial aspect of communicative language skills, namely strategic competence or communication strategies which language learners employ to cope with their oral communication problems.

According to Hughes (2002, p. 91), a term of ‘communication strategies’ is relating to “the ability of a language user actively to manipulate a conversation and negotiate interactions effectively. Such strategies are particularly beneficial when there is some difficulty of expression or communication”. Littlemore (2003) points out that

CSs are the processes taken by the language learners in order to enhance the effectiveness of their communication. Regarding the importance of CSs, Nunn (2005) views that preparing for communication between people who have a broad range of backgrounds implies the need to have a highly developed repertoire of CSs. According to Dörnyei and Thurrel (1991, p. 16), “The lack of fluency or conversational skills that students often complain about is, to a considerable extent, due to the underdevelopment of strategic competence”. They also emphasize that through the use of CSs, language learners can control the conversation even if something unexpected occurs which actually leads to greater self-confidence of the learners. Besides, Zheng (2004, p. 72) holding the same view states, “There are stronger voices stating that strategic competence as a means to make students confident, flexible, and effective in communication is feasible and to some extent inevitable”.

Moreover, some language learners are believed to be able to communicate in certain communication situations successfully with only one hundred words. This may be because they are relying entirely on their CSs (Dörnyei and Thurrel, 1991). To put it simply, when native speakers and non-native speakers have an interaction, they may use strategies including paraphrase, approximation, word coinage, literal translation, language switch, appeal for assistance, mime, and fillers or hesitation devices. The strategies could be used not only to solve any communication problems arising during the oral communication in English but also to enhance the effectiveness of the interaction. They can eventually overcome communication breakdowns and reach communicative goals. This success is believed to gradually develop the second-language learners’ communicative competence and also make them become more confident and successful communicators ultimately.

Generally speaking, language learners in Thailand do not have opportunities to communicate in English; hence, whenever they have opportunities to interact, they should make use of all the available means that enable them to keep their conversational channels open in order to practise speaking English. According to Dörnyei (1995), CSs can help learners to obtain English language practice. Additionally, Mariani (2010, p. 43) states, “CSs help learners to remain in conversation, and so provide them with more input, more opportunities for checking and validating their hypotheses, and therefore, more chances to develop their interlanguage system”. We can see that through the use of CSs, to certain extent, learners can maximise their English-speaking practice opportunities. That is to say, whenever language learners have an opportunity to interact with their interlocutor in English and if some problems arise during the development of interaction due to their linguistic or sociolinguistic limitation; they can recourse to CSs to solve these problems and help maintain their conversation. It is worth mentioning that although there is no problem involved in the oral communication, language learners can also use CSs in order to enhance the effectiveness of the communication. This means that CSs can help language learners control more on their interaction and keep conversation going so that learners could have more opportunities to practise speaking English through that on-going conversation.

To the researcher’s best knowledge in the field of CSs, at present, only a small number of research studies in the field have been carried out with Thai students to investigate learners’ choice of communication strategy use in relation to individual differences of learners (e.g. Sienprapassorn, 1993; Wongsawang, 2001; Luengseonthong, 2002; Wannaruk, 2002; Weerarak, 2003; and Sroysamut, 2005). For

example, Luengsengthong (2002) conducted a research with 320 Matthayom Suksa 6 students in the schools under the jurisdiction of the Department of General Education to investigate students' use of CSs in the aspects of paralinguistic, interlingual, and intralingual strategies; and to examine the relationship between their fields of study and their CS use. The data collection instrument, called in the study 'the test of using CSs', was a communication strategy questionnaire. The findings showed that the students frequently employed intralingual, paralinguistic, and interlingual strategies respectively. The frequency of CSs employed by the learners varied according to their fields of study, i.e. the students in the Science Program used CSs more frequently than those in the Language-Art Program.

In addition, Sroysamut's research (2005) was carried out with 600 1st, 2nd, and 3rd year medical students at Mahidol University to investigate learners' use of compensatory strategies and the effect of English language proficiency on their choice of compensation strategy use. The instruments used for collecting data were questionnaires and individual interviews. The research results revealed that the most frequently used compensatory strategies were mime or gesture, linguistic clue, adjust or approximate the message, circumlocution, appeal for help, word coinage, code-switching respectively. The linguistic clue was most frequently used by high-ability students whilst low-ability students used other strategies more frequently than the linguistic clue.

Through an extensive review of related literature and available research studies on CSs, we have found that, to date, no empirical research studies have been carried out to investigate CSs employed by Rajamangala Universities of Technology (RMUTs) students majoring in English for International Communication (EIC). Furthermore, there is no research examining learners' use of CSs in relation to other

variables than language or oral proficiency levels, task types, L1 & L2, time difference, and types of school. Therefore, the researcher for the present investigation aims to fill these gaps.

The present study has been established to investigate communication strategies employed by RMUT students majoring in EIC. The communication questionnaire based on the researcher-developed communication strategy inventory was used to investigate learners' use of CSs in relation to gender of students (male and female); exposure to oral communication in English (limited to classroom instructions only and non-limited to classroom instructions); levels of study (beginner, intermediate, and advanced); and locations of institutions (tourist destinations for foreigners and non-tourist destinations for foreigners). In addition, the study has been designed to examine overall strategy use, the use of five CS categories as well as the relationships between students' choice of CSs and four variables.

In conclusion, the variables in the present study have been carefully selected in order to examine their effect on the use of CSs of RMUT students majoring in EIC. Apart from types of CSs, frequency of students' use of CSs is also the focal point of the study. The theoretical framework and rationale for selecting and rejecting variables for the study will be discussed in more detail in Chapter 3.

1.2 The Working Definitions for the Present Investigation

Following are the working definitions used in the present investigation:

1.2.1 Communication Strategies

The term 'communication strategies' for the present investigation refers to a systematic attempt made by students to cope with oral communication problems both

to convey a message to the interlocutor and to understand the message due to their inadequate linguistic or sociolinguistic knowledge. These CSs may also be employed in order to maintain their conversation. CSs may occur in either pseudo communication or real-life communication both inside and outside language classroom settings.

1.2.2 Students

‘Students’ for the present study refers to Thai undergraduate students whose major field of study is English for International Communication in all four levels at Rajamangala Universities of Technology.

1.2.3 Levels of Study

In the present investigation, ‘levels of study’ refers to students’ years of study in the four-year program of EIC. The levels of study were classified as beginner (first year), intermediate (second and third year), and advanced (fourth year).

1.2.4 Exposure to Oral Communication in English

‘Exposure to oral communication in English’ in this study refers to opportunities students can use English to communicate verbally, whether with their teachers, friends or other people. The students were classified based on their exposure to oral communication in English as limited to classroom instructions only, and non-limited to classroom instructions.

1.2.5 Locations of Institutions

‘Locations of institutions’ was classified into two main groups as the RMUT institutions are located in the areas which are the tourist destinations for foreigners and those located in the areas which are non-tourist destinations for foreigners. The

former includes Krungthep, Thanyaburi, Phitsanulok, and Trang campuses. The latter covers Hantra, Bangphra, Tak, and Surin campuses.

1.3 Background of Rajamangala Universities of Technology and Their English Language Teaching and Learning

Under the Institute of Technology and Vocational Education Act 1975, the Institute of Technology and Vocational Education (ITVE) was founded on 27 February 1975. As an institute under the Ministry of Education, it took a key role as a tertiary education institute in offering educational programs, undertaking research, providing academic services to the community and nourishing the national arts and culture. Later, in the renaming of the institute, the institute humbly requested a grant from His Majesty the King to use His Majesty's name; and the name Rajamangala Institute of Technology (RIT) had been used since 15 September 1988 (RMUT Thanyaburi Council, 2006). At present, according to the Rajamangala University of Technology Act 2005, RIT has been upgraded to universities and are known as Rajamangala University of Technology (RMUT). There are 9 clusters of Rajamangala Universities of Technology nationwide, namely RMUT Lanna, RMUT Isan, RMUT Tawan-Ok, RMUT Phra-Nakhon, RMUT Rattanakosin, RMUT Krungthep, RMUT Suwannaphumi, RMUT Thanyaburi, and RMUT Sriwichai.

The major purposes of the nine clusters of Rajamangala Universities of Technology are to:

- 1) provide tertiary education with focuses on developing science and technology professionals with quality and capacity essential for the career;

2) undertake research, and facilitate inventions and innovations based on science and technology of which the results could be transferred to increase the national productivity and other value-added benefits;

3) provide academic services to promote creation of jobs and competitive potentiality;

4) take active participation in the preservation and nourishment of Thai arts, culture, religions, and the environment; and

5) serve as an academic center with good governing management and enhance good quality of individuals' lives (RMUT Thanyaburi Council, 2006).

It is obvious that, Rajamangala Universities of Technology mainly aim to develop qualified and ethical national workforce as well as highly capable technologists to serve the nation need.

Regarding English language learning and teaching at Rajamangala Universities of Technology, English as a foreign language is provided to students as compulsory and elective courses for both English major and non-English major students. At Rajamangala Universities of Technology, one main programme on offer is called English for International Communication. Some Rajamangala Universities of Technology provide their students with other additional English programmes such as Business English, Hospitality, and Tourism. For English major students, apart from the core courses of English of their majors, they have to study English as fundamental courses in general education (GE), English as elective courses, and English for specific purposes (ESP). For non-English major students, they need to take English as fundamental courses in general education and English for specific purposes for their specialized areas. They also can take other English as elective courses if they wish to be more proficient in English.

1.4 Research Objectives

The main purposes of the present investigation are to examine types and frequency of CSs RMUT students majoring in EIC employ in their oral communication in English, and to explore how they are related to four variables: 1) gender of students: male and female; 2) exposure to oral communication in English: limited to classroom instructions only and non-limited to classroom instructions; 3) levels of study: beginner, intermediate, and advanced; and 4) locations of institutions: tourist destination for foreigners and non-tourist destination for foreigners. To be precise, the purposes of the present study are threefold:

1. to investigate types and frequency of communication strategies which RMUT students majoring in EIC employ when communicating in English;
2. to investigate the relationship between frequency of students' use of communication strategies and the four variables: gender of students (male and female); exposure to oral communication in English (limited to classroom instructions only and non-limited to classroom instructions); levels of study (beginner, intermediate, and advanced); and locations of institutions (tourist destination for foreigners and non-tourist destination for foreigners); and
3. to examine patterns of significant variations in the frequency of students' report of communication strategy use at different levels with reference to the four variables mentioned in (2) above.

1.5 The Outcomes of the Present Investigation

The present investigation is crucial and useful for both language teachers and learners in terms of increasing a better understanding of communication strategy use.

That is to say, it increases language teachers and related persons' better understanding of learners' use of CSs while they are communicating in English both inside and outside the language classrooms. It sheds some light on conceptions and misconceptions of CSs. Language teachers may make use of the findings for their oral communication teaching. That is, they gain new insights into the way in which they may use to improve their oral communication teaching and teaching styles. They may also carefully consider communicative activities each of which encourages different types of CSs in their teaching in order to help their students become as successful communicators as possible. Furthermore, language learners bring the right conceptions about CSs into their consideration for the fulfillment of their oral communication in English improvement.

Moreover, according to the variables investigated in the present study which are different from the variables investigated in the past research studies, the investigation helps language teachers learn what factors affect the selection of CSs. Language teachers can also see which variables are related to the effectiveness of CSs, and try to keep such variables in their teaching contexts.

1.6 The Outline of the Thesis

In this thesis, the background of the study and the research objectives were presented in Chapter 1. In order to achieve the research objectives, the researcher first reviewed the past available research studies on CSs, then related literature, and finally the research methodology which contributes to the present investigation. These can be seen in details in Chapter 2 and Chapter 3. Then, the research findings in the first phase of data collection, the research findings in the second phase of data collection,

and the discussions of the research findings were presented in Chapter 4, Chapters 5 and 6, and Chapter 7, respectively. The summary of each chapter is as follows:

Chapter 1 covers the background of the present study and the working definitions for the present investigation as well as the background of RMUTs and their English language teaching and learning. Then the research objectives and the outcomes of the present investigation were presented.

Chapter 2 includes the review of related literature and the past available research studies on CSs. The chapter covers some significant aspects of CSs, namely definitions of oral communication, the characteristics of oral communication, definitions of communicative competence, the components of communicative competence, the importance of strategic competence, and CSs involving characteristics of CSs, the importance of CSs in enhancing communication ability, definitions of CSs, characteristics of definitions of CSs, and classification of CSs. Finally, some research studies on CSs conducted both inside and outside Thailand which contribute to the present investigation are reviewed and summarised.

Chapter 3 discusses some general principles of research design which were applied to the present investigation. It centers on research methodology of the present study explaining methods in CSs; theoretical framework; rationale for selecting and rejecting variables for the present investigation; research questions; framework of data collection methods for the present investigation. This is followed by sampling and rationale for choice of subjects, and characteristics of the research population. The chapter ends with how to analyze, interpret, and report the data for the present investigation.

Chapter 4 focuses on the communication strategy inventory which emerged from the data obtained through the student oral semi-structured interviews with 48 RMUT students majoring in EIC. Firstly, the procedures of eliciting information from the 48 students in the first phase of data collection are described. This is followed by a report of how the preliminary communication strategy inventory was generated based on the interview data. Then, the method of how to categorise the CSs into four main strategy categories, as well as the method of how to validate the communication strategy inventory is discussed. Lastly, the process used to generate the communication strategy questionnaire which was used as the main instrument for the second phase of data collection is presented.

Chapter 5 presents and describes the results of the research findings in terms of 811 RMUT students' overall strategy use, use of strategies in the four main categories, and use of individual CSs based on the holistic mean scores obtained through the communication strategy questionnaire.

Chapter 6 examines significant variations and patterns of variation in frequency of 811 students' overall strategy use, use of strategies in the four main categories, and use of individual CSs in association with the four independent variables: gender of students, exposure to oral communication in English, levels of study, and locations of institutions. The chapter presents the variations in students' overall reported CS use and strategy use in the four main categories through the use of analysis of variance (ANOVA). Additionally, the variation of the students' individual strategy use through the use of chi-square tests is described.

Chapter 7 presents and discusses the research findings of the present study in response to research questions no. 1-6 proposed in Chapter 3. This is followed by the

implications of the research findings for the teaching and learning of English of RMUT students majoring in EIC, as well as the contributions of the present investigation to related areas. The chapter ends up with the limitations of the present study and proposals for future research.

1.7 Summary

In Chapter 1, the researcher has given a description of the background of the present investigation in an attempt to put the study in a proper context. Then the working definitions for the present investigation and the brief overview of background of RMUTs and their English language teaching and learning are presented. This is followed by the research objectives, and the outcomes of the present investigation. In the last part of the chapter, the outline of the thesis is concluded.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1 Introduction and Purpose of the Chapter

This chapter mainly focuses on the review of related literature on communication strategies (CSs). It first presents the definitions of ‘oral communication’ defined by different language researchers in the field and the characteristics of oral communication. Then communicative competence and English language learning as well as the definitions of communicative competence, the components of communicative competence, and the importance of strategic competence are discussed. This is followed by the discussion of language learning strategies and communication strategies (CSs). Finally, a review of related research works on CSs that have been conducted in both Thailand and other countries with regards to the focal points of the studies, participants, methods of data collection, and results as well as a summary of the chapter are presented respectively.

It is undeniable that ‘getting language learners to communicate’ is the heart of communicative approach, the developed approach from the audio-lingual method and the grammar translation method. So, the main goal of language teaching, based on the communicative approach, is to enable learners to use language in ways which are communicatively effective and appropriate (Richards & Schmidt, 1983). Some scholars assert that the way to acquire second language is similar to the first

language theory that gives great importance to child-directed speech, i.e. much of the second language acquisition takes place from face-to-face conversational interaction, or through ‘oral communication’ (Pica, 1994; Long, 1983). In this sense, oral communication is considered as one of the crucial aspects in communicative language teaching and learning. Therefore, many researchers in the field of SLA have been seeking ways to help language learners become successful language users. That is to say, the more they try to use L2, the more they will acquire the language, especially when using CSs.

A number of previous studies show that second language and/or foreign language research within applied linguistics increasingly focus on CSs in the early 1970’s. They were conducted to identify and classify the learners’ CSs in communicating concrete lexical items, identify relationship between CSs and learner characteristics, and establish the comprehensibility and the effectiveness of learners’ CSs (Poullisse and Schils, 1989).

To have a better understanding about CSs, it would be useful to know a brief background of oral communication. The next section is to illustrate as well as discuss the definitions and characteristics of oral communication.

2.2 Oral Communication in English Language Learning

Since the communicative approach has been adopted in language teaching and learning, oral communication plays an important role in the language classroom. Consequently, a number of research works have been carried out in order to seek effective ways to help improve language learners’ oral communication skills. Several scholars have defined and proposed the characteristics of oral communication as follows.

2.2.1 Definitions of Oral Communication

Before discussing the characteristics of oral communication, the researcher would discuss briefly the term ‘oral communication’ in order to give a clear picture of how the term has been defined by different researchers. Through an extensive review of the related literature on ‘oral communication’, we can see that several definitions of ‘oral communication’ have been defined. The sample definitions are illustrated below:

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

Based on the sample definitions given by the scholars above, we can see that oral communication has been considered as either the act or the process of face-to-face spoken interaction between two or more persons. In oral communication, the speaker and listener exchange their messages and ideas verbally through the process of interaction involving expressing intentions, interpreting the intentions, and negotiating meaning of the messages.

2.2.2 Characteristics of Oral Communication

Regarding the nature of communication, Canale (1983) has followed the proposals made by Breen and Candlin (1980), Morrow (1977), and Widdowson (1978) in terms of the characteristics of communication. These include:

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 interpretations of utterances
- is carried out under limiting psychological and other conditions such as memory constraints, fatigue, and distractions
- always has a purpose (e.g. 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 on the basis of actual outcomes

Moreover, Lynch (1996, p. 3) points out that ‘oral communication’ involves “enabling someone else to understand what we want to tell them, what is often referred to as our message...in two-way communication such as face-to-face conversation, the social role of ‘listening’ often involves a considerable amount of talking”. In addition, on the act of oral communication, Rubin and Thomson (1994)

and Savignon (1997) view that oral communication normally involves three basic activities, namely expressing messages, interpreting messages, and negotiating meaning of the messages. That is, during the interaction, a person will express an idea. The other person must interpret and understand the message. If the message is not understandable, some meaning negotiation is needed.

In sum, the list of the characteristics of communication illustrated above provides an insight into the nature of communication which is full of unpredictability and changeability of language during the process of communication (Haley, 1963). In addition, oral communication involves the continuous evaluation and negotiation of meaning on the part of the participants (Candlin, 1980). In this sense, a variety of CSs is likely to be generated. They can be used to negotiate meaning, solve any arising oral communication problems during the communication process, and help convey the message to the interlocutors effectively (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990).

2.3 Communicative Competence and English Language Learning

Hymes (1972, cited in Ellis, 1994) was a sociolinguist who first proposed the notion of communicative competence extending the original notion of competence defined by Chomsky (Brown, 2000). Based on Chomsky's (1965) notion of competence and performance, the competence consists of the mental representations of linguistic rules that constitute the speaker-hearer's internal grammar; and the performance consists of the use of this grammar in the comprehension and production of language. In other words, competence refers to what one knows whereas performance refers to what one does. Hymes (1972) argues that Chomsky's notion of competence is too limited in the sense that it is not completely concerned with the

sociocultural factors, so Hymes coins the new term known as ‘communicative competence’ which covers communicative aspects of language. What follow are the discussions of the definitions of communicative competence, the components of communicative competence, and the importance of strategic competence.

2.3.1 Definitions of Communicative Competence

Generally, communicative competence has been seen as the knowledge which leads language learners to use a language for communication accurately and appropriately. For a better understanding of communicative competence, it is useful to comprehend what ‘communicative competence’ is. Some scholars have defined the term ‘communicative competence’ as follows:

- Hymes (1971, cited in Ellis, 1994, p. 13) defined communicative competence as “the knowledge the speaker-hearer has of what constitutes appropriate as well as correct language behavior and also of what constitutes effective language behavior in relation to particular communicative goal”. Later, in 1972 (cited in Brown, 2000, p. 246), Hymes further defined communicative competence as “the aspect of our competence that enables us to convey and interpret messages and to negotiate meanings interpersonally within specific contexts”.
- Canale and Swain (1980) refer communicative competence to as “both knowledge and skill in using this knowledge when interacting in actual communication”.

Based on the above definitions of communicative competence, we can see that communicative competence focuses on both linguistic and pragmatic knowledge that

can be used in understanding and producing discourse. That is, in communicative competence, both linguistic knowledge and pragmatic knowledge are potential in oral communication. The former is what a speaker knows about the language and about different aspects related to communicative language use; and the latter is how well a speaker can use the language in communication. The speaker can use both kinds of knowledge for conveying, interpreting message, and negotiating meaning with his/her interlocutors in a specific speech context effectively.

2.3.2 The Components of Communicative Competence

The widely accepted theoretical framework of communicative competence has been explained in terms of three component competencies proposed by Canale and Swain (1980). These include grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, and strategic competence. Canale (1983) further divides the sociolinguistic competence into two separate components as sociolinguistic and discourse competence. What follow is a brief discussion of each of the four areas of communicative competence based on Canale (1983); Savignon (1997); and Brown (2000).

1. *Grammatical competence* concerns the mastery of rules of second language (L2) phonology, word formation, and sentence formation; spelling; and linguistic semantics. This means that the knowledge and skill required to understand, interpret and express literal meaning of utterances are the focal point for the grammatical competence.

2. *Sociolinguistic competence* concerns the mastery of sociocultural rules of L2 language and of discourse, that is, utterances are suitably produced and understood in different sociolinguistic contexts. Understanding the roles of the participants,

speech act conventions, the use of a language to signal social relationships, etc are fully recognized.

3. *Discourse competence* concerns the mastery of rules of sentence connections, namely cohesion and coherence, of different kinds of discourse in L2. A whole series of utterances is produced meaningfully and understandably. This means that knowledge of language use of appropriate pronouns, synonyms, conjunctions, parallel structures, substitution, repetition, ellipsis, etc is the central point in discourse competence.

4. *Strategic competence* concerns the mastery of verbal and non-verbal CSs that are probably used while communicating in the target language whether to compensate for the communication breakdowns due to grammatical and sociolinguistic competence deficiencies or to enhance the effectiveness of communication.

Of the four components of the communicative competence, the two components: grammatical and discourse competence, mainly reflect the aspects of linguistic knowledge and skill use whereas the other two: sociolinguistic and strategic competence, deal with the language function. As communicative competence is believed to enable language learners to use a language effectively, especially in communication (Johnson & Johnson, 2001), it is important for language learners to be equipped with the knowledge of communicative competence as it is the identification of successful communicator's characteristics.

Strategic competence definitely plays an important role in the development of communicative competence as it is one of the main components of the communicative competence. It is concerned with the ability of knowing how to make the most of the

target language knowledge that the language learners have, especially when the target language is 'deficient' leading to communication problems. As strategic competence is related to CSs, based on the terms of strategic competence mentioned above, which are the focal points of the present investigation; and to have a greater understanding of strategic competence, it is worth discussing the importance of strategic competence.

2.3.3 The Importance of Strategic Competence

Based on the communicative competence mentioned above, the strategic competence has been considered as one of the important components of communicative competence. Canale and Swain (1980) define strategic competence as verbal and non-verbal strategies that may be called into action to compensate for communication breakdowns due to performance variables or to insufficient competence. Canale (1983, p. 10) further defines strategic competence as "the mastery of verbal and non-verbal CSs that may be called into action for two main reasons: (a) to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to limiting conditions in actual communication (e.g. momentary inability to recall an idea or grammatical form) or to insufficient competence in one or more of the other areas of communicative competence; and (b) to enhance the effectiveness of communication". Besides, Yule and Tarone (1990, p. 181) define strategic competence as "an ability to select an effective means of performing a communicative act that enables the listener/reader to identify the intended referent". Furthermore, Dörnyei and Thurrell (1991, p. 17) define strategic competence as "the ability to get one's meaning across successfully to communicative partners, especially when problems arise in the communication process".

Based on the definitions of strategic competence mentioned above, strategic competence seems to play an important role in developing the communicative competence. If the language learners want to reach communicative goals, they need to master the strategic competence, so that they can employ CSs to get the message across to their interlocutors, solve communication breakdowns if any exists at all, and reach communicative goals eventually. As Si-Qing (1990, p. 156) points out, “one can develop learners’ communicative competence by building up their strategic competence, i.e. their ability to use CSs that allow them to cope with various communicative problems that they might encounter”. Besides, Canale (1983, p. 11) gives an example of strategic competence as “If a learner did not know the English term ‘train station’, he or she might try a paraphrase such as ‘the place where trains go’ or ‘the place for trains’”. This means that the learner is well-equipped with strategic competence; whenever he or she faces a communicative problem, he or she decides to use other alternative means, known as CSs, to manage the problem in order to meet the intended communicative goal.

2.4 Communication Strategies (CSs)

The study of communication strategies (CSs) has occupied a place in the field of second language acquisition (SLA) since the early 1970s. The mismatch between second-language learners’ knowledge of the target language and communicative intentions has been taken into consideration by prior researchers (i.e. Selinker, 1972). This mismatch results in the occurrence of a great number of language phenomena aiming at managing and overcoming oral communication breakdowns or difficulties. Váradi (1983) initiated the empirical study on CSs discussing the systematic analysis

of strategic language behavior, and message adjustment. Since then the importance of CSs has been recognized and the interest of CSs has been increasing. The purpose of this section is to illustrate the characteristics of CSs, the importance of CSs, the definitions of CSs, and various taxonomies of CSs proposed by the past researchers in order to get a clear picture about CSs.

2.4.1 Characteristics of Communication Strategies

In the past, there was some confusion in identifying utterances in the interlanguage of the speaker between learning strategies and CSs. Some scholars have attempted to differentiate CSs from learning strategies by clearly characterizing the CSs. According to Corder (1983), CSs are likely to be characterized based on the relationship between means, the linguistic means used to convey the message in oral communication; and ends, the message in oral communication. He states that in L2 learners, these means and ends are not in balance. When the L2 learners are confronted with the communicative problems, two choices are open to them. The first option is to tailor their message to the linguistic means they have available. These strategies are called message adjustment strategies. They involve topic avoidance, message abandonment, semantic avoidance, and message reduction. The other option is to attempt to increase their linguistic means by using other means to maintain their communicative intentions. These strategies are called resource expansion strategies. They involve borrowing, switching, paraphrase or circumlocution, paralinguistic devices, and appeal for help. Both major types of strategies are known as CSs.

Similarly, Tarone (1983) has attempted to propose characteristics of CSs by pointing out that CSs should allow the two interlocutors, between L2 learner and the target language interlocutor, to bridge the gap between their linguistic knowledge in a

real communication situation. To bridge this gap, approximation, mime, and circumlocution may be employed. In case the gap is perceived as unbridgeable, message abandonment and avoidance may be used. Figure 2.1 illustrates the criteria used to characterize CSs proposed by Tarone (1983, p. 65):

Communication Strategies
<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 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; 3. the speaker chooses to: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> a) avoid –not attempt to communicate meaning X; or b) attempt alternate means to communicate meaning X. <p style="margin-left: 40px;">The speaker stops trying alternatives when it seems clear to the speaker that there is shared meaning.</p>

(Source: Tarone, 1983, p. 65)

Figure 2.1: Characteristics of Communication Strategies

Based on the proposed criteria for CS characteristics illustrated above, Tarone affirms that CSs must meet all of the three criteria. If a strategy misses at least one criterion, whether criterion 1, 2, or 3; the strategy is not counted as communication strategy. It would be counted as either learning strategy or production strategy. Learning strategy is an attempt to develop linguistic and sociolinguistic competence in the target language to incorporate these into one's interlanguage competence, which lacks criterion 1-- the desire to communicate meaning. Meanwhile, production strategy is an attempt to use one's linguistic system efficiently and clearly, with a minimum effort, which misses criterion 3(b)-- the negotiation of meaning attempt (Tarone, 1983, pp. 72-73).

In conclusion, CSs typically occur during an oral interaction either between the L2 and L2 learners or the L2 and target language interlocutors. Normally, CSs are used by the L2 learners when the linguistic or sociolinguistic knowledge of a message is unavailable. There are two options of CSs for them to use, i.e. message adjustment strategies and resource expansion strategies. Following is the discussion about the importance of CSs in enhancing communication ability.

2.4.2 The Importance of Communication Strategies in Enhancing Communication Ability

Most learners of a second language aim to communicate in the target language effectively. For learners who have not mastered the language, they actually find it difficult to communicate in the target language. A reason for not mastering the language may be because there are some gaps in the learners' knowledge of a second-language, which could be a word, a structure, a phrase, a tense marker, or an idiom (Bialystok, 1990). But how do the learners cope with these gaps in their oral communication? They may use their hands, imitate the sound or movement of things, mix languages, create new words, or describe or circumlocute something they do not know the word for. In short, they use CSs (Dörnyei, 1995). In other words, in oral communication, the learners attempt to overcome the gaps due to their linguistic knowledge deficiencies by employing CSs to reach the communication goal.

Terrell (1977, p. 334) asserts, "CSs are crucial at the beginning stages of second language learning". Similarly, Bialystok (1990, p. 116) points out, "CSs are an undeniable event of language use, their existence is a reliable documented aspect of communication, and their role in second language communication seems particularly salient". Furthermore, Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991) point out that all CSs are

helpful for language acquisition because they enable learners to keep the conversation going and thereby provide more opportunities for input.

Generally, the second-language learners could use CSs in their oral communication for two main purposes. The first one is to solve the oral communication problems, and the second one is to promote, improve, and maintain the oral communication (Canale, 1983). According to Tarone (1981, p. 65), CS is “a mutual attempt of two interlocutors to agree on a meaning in situations where requisite meaning structures do not seem to be shared”. This means that both the message sender and message receiver do attempt to get the message across to each other and they would employ CSs when they have problems expressing themselves. O’Malley and Chamot (1990, p. 43) assert that CSs are particularly important “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”. They also state that CSs are used to promote communication. That is, CSs are employed not only to repair oral communication breakdowns but also to improve the effectiveness of communication.

To put it simply, CSs are commonly used not only to bridge the gaps between the linguistic and sociolinguistic knowledge of the second-language learners and those of the target language interlocutors in any communication situations, but also to keep their talks flowing within their available linguistic knowledge, and actually manage to maintain their oral communication.

In addition, there were substantial research works related to teaching or training CSs to learners. Most findings were positive in terms of advantages of employing CSs whether the learners could maintain spoken communication in a

foreign language, improve in speech rate, or become more confident and successful communicators (e.g. Gabriellatos, 1992; Dörnyei, 1995; Brett, 2001; Lam, 2006).

Moreover, CSs are included in the strategic competence which is one of the important components of communicative competence. It is important for language learners to be proficient in properly using all aspects of communicative competence, namely grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence, and strategic competence (see Section 2.3.2) (Canale, 1983). It is worth mentioning that the language learners must develop their own strategic competence in order to reach communicative goals. In other words, they should be able to use CSs to overcome various oral communication problems that they might encounter due to their linguistic deficiencies.

In sum, CSs are seen as language devices used to manage oral communication problems in relation to linguistic deficiencies. The second-language learners may use CSs to solve the communication problems they may encounter during the oral communication, to promote communication, to improve the effectiveness of communication, and to keep the oral communication going. Through the use of CSs, the second-language learners could get the intended meaning across to the interlocutors successfully even though there is a linguistic deficiency happening between the two interlocutors. This success would gradually develop the communicative competence of the second-language learners; make them become more confident, and eventually successful communicators.

Many of the initial studies of CSs, from the mid 1970's to the early 1980's, mainly focused on defining CSs and developing taxonomies of CSs (e.g. Tarone, Cohen and Dumas, 1976; Tarone, 1980, 1983; Corder, 1983; Færch and Kasper,

1983a; Bialystok, 1983). Later, a considerable amount of research has been carried out with such a purpose as to investigate the link between CS use and different variables, and to examine the effects of CS training and/or teaching on L2 learners' CS use. To get the whole picture of CSs before going further, both definitions and taxonomies of CSs will be presented below.

2.4.3 Definitions of Communication Strategies

Several definitions of CSs have been proposed by different researchers in the early studies of CSs (e.g. Tarone, Cohen & Dumas, 1976; Tarone, 1980, 1983; Corder, 1983; Bialystok, 1983, 1990; Canale, 1983; Færch and Kasper, 1983; Stern 1983; Paribakht, 1985; Bygate, 2000; and Lam, 2006). However, the agreement on definition of CSs has not come to the final decision for the universal acceptance yet. Different researchers have defined CSs differently. Examples are:

- Tarone, Cohen & Dumas (1976, p. 78) define CSs 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; 1983, p. 65) defines CSs as “a mutual attempt of two interlocutors to agree on a meaning in situations where requisite meaning structures do not seem to be shared”.
- Bialystok (1983, p. 102) defines CSs as “all attempts to manipulate a limited linguistic system in order to promote communication”.
- Canale (1983, p. 10) sees CSs as “verbal and non-verbal strategies that may be called into action to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to limiting conditions in actual communication or to insufficient

competence in one or more of other areas of communicative competence, and to enhance the effectiveness of communication”.

- Corder (1983, p. 16) defines CSs as “a systematic technique employed by a speaker to express his meaning when faces with some difficulty”.
- Færch and Kasper (1983a, p. 36) define 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”.
- Paribakht (1985, p. 132) defines CSs as “the means that speakers use to solve their communicative problems”.
- Bygate (2000, p. 115) defines CSs as “ways of achieving communication by using language in the most effective way”.
- Lam (2006, p. 142) defines CSs as “tactics taken by L2 learners to solve oral communication problems”.

Based on the CS definitions above, we have found that the past researchers have defined the term of CSs differently though they apparently share some similarities, i.e. the purpose and the function of CSs. Regarding the purpose of CSs, CSs are used in order to manage oral communication problems in order to prevent communication breakdowns and keep the conversation flowing in the target language. As Dörnyei and Scott (1997, p. 186) suggest, “researchers generally agree that the main purpose of CS use is to manage oral communication problems”. For the functions of CSs, CSs are seen as the tools that can be used to manage oral

communication problems and to promote communication. The tools can refer to as any techniques, attempts, means, or plans the second-language speakers use to manage oral communication problems. As Tarone (1980, p. 420) states, “CSs are seen as tools used in a joint negotiation of meaning, in situations where both interlocutors are attempting to agree as to communicative goal”.

Generally, CSs are defined based on two main perspectives: the interactional and the psycholinguistic. CSs under the interactional perspective (e.g. Tarone, 1980, 1983) have been treated as elements of discourse with their attention focusing on the linguistic realisation of CSs (Dobao and Martínez, 2007). Tarone’s definition shows that the interlocutors also play a role in a communication. Meaning negotiation and repair mechanisms between the interlocutors are crucial to the concept of CSs. With regard to the psycholinguistic perspective (e.g. Færch and Kasper, 1983a), CSs have been defined as internal and individual mental plans as ‘potentially conscious plans’ in the definition proposed by Færch and Kasper.

According to Færch and Kasper, (1983a), for example, CSs are defined based on a model of speech production which comprises two phases: a planning phase and an execution phase. In the planning phase, the speaker selects rules and items which he/she considers most appropriate for establishing a plan, the execution of which will lead to verbal behavior which is expected to satisfy the intended communicative goal; and in the execution phase, it consists of neurological and physiological processes, leading to articulation of the speech organs, the use of gestures and signs, etc”. CSs take place in the planning phase when learners have a problem with their initial plan preventing them from expressing the intended message in the execution phase. Since the psycholinguistic scholars are interested in the cognitive production processes and

try to explain CS use on cognitive models of speech production, the role of CSs in terms of interaction function is not considered.

In addition, some CS definitions are proposed in the traditional view, 'problem-oriented' (e.g. the definitions of Stern, 1983; Paribakht, 1985; Færch and Kasper, 1983a). CSs are seen as verbal or non-verbal first-aid devices or problem-solving devices used to compensate for gaps in the speaker's L2 knowledge. These definitions seem to restrict CSs to problem-solving devices. That is, CSs are used when the L2 speaker is confronted with a problem or difficulty in getting the intended meaning across in an oral communication.

Based on the definitions of CSs given by Canale (1983) and Bygate (2000), CSs are used not only to cope with any language-related problems of which the speaker was aware during the course of communication, but also to enhance the effectiveness of communication even if there is no problem or difficulty involved in an oral communication. CSs could involve any attempt to accomplish and enhance the effectiveness of communication.

Besides, Dörnyei (1995) proposes an extension of the existing definitions including non-strict meaning-related devices (i.e., fillers and hesitation devices). Several researchers have highlighted the empirical significance of using fillers and hesitation devices as a conscious means to maintain communication in the difficult situations (e.g., Canale, 1983; Canale & Swain, 1980; Ellis, 1985; Haastруп & Phillipson, 1983; Hatch, 1978; Rost, 1994; Rubin, 1987; Savignon, 1972, 1983). The devices are used to gain time to think for words and keep the communication channel open at times of difficulty during the course of oral communication.

In conclusion, CSs can be defined as language means used by the second-language learners in an attempt either to manage problems in expressing their intended meaning to their interlocutors due to their linguistic deficiencies in an oral communication, or to promote and enhance the effectiveness of their oral communication.

2.4.4 Characteristics of Definitions of Communication Strategies

Through a literature review of the CSs, we can see that three characteristics have consistently been mentioned on the definitions of CSs. These include:

1. *Problematicity*. CSs are seen as language devices used to overcome oral communication problems related to interlanguage deficiencies. Problem-orientedness or problematicity in Bialystok's (1990) has become the first major characteristic on the definitions of CSs (Dörnyei and Scott, 1997). It refers to "the idea that strategies are used only when a speaker perceives that there is a problem which may interrupt communication" (Bialystok, 1990, p. 3). However, Bialystok (1990) maintains that CSs can occur even though no communicative problems arise. For instance, native speakers would explain in long definitions for words to ensure that their interlocutors have understood the messages even though no communicative problem has been encountered.

2. *Consciousness*. Consciousness is the second major characteristic on the definitions of CSs (Færch and Kasper, 1980; Dörnyei and Scott, 1997). However, it is implicit in most of the proposed definitions of CSs because it is not yet self-evident that speakers are indeed aware that their utterances constitute strategic language use (Bialystok, 1990). Bialystok (1990, p. 4) asserts, "If CSs are truly conscious events of

language use, then it follows that speakers who employ them are aware (to some extent, in some undefined way) of having done so”.

3. *Intentionality*. Intentionality, in the context of CSs, refers to “the speaker has control over the strategy that is selected and that the choice is responsive to the perceived problem (Bialystok, 1990, p. 5).

In sum, although the definitions of CSs have defined differently in details, they are likely to share the same point in terms of the criteria use, namely problematicity, conciousness, and intentionality. That is to say, basically, the scholars in the field of communication strategy have considered some of these three features, based on their perspectives, in defining CSs.

2.4.5 Classification of Communication Strategies

Over the years typologies of CSs have been developed. The conceptual differences among CS researchers lead to the diversity of typologies and classifications of CSs resulting in various existing CS taxonomies.

Following is a summary of CS taxonomies proposed by eleven researchers, namely Tarone, Cohen & Dumas (1976), Tarone (1977), Bialystok (1983, 1990), Corder (1983), Færch and Kasper (1983c), Paribakht (1985), Poulisse (1987, 1993), Willems (1987), Dörnyei (1995), Dörnyei and Scott (1997), and Nakatani (2006).

2.4.5.1 Communication Strategy Classification by Tarone, Cohen & Dumas (1976)

Tarone, Cohen & Dumas (1976) have classified the strategies dealing with communication difficulties as follows:

1. Transfer from NL

Negative transferring from the native language resulting in inappropriate and incorrect by native standard utterances (e.g. *‘the book of Jack’* for *‘Jack’s book’*).

2. Overgeneralization	Applying a rule of the target language to inappropriate target language forms or contexts (e.g. <i>'I don't know what is it.'</i> , <i>'He goed.'</i>).
3. Prefabricated pattern	Using a regular patterned segment of speech without knowledge of its underlying structure (e.g. <i>'What do you doing?'</i> For <i>'What are you doing?'</i>).
4. Overelaboration	Attempting to produce careful language utterances which seem stilted and inordinately formal (e.g. <i>'Buddy, that's my foot which you're standing on'</i> , <i>'The people next door are rather indigent.'</i>).
5. Epenthesis	Attempting to produce unfamiliar consonant clusters in the target language by inserting schwa vowels, for example, between consonants (e.g. /sətərəI/ for /streI/ (stray)).
6. Avoidance	
a) Topic avoidance	
1. Change topic	
2. No verbal response	Attempting to totally evade communication about 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/ and /r/ in pollution problems, Avoiding talking about what happened yesterday).
b) Semantic avoidance	Evading the communication of content for which the appropriate target language rules and forms are not available, by talking about related concepts which may presuppose the desired content. (e.g. <i>'It's hard to breathe'</i> for <i>'air pollution'</i> , <i>'I like to swim'</i> in response to <i>'What happened yesterday?'</i>).
c) Appeal to authority	
1. Ask for form	
2. Ask if correct	Asking someone else to supply a form or lexical item, asking if a form or item is correct, or looking it up in a dictionary. (e.g. <i>'How do you say "staple" in French?'</i>).
3. Look it up	
d) Paraphrase	Rewording the message in an alternate, acceptable, target language construction, in order to avoid a more difficult form or construction (e.g. <i>'tool'</i> for <i>'wrench'</i> , <i>'airball'</i> for <i>'balloon'</i> (Word coinage), <i>'a thing you dry your hands on'</i> for <i>'towel'</i> (Circumlocution)).
e) Message abandonment	Whereby 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 authority to help finish the utterance (e.g. <i>'If only I had a ...'</i>).
f) Language switch	Transporting a native word or expression, untranslated, into the interlanguage utterance. (e.g. <i>'Je ne pas go to school. (French-L2).'</i>).

Tarone, Cohen & Dumas (1976) have classified strategies for handling communicative problems into six main types: transfer from native language, overgeneralization, prefabricated pattern, overelaboration, epenthesis, and avoidance. These CS were identified based on the tradition of error analysis. In other words, the

researchers tried to explain the communicative behavior phenomena from errors made by language learners.

2.4.5.2 Communication Strategy Classification by Tarone (1977)

Tarone (1977) has introduced the CS taxonomy which includes the five main categories as follows:

1. Avoidance

Topic avoidance Occurring when the learner simply does not talk about concepts for which the vocabulary or other meaning structure is not known.

Message abandonment Occurring when the learner begin to talk about a concept but is unable to continue due to lack of meaning structure, and stop in mid-utterance.

2. Paraphrase

Approximation Using of a single target language vocabulary item or structure, which the learner knows is not correct, but which share 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 element of the subject or action instead of using the appropriate TL structure (*'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'*).

3. Conscious Transfer

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 NL term without bothering to translate (e.g. *'balon'* for *'balloon'* or *'tirtil'* for *'caterpillar'*).

4. Appeal for assistance

Asking for the correct term or structure (e.g. *'What is this?'*).

5. Mime

Using nonverbal strategies in place of a meaning structure (e.g. *clapping one's hands* to illustrate applause).

Tarone's (1977) classification includes avoidance, paraphrase, conscious transfer, appeal for help, and mime strategies. She has classified the strategies with the recognition of a basic duality in strategy use: strategies are used

either (a) to try and convey the intended message in spite of the linguistic deficiencies by extending or manipulating the available language system (achievement strategies); or (b) to tailor one's message to one's resources by altering, reducing, or completely abandoning the original content (avoidance strategies) (Dörnyei and Scott, 1997). Paraphrase, conscious transfer, appeal for help, and mime strategies are considered as 'achievement strategies' whereas the other one is already named 'reduction strategies'.

2.4.5.3 Communication Strategy Classification by Bialystok

(1983, 1990)

Bialystok (1983, 1990) has proposed two different taxonomies of CSs. The first classification of CSs was proposed in 1983 and the second one in 1990. Bialystok (1983) has developed the taxonomy of CSs used in her study on 'Some factors in the selection and implementation of CSs'. The communication strategy classification is based especially on the existing typologies of Tarone (1977) resulting in the following three main categories:

1. L1-based strategies

- | | |
|-----------------|--|
| Language switch | 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 <i>candles</i> sur la cheminée). |
| Foreignizing | The creation of non-existent or contextually inappropriate target language (L2) words by applying L2 morphology and/or phonology to L1 lexical items (e.g. Il y a une <i>cloche</i> (for clock) sur la cheminée). |
| Transliteration | The use of L2 lexicon and structure to create a (usually non-existent) literal translation of an L1 item or phrase (e.g. <i>place de feu</i> for English 'fireplace' or <i>piece de temps</i> for 'timepiece'). |

2. L2-based strategies

- | | |
|---------------------|---|
| Semantic contiguity | The use of a single lexical item which shares certain semantic features with the target item. (e.g. ' <i>tabouret</i> ' frequently replaced by <i>chaise</i> (chair) or <i>table</i> (table), and ' <i>horloge</i> ' (clock) by <i>montre</i> (watch)). |
| Description | Describing general physical properties, specific features, and interactional/functional characteristics of the subject or action instead of using the appropriate TL structure |

Word coinage (e.g. *'it is round'*, *'it is something that hangs on the wall.'*, *'it has four legs.'*).
The creation of a non-existent or contextually inappropriate meaning L2 lexical item by selecting a conceptual feature of the target item and incorporating it into the L2 morphological system. (e.g. *'heurot'* (clock), the noun suffix *-ot* was attached to *'heure'* meaning 'time').

3. Non-linguistic strategies Any non-linguistic or contextual information that are given with the situation.

Three main categories of CSs classified by Bialystok (1983) are L1-based strategies, L2-based strategies, and non-linguistic strategies. The L1-based strategies are related to the learner's source language, or any language other than the target language. The L2-based strategies are about the target language itself. Lastly, the non-linguistic strategies refer to any non-linguistic or contextual information given with the situation.

In 1990, Bialystok's classification of CSs was developed under the psychologically plausible system of CSs. With regard to the cognitive theory of language processing, Bialystok (1990) has classified CSs into two main classes as follows:

- 1. Analysis-based strategies** Conveying the structure of the intended concept by making explicit the relational defining features such as giving a definition.
- 2. Control-based strategies** Choosing a representational system that is possible to convey and that makes explicit information relevant to the identity of the intended concept such as resorting to L1.

Bialystok (1990) characterizes the two classes of CSs as analysis-based strategies and control-based strategies. Analysis-based strategies are used to "examine and manipulate the intended concept" (p. 131). "Circumlocution, paraphrase, transliteration, and word coinage (where the attempt is to incorporate distinctive features into the expression), and mime (where the attempt is to convey important

properties)” (p. 133) are the examples included in analysis-based strategies. Control-based strategies are employed to “examine and manipulate the chosen form or means of expression” (p. 132) through attention to different sources of information such as using another language (L1), other objects, symbols, or gestures as well as appealing to other for assistance, or consulting dictionaries to convey the intended concept.

2.4.5.4 Communication Strategy Classification by Corder (1983)

Corder (1983) pointed out that, unlike the native speaker, language learner’s ends and means are not balanced. That is to say, the learner sometimes does not have the linguistic means to express the intended messages in communication. If the learner found himself/herself faced with this situation during the interaction, he/she is likely to make use of the strategies as follows:

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 in mid-utterance due to linguistic inadequacy.
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-running strategies

Borrowing	Using linguistic resources other than the target language (switching).
Paraphrase / Circumlocution	Getting round your problem with the knowledge you have.
Paralinguistic devices	Using nonverbal strategies in place of a meaning structure, typically gesture.
Appeal for help	Asking for help from the interlocutor for a word or expression.

Corder (1983) has offered two main categories of CS as message adjustment strategies or risk avoidance strategies and resource expansion strategies or risk-running strategies. He suggests that good language teaching should encourage

resource expansion strategies in part of teaching so that the learner would know how to use the resource expansion strategies which are the successful strategies of communication and eventually lead to language learning.

2.4.5.5 Communication Strategy Classification by Færch and Kasper (1983c)

The CS classification proposed by Færch and Kasper (1983c) are:

1. Formal reduction strategies	Learner communicates by means of a 'reduced' system, in order to avoid producing non-fluent or incorrect utterances by realizing insufficiently automatized or hypothetical rules/items
Phonological level	Adopting other ways of realizing the phoneme (e.g. by overgeneralizing the use of /d/ for /ð/ or by borrowing an L1 phone).
Morphological level	Substituting syntactic or lexical items for the avoided morphological item (e.g. avoid subordinate clauses containing the subjunctive, using instead an infinitival verbal complement).
Syntactic level	(e.g. using active sentence structure for passive sentence structure).
Lexical level	Avoiding using words which are difficult to pronounce, irregular, no direct translation-equivalent exists in L1, and so on.
2. Functional reduction strategies	Learner reduces his communicative goal in order to avoid a problem
Actional reduction	Reducing interlanguage performance when having problems in performing specific speech acts used in communicative tasks.
Modal reduction	Reducing interlanguage performance when experiencing problems in performing specific speech acts and/or in marking utterances appropriately for politeness /social distance.
Reduction of propositional content	
- Topic avoidance	Avoiding formulating goals which include topic that are perceived as problematic from a linguistic point of view
- Message abandonment	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 authority to help finish the utterance.
- Message replacement	Learner, when confronted 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.

3. Achievement strategies

	Learner attempts to solve communicative problem by expanding his communicative resources
Compensatory strategies	
- Code switching	Including L1/L3 words in L2 speech. This may involve stretches of discourse ranging from single words up to complete turns. (e.g. using the German <i>Zinsen</i> for 'interests').
- Interlingual transfer	Using an L1/L3 word by adjusting it to L2 phonology and/or morphology (foreignizing), and translating compounds or idiomatic expressions from L1 verbatim into L2 (literal translation).
- Inter/intralingual transfer	Generalizing the rule of L1 to L2 (e.g. L1:Danish <i>svømme</i> – <i>svømmede</i> , L2: English <i>swim</i> - <i>swimm</i> ed).
- Interlanguage based strategies	
* Generalization	Generalizing in using an alternative-and less appropriate- item without changing the communicative goal including lexical substitution and approximation.
* Paraphrase	Describing the intended referent focusing on its characteristic, properties, or functions (circumlocution).
* Word coinage	Creating a new interlanguage word (e.g. using ' <i>rounding</i> ' for 'curve').
* Restructuring	Developing an alternative local plan which enables him to communicate his intended message without reduction (e.g. For the word 'daughter', the learner's utterance: ' <i>... my parents has I have er four elder sisters... </i> ').
- Cooperative strategies	Signaling to the learner's interlocutor that he is experiencing a communicative problem and that he needs assistance (appealing)
- Non-linguistic strategies	Using non-linguistic strategies such as mime, gesture, and sound-imitation to solve a communicative problem or to support other – verbal- strategies.
Retrieval strategies	Knowing that the term of word is there, and the learner would have 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, etc.

Færch and Kasper (1983c) also offered the categorization of CS based on the two different fundamental ways. That is to say when language learners faced with problems in communication, they would either try to avoid the problem, or attempt to tackle the problem directly by developing an alternative plan named achievement behavior. In the CS classification suggested by Færch and Kasper

(1983c), the categories of formal reduction strategies and functional reduction strategies are served as the attempt to avoid the problem, and the achievement strategies category would fit the attempt to tackle the problem directly by developing an alternative plan.

2.4.5.6 Communication Strategy Classification by Paribakht (1985)

Paribakht's (1985) CS classification was derived from the data obtained through a concept-identification task used in the study. As a result, the strategies have been classified into four major communicative approaches. These include:

1. Linguistic approach

	This approach exploits the semantic features of the target item and reflects the speaker's formal analysis of meaning.
Semantic contiguity	All CSs in this category exploit items semantically related to the target item.
- Superordinate	(e.g. <i>'This is a fruit.'</i> for 'pomegranate', <i>'This is a quality.'</i> for 'honesty')
- Comparison	This is the strategy of exploiting similarities between the two items.
* Positive comparison	
Analogy	(e.g. <i>'Is the same like lamp.'</i> for 'lantern', <i>'It is like the victory.'</i> for 'success')
Synonymy	(e.g. <i>'Caravan'</i> for 'palanquin', <i>'Synonym for wait'</i> for 'patience')
* Negative comparison	
Contrast & opposite	(e.g. <i>'It's not a same as computer.'</i> for 'abacus', <i>'When you don't have it, you scared.'</i> for 'courage')
Antonymy	(e.g. <i>'This is the opposite of failure.'</i> for 'success', <i>'Opposite it's exactly hurry.'</i> for 'patience')
Circumlocution	This is the strategy of attempting to describe the characteristics of the concept.
- Physical description	
* Size	(e.g. <i>'It would fit into your hand.'</i> for 'pomegranate')
* Shape	(e.g. <i>'This fruit have a shape like earth.'</i> for 'pomegranate')
* Color	(e.g. <i>'Its color is red.'</i> for 'pomegranate')
* Material	(e.g. <i>'It's made of metal.'</i> for 'thimble')
- Constituent 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.
* Features	(e.g. <i>'There is a handle on it.'</i> for 'lantern', <i>'Someone who dies for a cause.'</i> for

* Elaborated features	<p>‘martyrdom’)</p> <p>The details of a single feature of the item are given (e.g. <i>‘has always little juicy seeds inside and they are red, and they’re really tart.’</i> for ‘pomegranate’, <i>‘being filled in, usually in—for a good cause.’</i> for ‘martyrdom’).</p>
- Locational property	(e.g. <i>‘It was used maybe in Arab countries.’</i> for ‘palanquin’, <i>‘Tie with two, two trees, we tie to two trees.’</i> for ‘hammock’)
- Historical property	(e.g. <i>‘It belongs to many many years ago.’</i> for ‘abacus’, <i>‘Ancient people used this.’</i> for ‘palanquin’)
- Other features	<p>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), many of these specific associations appear to be context- and/or culture-bound (see the second and third examples) (e.g. <i>‘It’s workmate to a broom.’</i> for ‘dust-pan’, <i>‘It’s the passion fruit.’</i> for ‘pomegranate’, <i>‘It’s honorable.’</i> for ‘martyrdom’).</p>
- Functional description	(e.g. <i>‘When you finish sweep—ah—you use—you used for collect garbage.’</i> for ‘dust-pan’)
Metalinguistic clues	The speaker gives metalinguistic information on the target item (e.g. <i>‘It’s actually a noun with a suffix.’</i> for ‘martyrdom’).
2. Contextual approach	This approach exploits the contextual knowledge of the speaker. That is, it provides contextual information about the target item rather than its semantic features.
Linguistic context	This is the strategy of providing a linguistic context for the target item, leaving the target item blank (e.g. <i>‘When you sweep the floor, you gather up the dust with ...’</i> for ‘dust-pan’, ‘if the wife fools around with somebody else, she is not <i>this</i> to the husband’ for ‘faithfulness’).
Use of L2 idioms and proverbs	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. <i>‘It comes before a fall.’</i> for ‘pride’, <i>‘It gets you nowhere.’</i> for ‘flattery’).
Transliteration of L1 idioms and proverbs	The speaker attempts to translate an L1 idiom or proverb into the target language (e.g. <i>‘Some say, it’s written on your forehead.’</i> for ‘fate’, <i>‘When somebody is so good—the heart is so clean.’</i> for ‘honesty’). (In Farsi, a ‘clean-hearted person’ refers to an honest person.)
Idiomatic transfer	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>‘I take an examination and I fail, O.K.? and one of my adjectives has been broken.’</i> (‘to

break one's *pride*'), *You say, O.K. "good luck". What's another word for "good luck"?*' for '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 don'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?'* for '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.'* for 'lantern', *'A soldier in a war definitely needs it.'* for 'courage', *'The servants especially do, for example, to their masters.'* for '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.'* for 'faithfulness', *'peacock'* for 'pride').

4. Mime

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

Replacing verbal output

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

Accompanying verbal output

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').

Four major communicative approaches classified by Paribakht (1985) are: 1) linguistic approach which students employ CSs dealing with the semantic features of the target items; 2) contextual approach which students employ CSs on the basis of

their contextual knowledge; 3) conceptual approach which students employ CSs related to their world knowledge; and 4) mime which students employ CSs regarding their knowledge of meaningful gestures.

2.4.5.7 Communication Strategy Classification by Poulisse

(1987, 1993)

Poulisse (1987), working under the Nijmegen group, has proposed two main categories of CSs as conceptual strategies and linguistic/code strategies, both of which are considered as under compensatory strategies.

1. Conceptual strategies

Analytic

Spelling out characteristic features of the concept. (Circumlocution)

Holistic

Using a substitute referent which shares characteristics with the target item. (Approximation)

2. Linguistic/code strategies

Morphological creativity

(grammatical word coinage)

Transfer

(literal translation, code-switching, and foreignizing)

The CS classification of compensatory strategies of Poulisse (1987) distinguishes between two basic strategy types: conceptual strategies and linguistic/code strategies, depending on the predominant use between the two of the strategies of the speaker's. Conceptual strategies comprise analytic strategies and holistic strategies. When the speaker refers to the intended concepts by talking about its criterial properties, he/she uses an analytic strategy. In the case of a holistic strategy, the intended concept is referred to by using the concept related word which shares some of the characteristics with the intended concept. Linguistic/code strategies are subdivided into morphological creativity strategies and transfer strategies. The speaker creating non-existing L2 words based on L2 grammatical rule is considered as using a morphological creativity strategy. The intended concept that

is referred to by using literal translation, code-switching, or foreignizing is classified as using transfer strategies.

Poulisse (1993) has further modified the taxonomy proposed by the Nijmegen Group. The modified taxonomy of compensatory strategies comprises three different subtypes of strategies as follows:

- | | |
|--|---|
| 1. Substitution strategies | Replacing the intended lexical item with another one (e.g. <i>animal</i> for 'rabbit', Dutch <i>voorwoord</i> for 'preface'). |
| 2. Substitution plus strategies | Using L1 or L2 morphological and/or phonological encoding procedures in combination with the substitution strategy (foreignizing and morphological creativity). |
| 3. Reconceptualization strategies | Changing the preverbal message to more than a single chunk such as encoding the conceptual features of the intended lexical item one by one (as in <i>it's green, you eat it with potatoes, and Popeye eats it</i> for 'spinach', or selecting two lexical items from the lexicon which can be combined into one new word (e.g. <i>cooking apparatus</i> for 'cooker'). A speaker may also add further background information to the message. |

The modified taxonomy of compensatory strategies suggested by Poulisse (1993) comprises three major types of strategies as 1) substitution strategies—omitting or changing one or more features of a lexical chunk in the search for a new lexical item (e.g. approximation or code-switching), 2) substitution plus strategies—substitution strategies accompanied by the unusual application of L1 or L2 morphological and/or phonological encoding procedures (e.g. foreignizing or word-coinage), and 3) reconceptualization strategies—a change in the preverbal message involving more than one chunk (e.g. circumlocution).

2.4.5.8 Communication Strategy Classification by Willems (1987)

Willems (1987) has built a typology of CSs culling liberally from a variety of CS scholars' taxonomies e.g. Tarone et al. (1976), Faerch and Kasper (1983), and Paribakht (1985). As a result, the CSs classified by Willems include:

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 conditionals.

- Lexical

Avoidance of certain topics because the necessary vocabulary is lacking.

Functional reduction

- Message abandonment

"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

- Borrowing/code-switching

A native language word or phrase is used with a native language pronunciation, e.g. "Please Sir, have you a 'krijtje'" (Dutch (Du.) For "piece of chalk").

- Literal translation

A literal translation from L1 to L2 of lexical items, idioms or compound words; e.g. "Make it a little" (Du. For "Come off it"); "nighttable" (for Ger. "Nachtisch" = "bedside table"); "greens" (for "vegetables" from Du. "groente"); "Je suis pardon" for "I am sorry"; "cool-box" for "refrigerator" (for Du. "koelkast").

- Foreignizing

Using a word or phrase from the L1 with L2 pronunciation; e.g. "/knælə/" from Da. "knallert" for "moped".

Intralingual strategies

- Approximation (generalization)

The use of an L2 word which shares essential semantic features with the target word: "bird" for "duck", "animals" for "rabbits", "flower" for "rose" or "lorry" for "van".

- Word coinage

An L2 word is made up on basis of supposed rule: "intonate" form "intonation", "inonded" for "flooded".

- Paraphrase

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> * Description * Circumlocution 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Physical properties: color, size, spatial dimensions; 2. Specific features: “It has a motor...”; 3. Functional features: “It is used in ...”; 4. Locational features: “You find it in a factory”; 5. Temporal features: “It’s between summer and autumn”.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> * Exemplification 	<p>Subordinate terms used instead of unavailable superordinate terms like: trade names: “<i>Puch</i>” for “moped”.</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Smurfing 	<p>The use of empty or meaningless words to fill gaps in vocabulary command like: “<i>thing</i>”, “<i>whatsit</i>”, “<i>what-do-you-call-it</i>”.</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Self-repair (restructuring) 	<p>Setting up a new speech-plan when the original one fails.</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Appeal for assistance <ul style="list-style-type: none"> * Explicit * Implicit * Checking questions 	<p>“<i>What’d you call?</i>”; “<i>Speak more slowly</i>”; “<i>I am foreign</i>”; “<i>Do you understand?</i>”.</p> <p>Pause, intonation, drawl, repetition, or “I don’t know what to call this” and the like.</p> <p>To make sure something is correctly understood: questions: “<i>Do I hear you say...</i>”; “<i>Are you saying that ...</i>”.</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Initiating repair 	<p>“<i>I am sorry, there must be some misunderstanding. Does...mean...? I took it to mean...I hope you don’t mind my asking...</i>”.</p>

Willems’s CS typology falls into two main categories: achievement/compensatory strategies and reduction strategies. Paralinguistic strategies, interlingual strategies, and intralingual strategies are subgroups of achievement/compensatory strategies. Paralinguistic strategies are the use of mimetic gestures, facial expression etc. to replace verbalization; interlingual strategies are dealing with L1 or another foreign language; and in intralingual strategies monolingual (L2) plays a role. Formal reduction and functional reduction are subdivisions of reduction strategies which, according to Willems (1987, p. 354), “is obviously a major obstacle in language learning development”.

2.4.5.9 Communication Strategy Classification by Dörnyei (1995)

Dörnyei (1995) has collected a list and descriptions of CSs he considers most common and important in this core group, based on Tarone (1977), Færch and Kasper (1983c), and Bialystok (1990). The collection of CS classification is presented below.

1. Avoidance or Reduction Strategies

Message abandonment	Leaving a message unfinished because of language difficulties.
Topic avoidance	Avoiding topic areas or concepts which pose language difficulties.

2. Achievement or Compensatory Strategies

Circumlocution	Describing or exemplifying the target object or action (e.g. <i>'the thing you open bottles with'</i> for 'corkscrew').
Approximation	Using an alternation term which expresses the meaning of the target lexical item as closely as possible (e.g. <i>'ship'</i> for 'sail boat').
Use of all-purpose words	Extending a general, empty lexical item to contexts where specific words are lacking (e.g. the overuse of <i>'thing, stuff, make, do,</i> as well as using words like <i>'thingie, what-do-you-call-it'</i>).
Word-coinage	Creating a non-existing L2 word based on a supposed rule (e.g. <i>'vegetarianist'</i> for 'vegetarian').
Use of nonlinguistic 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 (e.g. 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. <i>'What do you call...?'</i>) 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. <i>'well, now let me see, as a matter of fact'</i>).
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Based on Dörnyei's (1995) classification system, CSs are classified into three main categories. They are avoidance or reduction strategies, achievement or compensatory strategies, and stalling or time-gaining strategies. Message abandonment and topic avoidance are referred to as avoidance or reduction strategies.

They involve “an alteration, a reduction, or complete abandonment of the intended message” (p. 57). Achievement or compensatory strategies include strategies such as circumlocution, approximation, word-coinage, and foreignizing that are alternative plans the speaker manipulate to reach an original communicative goal. Using of fillers/hesitation devices is considered as the stalling or time-gaining strategies which help the speaker gain time and keep the communication channel open at times of difficulty in oral communication.

2.4.5.10 Communication Strategy Classification by Dörnyei and Scott (1997)

Dörnyei and Scott (1997) divide CSs into three main categories as direct, indirect, and interactional strategies. The detailed description of each strategy is illustrated below:

1. Direct strategies

Resource deficit-related strategies

- | | |
|----------------------------|---|
| * Message abandonment | Leaving a message unfinished because of some language difficulty. |
| * Message reduction | Reducing the message by avoiding certain language structures or topic considered problematic language wise or by leaving out some intended elements for a lack of linguistic resources. |
| * Message replacement | Substituting the original message with a new one because of not feeling capable of executing it. |
| * Circumlocution | Exemplifying, illustrating or describing the properties of the target object or action. |
| * Approximation | Using a single alternative lexical item, such as a superordinate or a related term, which shares semantic features with the target word or structure. |
| * Use of all-purpose words | Extending a general, “empty” lexical item to contexts where specific words are lacking. |
| * Word-coinage | Creating a non-existing L2 word by applying a supposed L2 rule to an existing L2 word. |
| * 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. |

* Literal translation	Translating literally a lexical item, an idiom, a compound word or structure from L1/L3 to L2.
* Foreignizing	Using a L1/L3 word by adjusting it to L2 phonology (i.e., with a L2 pronunciation) and/or morphology.
* 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.
* Use of 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.
* Mumbling	Swallowing or muttering inaudibly a word (or part of a word) whose correct form the speaker is uncertain about.
* Omission	Leaving a gap when not knowing a word and carrying on as if it had been said.
* Retrieval	In an attempt to retrieve a lexical item saying a series of incomplete or wrong forms or structures before reaching the optimal form.
* Mime	Describing whole concepts non-verbally, or accompanying a verbal strategy with a visual illustration.
Own-performance problem-related strategies	
* Self-rephrasing	Repeating a term, but not quite as it is, but by adding something or using paraphrase.
* self-repair	Making self-initiated corrections in one's own speech.
Other-performance problem-related strategies	
* Other-repair	Correcting something in the interlocutor's speech.
2. Indirect strategies	
Processing time pressure-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.
* Repetitions	
** Self-repetition	Repeating a word or a string of words immediately after they were said.
** Other-repetition	Repeating something the interlocutor said to gain time.
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.
Other-performance problem-related strategies	
* Feigning understanding	Making an attempt to carry on the conversation in spite of not understanding something by pretending to understand.

3. Interactional strategies

Resource deficit-related strategies

- * Appeal for help

Trying to elicit help from the interlocutor indirectly by expressing lack of a needed L2 item either verbally or non-verbally.

Own-performance problem-related strategies

- * Comprehension check

Asking questions to check that the interlocutor can follow you.

- * Own-accuracy check

Checking that what you said was correct by asking a concrete question or repeating a word with a question intonation.

Other-performance problem-related strategies

- * Asking for repetition

Requesting repetition when not hearing or understanding something properly.

- * Asking for clarification

Requesting explanation of an unfamiliar meaning structure.

- * Asking for confirmation

Requesting confirmation that one heard or understood something correctly.

- * 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 non-verbally.

- * Interpretive summary

Extended paraphrase of the interlocutor's message to check that the speaker has understood correctly.

- * Response

- ** Response: repeat

Repeating the original trigger or the suggested corrected form (after an other-repair).

- ** Response: repair

Providing other-initiated self-repair.

- ** Response: rephrase

Rephrasing the trigger.

- ** Response: expand

Putting the problem word/issue into a large context.

- ** Response: confirm

Confirming what the interlocutor has said or suggested.

Dörnyei and Scott (1997) classify the strategies based on the manner of problem management. That is, both communication problem solving and mutual understanding achievement are the underlined themes. Direct strategies are the first CS category in which involves all alternative, manageable, and self-contained means of conveying the meaning. Indirect strategies are the second category of CSs which does not take problem-solving devices into account. Using fillers, feigning understanding, and hedging to prevent communication breakdown and keep communication channel open are examples of the indirect strategies. Their third CS

category is called interactional strategies in which trouble-shooting exchange is performed cooperatively between the pair, like appealing for and granting help, or requesting for and providing clarification.

2.4.5.11 Communication Strategy Classification by Nakatani

(2006)

Apart from the CS classification system shown previously, Nakatani (2006) shows another way to classify learners' CSs. In his study, he generated his own CS inventory called Oral Communication Strategy Inventory (OCSI) derived from the result of student statement completion in an open-ended questionnaire. In the inventory, the reported strategies were classified into two main CS categories: strategies for coping with speaking problems and strategies for coping with listening problems.

Category 1: Strategies for Coping with Speaking Problems

1. Thinking first of what one wants to say in one's native language and then constructing the English sentence.
2. Thinking first of a sentence one already knows in English and then trying to change it to fit the situation.
3. Using words which are familiar to oneself.
4. Reducing the message and using simple expressions.
5. Replacing the original message with another message because of feeling incapable of executing one's original intent.
6. Abandoning the execution of a verbal plan and just saying some words when one doesn't know what to say.
7. Paying attention to grammar and word order during conversation.
8. Trying to emphasize the subject and verb of the sentence.
9. Changing one's way of saying things according to the context.
10. Taking one's time to express what one wants to say.
11. Paying attention to one's pronunciation.
12. Trying to speak clearly and loudly to make oneself heard.
13. Paying attention to one's rhythm and intonation.

Category 1: Strategies for Coping with Speaking Problems (Cont.)

14. Paying attention to the conversation flow.
15. Trying to make eye-contact when one is talking.
16. Using gestures and facial expressions if one can't communicate how to express oneself.
17. Correcting oneself when one notices that one has made a mistake.
18. Noticing oneself using an expression which fits a rule that one has learned.
19. While speaking, one pays attention to the listener's reaction to one's speech.
20. Giving examples if the listener doesn't understand what one is saying.
21. Repeating what one wants to say until the listener understands.
22. Making comprehension checks to ensure the listener understands what one wants to say.
23. Trying to use fillers when one cannot think of what to say.

24. Leaving a message unfinished because of some language difficulty.
25. Trying to give a good impression to the listener.
26. Don't mind taking risks even though one might make mistakes.
27. Trying to enjoy the conversation.
28. Trying to relax when one feels anxious.
29. Actively encouraging oneself to express what one wants to say.
30. Trying to talk like a native speaker.
31. Asking other people to help when one can't communicate well.
32. Giving up when one can't make oneself understood.

Category 2: Strategies for Coping with Listening Problems

1. Paying attention to the first word to judge whether it is an interrogative sentence or not.
2. Trying to catch every word that the speaker uses.
3. Guessing the speaker's intention by picking up familiar words.
4. Paying attention to the words which the speaker slows down or emphasizes.
5. Paying attention to the first part of the sentence and guessing the speaker's intention.
6. Trying to respond to the speaker even when one doesn't understand him/her perfectly.
7. Guessing the speaker's intention based on what he/she has said so far.
8. Don't mind if one can't understand every single detail.
9. Anticipating what the speaker is going to say based on the context.
10. Asking the speaker to give an example when one is not sure what he/she said.
11. Trying to translate into native language little by little to understand what the speaker has said.
12. Trying to catch the speaker's main point.
13. Paying attention to the speaker's rhythm and intonation.
14. Sending continuation signals to show one's understanding in order to avoid communication gaps.
15. Using circumlocution to react the speaker's utterance when one doesn't understand his/her intention well.
16. Paying attention to the speaker's pronunciation.
17. Using gestures when one has difficulties in understanding.
18. Paying attention to the speaker's eye contact, facial expression and gestures.
19. Asking the speaker to slow down when one can't understand what the speaker has said.
20. Asking the speaker to use easy words when one has difficulties in comprehension.
21. Making a clarification request when one is not sure what the speaker has said.
22. Asking for repetition when one can't understand what the speaker has said.
23. Making clear to the speaker what one hasn't been able to understand.
24. Focusing only on familiar expressions.
25. Especially paying attention to the interrogative when one listens to WH-questions.
26. Paying attention to the subject and verb of the sentence when one listens.

According to Nakatani (2006), the CS classification comprises two main categories. The first category includes strategies used for dealing with speaking problems while doing oral communication. The purposes of employing these strategies are not only to communicate smoothly, maintain the interaction, avoid communication breakdown; but also to give up the attempt to communication, or leave the message unfinished. The second category includes various strategies used for handling listening problems in interaction. These strategies are employed to

maintain the conversational goal with speaker, for example, by repeating what the speaker said or making clarification requests in order to understand the speakers' intentions, sending continuation signal to show understanding in order to avoid conversation gaps, and paying attention to general information contained in speech rather than to specific utterances in order to get the gist of a speaker's utterance.

In conclusion, CSs have been classified differently according to the principles of terminology and categorization of different researchers. Although some of these categories have been named differently, they happen to have some strategies in common. Among the eleven classifications mentioned above, the core groups of CSs seem to be in the classification as avoidance or reduction strategies, achievement or compensatory strategies, and stalling or time-gaining strategies. Besides, CSs have also been classified according to the achievement or purposes of strategy use, i.e. strategies for coping with speaking problems and strategies for coping with listening problems.

2.5 Research Works on Communication Strategies

During the past two decades, since CSs are included in a model of communicative competence (Canale, 1983), there are a considerable number of research studies on the nature of CSs, CS taxonomies, variation in CS use, and the practical implications of CS research. The first priority of the study seems to focus on investigating the nature and types of CSs (e.g. Tarone, Cohen & Dumas 1976; Tarone 1977; Corder 1983; Færch and Kasper 1983c; Bialystok 1983; Willems 1987; Poulisse 1987 (Nijmegen group); Bialystok 1990; Poulisse 1993). Then, there are a rising number of CS research studies focusing on variation in CS use and the practical

implications of CS research (e.g. Váradi 1983; Paribakht 1985; Corrales and Call 1985; Dörnyei 1995; Huang and Van Naerssen 1987; Poulisse and Schils 1989; Si-Qing 1990). The CS researchers believe that L2 language learners can improve their communicative proficiency through developing an ability to employ specific CSs that enable them to solve and manage communicative problems due to their target language deficiencies (e.g. Bialystok 1990; Dörnyei 1995).

The focal point of this section is on past research works on CSs. These past research studies are reviewed based for two main reasons. The first reason is to see how past researchers devise methods for data collection to serve the purposes of their studies. The second reason is to enhance my understanding of CSs employed by ESL/EFL students, that is, the results of previous research works can contribute to a better understanding of how and what CSs L2 language learners use to handle problems they encounter in an oral communication due to their linguistic knowledge deficiencies. The following are the available research works on CSs conducted in other countries and in Thailand.

Table 2.1: Research Works on CSs Conducted in Countries Other Than Thailand

Researcher	Language Learners (LL)	Focus of Study	Educational Level	Method of Data Collection	Investigated Variable
1) Váradi 1983	- NNSE learning ESL	- Message adjustment	- Adult learners	- Communicative task: translation of picture story description	- First language (L1) & Second language (L2)
Results:					
1. The learners can write longer descriptions in L1 than in L2.					
2. The characteristic of the English versions (L2) by contrast with the Hungarian versions (L1) is extreme stylistic economy and simplicity.					
3. Reference to circumstance attending the actions defined in the picture is apparently sacrificed early in the process of meaning adjustment, namely intensional reduction and extensional reduction.					
2) Bialystok 1983	- NSE learning French as FL	- L1-based & L2-based strategies	- Secondary level: grade 12 - Adult learners	- Communicative task: picture reconstruction	- Language proficiency level
Results:					
1. The grade 12 advanced students used significantly fewer L1-based strategies than did the grade 12 regular French class students and adult students.					
2. For the adults, there was a significant negative relationship between cloze test performance and the proportion of L1-based strategies used.					
3. For the students, there was a negative relationship between cloze test performance and the proportion of L1-based strategies used (no significance).					
4. For the two groups of separated students, there was a positive relationship between cloze test performance and the proportion of L1-based strategies used (no significance) which led to a difficult interpretation.					
3) Haastrup and Phillipson 1983	- NNSE learning EFL	- Achievement strategies	- Secondary level	- Conversation & video recorded	- Types of school
Results:					
1. The distribution of compensatory strategies varies considerably; appeals are widely used; non-linguistic strategies are common; and learners in the less academic school context are over-dependent on their mother tongue.					
2. L1-based strategies nearly always lead to partial or non-comprehension and IL-based strategies often lead to full comprehension.					
Notes: NNSE: Non-native Speaker of English; NSE: Native Speaker of English; ESL: English as a Second Language; EFL: English as a Foreign Language; FL: A Foreign Language; VWO: a type of Dutch secondary school prepares pupils for entrance into a university; OCST: Oral Communication Strategy Teaching					

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

Researcher	Language Learners (LL)	Focus of Study	Educational Level	Method of Data Collection	Investigated Variable
4) Corrales and Call 1985	- NNSE learning ESL	- Overall communication strategy (CS) use	- Tertiary	- Communicative tasks: structured questions and simulated conversation & tape recorded	- Language proficiency level - Types of tasks - Time 1 & 2
Results:					
1. The simulated conversation task elicited significantly more transfer strategies from both groups of students.					
2. The advanced group used a greater mean proportion of task-influenced strategies than the intermediate group at Time1, while the intermediate group used a greater mean proportion of this type of strategy at Time2.					
3. 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 drops off as they become more proficient in the language.					
5) Paribakht 1985	- Two groups of NNSE learning ESL - One group of NSE	- Overall CS use	- Tertiary	- Communicative task: concept-identification	- Language proficiency level
Results:					
1. All three groups used the same four communication approaches and differed only in the use of a few of their constituent strategies. The low proficiency group used two L1-based strategies – idiomatic transfer, and transliteration of L1 idioms and proverbs; and the high proficiency group used only transliteration of L1 idioms and proverbs for L1-based strategies.					
2. The linguistics approach was used relatively more often by the native speakers and the advanced students than by the low-proficiency students.					
3. The conceptual approach was used relatively more often by the low-proficiency students than by the native speakers and the advanced students.					
4. The contextual approach did not produce any significant inter-group differences.					
5. The mime approach was used adopted more frequently by the learner groups than by the native speakers.					
6) Huang and Van Naerssen 1987	- NNSE learning EFL	- Learning strategy use for oral communication	- Tertiary	- Questionnaire - Interview	- Oral proficiency level
Results:					
1. The more successful students in oral communication reported employing functional practice strategies more frequently than the less successful one.					
2. Several successful students in oral communication 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. None of the students in the other two groups made such comments.					

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

Researcher	Language Learners (LL)	Focus of Study	Educational Level	Method of Data Collection	Investigated Variable
7) Poulisse and Schils 1989	- NNSE learning ESL	- Compensatory strategy use	- Tertiary - Fifth-year VWO pupils - Third-year VWO pupils	- Communicative tasks: picture description, story retelling, and interview	- Language proficiency level - Types of tasks
Results:					
1. The most advanced students used fewer compensatory strategies than did the least proficiency ones.					
2. The type of compensatory strategy chosen by the students was not to any large extent related to their proficiency level.					
3. The students used analytic strategies in the picture description task and used holistic strategies and transfer strategies in the story retell task and the oral interview.					
8) Si-Qing 1990	- NNSE learning EFL	- Overall CS use	- Tertiary	- Communicative tasks: concept-identification & recorded - (Retrospective) Interview	- Language proficiency level
Results:					
1. The low-proficiency (LP) group employed significantly more CSs than did the high-proficiency (HP) group.					
2. Linguistic-based CSs are more often employed by the HP learners whereas the knowledge-based CSs and repetition CSs are used more frequently by LP learners.					
3. Learners of HP are more efficient in their use of CSs.					
9) Dörnyei 1995	- NNSE learning EFL	- Quality of CS use - Speech rate - Perceived usefulness of training - Attitudes towards the training	- Secondary level	- A written test - Pre and posttest of an oral test & recorded - Questionnaire (only for E group)	- CS training [Experimental (E) & Control (C) group] - Language proficiency level
Results:					
1. In the treatment group there is an improvement in the quality of the definitions after the training, whereas in both types of control group the quality score decreases.					
2. In the treatment group the use of both circumlocutions and fillers increased. In both types of control group there was only a minimal change in the frequency of circumlocutions, whereas the number of fillers actually decreased in the posttest.					
3. The speech rate gained after the training is unrelated to the students' language proficiency.					
4. In the treatment group the improvement in the students' speech rate is highly significant.					
5. Students found that the strategies in the training were useful and their general attitude toward the training was very favorable.					
10) Liskin-Gasparro 1996	- NSE learning Spanish as FL	- Overall CS use	- Secondary level	- Communicative task: interviews & recorded	- Language proficiency level
Result:					
Advanced speakers, more than Intermediate High speakers, rely on a range of L2-based strategies that included, but was not limited to, circumlocution.					

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

Researcher	Language Learners (LL)	Focus of Study	Educational Level	Method of Data Collection	Investigated Variable
11) Flyman 1997	- NNSE learning EFL	- Overall CS use	- Secondary level	- Communicative tasks: picture, translation, and discussion & recorded	- Types of tasks
Results:					
1. <i>Compensatory strategies</i>					
- Analytic strategies were employed most in the translation task, and the picture task.					
- Holistic strategies were mostly found in the oral translation task.					
- A transfer strategy was especially frequent in the discussion task.					
- Appeal for assistance strategies were most frequently employed in the picture task, and the discussion task.					
2. <i>Reduction strategies</i>					
- Abandonment strategies were frequent in the picture task.					
- A lexical avoidance strategy was most frequently employed in the translation task.					
- A morphological avoidance strategy was most frequently employed in the picture task.					
- A syntactic avoidance strategy was not very common and was only used in the oral translation task.					
12) Brett 2001	- NSE learning German as FL	- Taught CS Use	- Secondary level	- Pre and post questionnaire - Class work & recorded - Oral test & recorded	- CS teaching: turn-taking phrases, request for help, clarification and repetition, greeting, and pause fillers
Results:					
1. A range of strategic phrases could be successful taught to most learners.					
2. Pupils have used a wide selection of phrases as CSs depending on task and context.					
3. Pupils did not use L2 pause fillers.					
4. Pupils used devices like repetition and they talked to themselves in English, possibly to gain additional thinking time.					
13) Smith 2003	- NNSE learning ESL	- Overall CS use	- Tertiary	- Communicative tasks: jigsaw and decision making through on-line chatting & recorded	- Types of tasks (in computer-mediated communication)
Results:					
1. Capitalization and punctuation were used to enhance meaning, tone, etc.					
2. There was a high degree of self-correction, use of fillers, and comprehension checks.					
3. The four most frequently used CSs included substitution, politeness, framing, and fillers.					
4. Learners employed almost twice as many compensatory strategies while completing the decision-making tasks than during the jigsaw tasks.					
5. Orientation/use strategies were almost exclusively used during the jigsaw task.					
6. Any of the compensatory strategies considered are about equally effective in facilitating “mastery” of the target lexical items.					

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

Researcher	Language Learners (LL)	Focus of Study	Educational Level	Method of Data Collection	Investigated Variable
14) Kazuo and Akira 2004	- NNSE learning EFL	- Overall CS use	- Tertiary	- Communicative tasks: picture description and story-telling - (Retrospective) Interview	- English proficiency level - L1 & L2
Results:					
1. Students tried to overcome their difficulties by using different types of CS in L2 from those used in L1 (Japanese) regardless of their English proficiency.					
2. Moderate English proficiency (ME) and low English proficiency (LE) groups employed the number of Holistic Conceptual (HOCOs) noticeably increased in English.					
3. There is no relationship between students' English proficiency and types of CS used in Japanese and the relationship between English proficiency and CS used within the English versions revealed no significant differences, either.					
15) Nakatani 2005	- NNSE learning EFL	- Learners' oral communication abilities - Learners' perceive of oral communication strategy (OCS) use	- Tertiary	- Pre and post oral communication test: conversation tasks & recorded - (Retrospective) Interview	- OCS use training (E & C group)
Results:					
1. The participants in the strategy training group significantly improved their oral proficiency test scores, whereas improvements in the control group were not significant.					
2. The participants' success was partly due to an increased general awareness of OCSs and to the use of specific OCSs, such as maintenance of fluency and negotiation of meaning to solve interactional difficulties.					
16) Nakatani 2006	- NNSE learning EFL	- Oral communication strategy inventory (OCSI) - Overall CS use	-Tertiary	- Open-ended questionnaire - OCSI	- Oral proficiency level
Results:					
<i>Phase1:</i> The OCSI consists of 32 items of strategies for coping with speaking problems and 26 items of strategies for coping with listening problems during communicative tasks.					
<i>Phase2:</i> - Significant correlations were found between the total use of the strategies on Strategy Inventory of Language Learning (SILL) and OCSI.					
1. In speaking part, the high oral proficiency (HOP) group reported more use of three categories—social affective strategies, fluency-oriented strategies, and negotiation for meaning while speaking strategies—than the low oral proficiency (LOP) group.					
2. In listening part, the HOP group reported more use of fluency-maintaining strategies than the LOP group.					

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

Researcher	Language Learners (LL)	Focus of Study	Educational Level	Method of Data Collection	Investigated Variable
17) Lam 2006	- NNSE learning ESL	- Learners' performance - CS use	- Secondary level	- Task rating - Questionnaire - Observation - (Retrospective) Interview	- OCST (E & C group)
Results:					
1. The E class, which had received training in the use of eight target strategies, generally outperformed the C class.					
2. There were overall gains in effect size in favour of E over C especially for 'Resourcing' of target strategies (T). As for non-target strategies (NT), there were gains in effect size in favour of E over C especially for 'Attentive listening' and 'Focusing on content'.					
3. There was a clearly upward trend in the use of 'Resourcing' by the E groups. In contrast, the C groups did not show such a consistent upward trend.					
18) Nakatani 2010	- NNSE learning ESL	- Learners' conversation performance - Learners' perceive of oral communication strategy (OCS) use	- Tertiary	- Conversation test & recorded - Secondary level proficiency test - Questionnaire - Retrospective protocol	- Oral proficiency level - OCS use (to maintain discourse and negotiate meaning)
Results:					
1. Students' use of strategies to keep the conversation smooth was significantly related to their oral communication ability in English.					
2. There were several significant positive correlations between learners' posttest scores and their report on the OCSI.					
3. The high-proficiency students tended to report positive strategies in order to maintain a conversation and avoid communication gaps for their interaction enhancement.					

Table 2.1 shows the available previous works on CSs carried out in countries other than Thailand from the early 1980s up to the early 2000s. Through the extensive review of the research works on CSs, the researcher deduces that the past research works on CSs mainly focused on the relationship between CS use and learner related factors such as proficiency level (Bialystok 1983; Corrales & Call, 1985; Paribakht, 1985; Huang & Van Naerssen, 1987; Poulisse & Schils, 1989; Si-Qing, 1990; Dörnyei, 1995; Liskin-Gasparro, 1996; Kazuo & Akira, 2004; Nakatani, 2006; and Nakatani, 2010); L1 and L2 (Váradi 1983; Kazuo & Akira, 2004); task types

(Corrales & Call, 1985; Poulisse & Schils, 1989; Flyman, 1997; and Smith, 2003); time difference (Corrales & Call, 1985); and types of school (Haastrup and Phillipson, 1983). Some researchers made attempts to investigate CS use through CS training or teaching in quasi-experimental research (Dörnyei, 1995; Brett, 2001; Takatani, 2005; and Lam, 2006).

With regard to the research methodology, the data were collected, from language learners in various educational levels from secondary level to tertiary, by means of a variety of elicitation techniques ranging from semi-natural to strictly experimental. The methods included questionnaires, observation, interviews, and communicative tasks as well as tape recorded.

Regarding the findings, types of CSs employed by language learners are identified in various labels depending on CS approaches those researchers were based in their research works. When compared with the low-proficiency level students, the high-proficiency level students relied more on L2-based strategies. In experimental research works, CS training and teaching showed an improvement of students' CS use after the training and teaching.

However, there are a very few empirical studies in the field of CSs carried out to investigate learners' use of CSs employing their own communication strategy questionnaire and to investigate learners' use of CSs in relation to another variable of the present study such as gender, exposure to oral communication in English, level of study, and location of institutions.

In Thailand, through an extensive review of research works on CSs conducted with Thai students, a few empirical research works in this area have been found.

Table 2.2: Research Works on CSs Conducted in Thailand

Researcher	Language Learners (LL)	Focus of Study	Educational Level	Method of Data Collection	Investigated Variable
1) Sienprapas sorn 1993	- NNSE learning EFL	- English strategic competence - CS use	- Secondary level	- Communicative task: concept-identification	- Fields of study
Results:					
1. The students had English strategic competence at the minimum level (50.75 %).					
2. The students in Science Program had higher mean score of English strategic competence than those in Language-Art Program at lower than minimum level (46.81 %).					
3. The students most frequently used intralingual strategies, paralinguistic strategies, and interlingual strategies respectively.					
2) Wongsa wang 2001	- NNSE learning EFL	- Overall CS use	- Tertiary	- Communicative tasks: Phi-thii-wai-khruu, Thai ghost story-retelling, and making merit & recorded - Questionnaire	- No variable focused
Results:					
1. Circumlocution is the most frequently used CS (49.51%), and approximation is second (30.02%). Besides code-switching (10.94%), other types of CS made up only 9.53% of all the strategies used in total.					
2. Message abandonment, topic avoidance, circumlocution, approximation, use of all-purpose word, restructuring, code-switching, and mine were found employed in the study.					
3. The familiarity of the L2 speaker with the concept does not always help them in dealing with communicative problems. The matter is that they have knowledge of <i>how to talk</i> about it in the L2.					
3) Luengseng thong 2002	- NNSE learning EFL	- Overall CS use	- Tertiary	- Communicative task: Picture description & recorded	- Language proficiency level
Results:					
1. Students frequently employed approximation and self-repetition respectively whereas code-switching was employed the least.					
2. The relationship was found between the use of CSs and levels of English proficiency.					
4) Wannaruk 2002	- NNSE learning EFL	- Overall CS use	- Tertiary	- Communicative task: oral interview & recorded	- Oral proficiency level
Results:					
1. The LOP students employed significantly more CSs than did the ones with MOP and HOP.					
2. The LOP students used modification devices, paralinguistic CSs, and L1-based CSs significantly more than did those with MOP and HOP.					
3. L2-based CSs were employed more often by students with MOP and HOP.					
4. Avoidance CSs were more often used by students with LOP.					

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

Researcher	Language Learners (LL)	Focus of Study	Educational Level	Method of Data Collection	Investigated Variable
5) Weerarak 2003	- NNSE learning EFL	- Overall CS use	- Tertiary	- Communicative tasks: oral interview, conversation, picture description, word meaning explanation & recorded - Observation	- Oral proficiency level
Results:					
1. Students employed all five types of CSs: modification devices, target language-based strategy, non-linguistics strategy, L1-based strategy, and avoidance strategy.					
2. The significant difference was found between the frequency of more able and less able speaking ability students' use of each type of CSs.					
3. The less able group employed CSs more than did the more able one, except the L2-based strategy.					
6) Sroysamut 2005	- NNSE learning EFL	- Compensatory strategy use	- Tertiary	- Questionnaire - Interview	- English proficiency level
Results:					
1. The students most frequently used mime or gesture, linguistic clues, message adjustment or approximation, topic selection, circumlocution or synonym, partially or totally communication avoidance, asking for help, word coinage, and code-switching respectively.					
2. There were significant differences in the use of compensatory strategies between the high-ability and low-ability groups; the high-ability students reported using linguistic cues more frequently than did the low-ability students.					
3. The relationship was found between the use of compensatory strategies and English proficiency.					

Table 2.2 shows six available previous works on CSs conducted in Thailand from the early 1990s up to the early 2000s. The research works mainly focused on the relationship between the CS use and individual differences of learners, namely, learners' oral proficiency levels, as conducted by Luengsengthong (2002), Wannaruk (2002), Weerarak (2003), and Sroysamut (2005). Sienprapassorn (1993) is the only researcher employing a different variable, namely fields of study in her study. Wongsawang (2001), also the only researcher, investigated the CS use without taking any variables into account.

An investigation of the effect of L2 learners' target language proficiency on CS use was conducted by the researchers, namely Luengsengthong (2002), Wannaruk (2002), Weerarak (2003), and Sroysamut (2005). Methods of data collection ranging from (retrospective) questionnaires, communicative tasks, observation to interviews as well as tape recorded were used in these studies to collect data from Thai students, both in secondary and tertiary level. The findings showed an evidence of proficiency-related effects on the types of CS used as the less proficiency learners employed more CSs than the more proficiency learners in terms of L1-based strategies, and avoidance strategies, but, by contrast, the more proficient learners employed more CSs than the less proficiency learners in terms of L2-based strategies.

There is a similar research study but with different variable, Sienprapassorn (1993) conducted a research work with 320 students of Matthayom Suksa 6 to study their English strategic competence as well as the nature of the relationship between their fields of study and their CS use. The research focused on three strategies which were paralinguistic strategies, interlingual strategies, and intralingual strategies. Concept-identification, a type of communicative task, or the test stated in the study was used as the data collection instrument. The result indicated that the frequency of CSs employed by the learners varied according to their fields of study, that is, the students in Science Program had higher mean score of English strategic competence than those in Language-Art Program.

In a study aimed at exploring types of CS used by second-language learners regardless any variables, but took the culture-specific notion as referents into account, Wongsawang (2001) carried out a study to explore CS use of L2 learners on the familiarity of the L2 speaker with the concept. She conducted a research with 30 Thai

native speakers. The research findings indicated that message abandonment, topic avoidance, circumlocution, approximation, use of all-purpose word, restructuring, code-switching, and mine were found employed in the study. The most frequently used CSs were circumlocution, approximation, and code-switching respectively. There was an interesting point suggested by Wongsawang that “familiarity with the concept of the L2 speaker does not always help the learners in dealing with communicative problems. The matter is that they have knowledge of *how to talk* about it in the L2” (p. 111).

In Thailand, to date, however, no empirical research works in the field of CSs have been carried out with RMUT students majoring in EIC to examine learners’ use of CSs. Furthermore, an investigation of learners’ use of CSs in relation to gender, exposure to oral communication in English, levels of study, and locations of institutions has not been found. An investigation on CSs with students majoring in EIC at RMUTs to examine the relationship between learners’ use of CSs and the above-mentioned variables may help the researcher learn more and gain new insight into language learners’ use of CSs, especially in the Thai context.

2.6 Summary

The purpose of this chapter is to review some important aspects of communicative competence, particularly strategic competence, and CSs as well as available research works on CSs. Through the extensive review of the selected research works on CSs, the researcher can see that the main purposes of the past research works can be divided into two groups. The first group includes the research works carried out to investigate CS use in relation to different variables, and the

second group includes those carried out to examine the effects of CS training and/or teaching on L2 learners' CS use. In addition, the past research works have been conducted with language learners from secondary level to tertiary. Methods of data collection, namely questionnaires, observation, interviews, and communicative tasks with tape recorded were employed. Chapter 3 focuses on the research methodology and theoretical framework in CSs for the present investigation.



CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

3.1 Introduction and Purpose of the Chapter

This chapter aims to discuss the conceptual framework of the present investigation, as well as some general principles of research design and research instrumentations in CSs which are applied to the present study. This is followed by the research questions and the theoretical framework. Then, the sampling methods, rationale for the choice of subjects and institutions, and the characteristics of the present research subjects are discussed. Finally, how the data are collected, analyzed, interpreted, and reported is illustrated.

In conducting a research, Bechhofer and Peterson (2000, p. vii) state “It is necessary for the researchers to concern about how the research work is to be carried out, and choose the set of procedures which enable the research aims and objectives to be realized in practice”. To put it simply, the researchers need to carefully deal with the research design, a prior crucial part in conducting a research. As Selinger and Shohamy (1989, p. 87) assert, “Research must be guided from the very beginning by a plan of some kind. Without a coherent plan, it is not possible to give concrete expression to hypotheses which have been developed from general questions nor is it possible to pursue answers to general questions”

According to Punch (2005, p. 63), “Research design situates the researcher in the empirical world, and connects the research questions to data”. The research design is the basic plan for a piece of research, and comprises four main ideas which are basically important for any research projects. These are the strategy, the conceptual framework, the question of who or what will be studied, and the tools and procedures to be used for collecting and analyzing empirical materials.

Robson (2002, p. 79) states “Research design is concerned with turning research questions into projects”. So, the way in which the researchers develop research design is fundamentally affected by the research purposes and questions (Cohen and Manion, 1994; De Vaus, 2001). The purposes of research, in real world studies, fall into three classifications based on what a researcher is trying to achieve - explore a new topic, describe a social phenomenon, or explain why something happens (Robson, 2002; Neuman, 2006). Following is the explanation of each classification of the purposes of research studies (Robson, 2002; Neuman, 2006)

1. *Exploratory*. This type of research aims to find out what is happening, particularly in little-understood situations; seek new insights; ask questions; assess phenomena in a new light; or generate ideas and hypotheses for future research. This research type is usually, but not necessarily, qualitative. Exploratory research may be the first stage in a sequence of studies. A researcher may need to conduct an exploratory study in order to know enough to design and execute a second, more systematic and extensive study.

2. *Descriptive*. This type of research aims to portray an accurate profile of persons, events, or situations. There is a need for extensive previous knowledge of the situation to be researched or described, so that a researcher knows appropriate aspects

on which to gather information. This research type may be quantitative and/or qualitative. Descriptive researchers use most data-gathering techniques-surveys, field research, content analysis, and historical-comparative research.

3. *Explanatory*. This type of research aims to seek an explanation of a situation or problem, traditionally but not necessarily in the form of causal relationships; explain patterns relating to the phenomenon being researched; or identify relationships between aspects of the phenomenon. This research type also may be quantitative and/or qualitative. Explanatory research, generally, builds on exploratory and descriptive research and goes on to identify the reason something occurs.

According to Neuman (2006), it is common to have more than one purpose in a study, to explore and to describe, for example, but there is usually one dominant purpose.

With regard to types of research, in the language teaching profession, Brown (2001) proposed two basic categories of research as primary research and secondary research. The distinction between primary research and secondary research is the sources of the information or data obtained for the research. In the primary research, the data is derived from the original sources or from the 'Truth' itself (e.g. classroom observation of real students, their test scores, their responses to a questionnaire). In the second research, the data is derived not from the 'Truth' itself, but from the one step further of the primary data instead. (e.g. studies other researchers' books and articles). Primary research can be sub-classified as case-study research, and statistical research. Statistical research is further subdivided into survey research, and experimental research.

As it is important for the researcher to consider which of the types of research serves the purposes of the research work, the characteristics of each type of research: case-study research, survey research, and experimental research should be studied for a clearer understanding. The characteristics of each type of research proposed by Robson (1993) and Neuman (2006) are described as follows:

1. *Experimental research.* This research is defined as the research in which the researcher manipulates conditions for some research participants but not others, then compares group responses to see whether it made a difference. Experiments can be conducted in laboratories or in real life. They usually involve a relatively small number of people and address a well-focused question with the ‘how’ and ‘why’ type of research questions. Experiments are most effective for explanatory study.

2. *Survey research.* This research is defined as the research in which the researcher systematically asks a large number of people the same questions and then records their answers without manipulated situation. In survey research, researchers use a written questionnaire or formal interview to gather information on the background, behaviors, beliefs, or attitudes of people. Survey research is appropriate for descriptive study with the ‘who’, ‘what’, ‘where’, ‘how many’, and ‘how much’ type of research questions.

3. *Case-study research.* This research is defined as the research that is an in-depth examination of an extensive amount of information about very few units or cases for one period or across multiple periods of time. Case-study research is appropriate for exploratory study with the ‘how’, and ‘why’ type of research questions.

As the purposes of the present study are to examine the communication strategies employed by RMUT students majoring in English for International Communication (EIC) in their oral communication in English, and to describe as well as explain the relationship between strategy use and four factors (see Section 3.3), based on the thoroughly reviewed purposes of research studies, the present study is classified as exploratory and descriptive. Furthermore, it is both qualitative and quantitative. Moreover, having taken into account the characteristics of the three types of research outlined above, the researcher for the present investigation has found that the most appropriate type, the research strategy, for the present investigation is the survey study.

3.2 Methods and Instrumentations in Communication Strategy

Research

In a study, it is possible to have more than one research question and a proper method of data collection to each of the research questions is needed. As Punch (2005, p. 19) states, “Different research questions require different methods to answer them”. Besides, Robson (1993) points out that not only the research strategy(ies), but also research method(s) must be appropriate for the questions a researcher wants to answer. So, the matching or fit between the research questions and research methods should be as close as possible; and a good way to achieve a fit between questions and methods is to ensure that the methods we use follow from the questions we seek to answer (Punch, 2005).

According to Johnson (1977, p. 9), “Research methods are procedures a researcher follows in attempting to achieve the goal of a study”. Intaraprasert (2000,

p. 53), further states “The research methods used to investigate language learning strategies are procedures a researcher follows in attempting to achieve the goals of a study of language learning strategies, i.e. to elicit information about language learning strategies employed by students or language learners when they learn a language, especially the target language”.

Additionally, Cohen and Scott (1996) point out that no single research method in the field is perfect. There are, nevertheless, a few methods which a researcher can use to investigate how CSs are employed by students or language learners in order to deal with problems of oral communication that have arisen in interaction, or to improve the effectiveness of their oral communication in English. Whatever method a researcher uses, the main purpose of the study must be taken into consideration because each method has both weak and strong points (Robson, 1993).

According to Hubbard and Power (1993), when a researcher knows how the particular methods of data collection fit into the research questions and research design, he or she then starts to consider how to use the data-collection tools. They further affirm “The more data-collection tools you have, the better equipped you are to answer any questions”. Additionally, Gillham (2000, p. 1) states “The essential point is that good research cannot be built on poorly collected data...”.

In this section, the main research methods and instruments used for data collection on CSs will be reviewed and will discuss the appropriate research instruments for the present investigation. These research instruments include: 1) Written Questionnaires; 2) Interview: introspective and retrospective; 3) Observation; and 4) Communicative Task Recordings.

3.2.1 Written Questionnaires

Questionnaire has become one of the most popular research instruments applied in the social sciences (Dörnyei, 2003). If a researcher would like to collect data from the number of people he or she surveys, questionnaires may prove efficient to use. Brown (2001, p. 6) states “Questionnaires are particularly efficient for gathering data on a large-scale basis”. Besides, Nunan (1989) affirms that written questionnaires, like oral interviews, can be used to investigate practically any aspect of the teaching and learning process in order to obtain information from teachers about their teaching practices and learners on their learning style preferences.

Since questionnaires can yield the respondents’ information on factual, behavioral, and attitudinal (Dörnyei, 2003), they are the most often used method for identifying learners’ CSs (e.g. Lam, 2006; Nakatani, 2006; Nakatani, 2010). It also has been used in a study to correlate CS use with variables such as oral proficiency level (e.g. Huang & Van Naerssen, 1987).

According to Brown (2001, p. 6), “Questionnaires are any written instruments that present respondents with a series of questions or statements to which they are to react either by writing out their answers or selecting from among existing answers”. The questionnaires can be characterized into two main types: open-ended form (unstructured questionnaire) and closed-ended form (structured questionnaire) as proposed by Nunan (1992) and Denscombe (2003).

Open-ended form includes open-ended question items in the questionnaire. This means that none of the response options is given for the respondent in the questionnaire. The respondent needs to formulate and provide their own answers in the space provided (De Vaus, 1990). In this sense, the respondents have greater

freedom of expression and more control over the information included in the responses. On the other hand, closed-ended form includes closed-ended question items in the questionnaire. Closed-ended question is the one in which a number of alternative answers are provided from which respondents are to choose (De Vaus, 1990). This means that the respondents do not have freedom in providing their own responses to the questions. They have to choose one of the choices provided although there is no preferred answer among them. Dörnyei (2003, p. 35) expresses his views regarding the advantage of closed-ended questions “Their coding and tabulation is straightforward and leaves no room for rater subjectivity”. Moreover, the structure imposed on the respondents’ answers provides the researchers with information which is of uniform length and in a form that lends itself nicely to being quantified and compared (Denscombe, 2003). Since the response choices are easily quantified and entered into a computer database, the questions are suited for quantitative, statistical analysis (Dörnyei, 2003).

From the description about questionnaires mentioned above, it has been considered that there are a lot of advantages in using the questionnaires as a method of data collection in second language acquisition research, especially the data on language learners’ learning behaviors. As Selinger and Shohamy (1989, p. 172) mention, “Questionnaires are mostly used to collect data on phenomena which are not easily observed... They are also used to collect data on the processes involved in using language...”. In addition, Oxford (1996) notes that questionnaires are one of the most efficient methods used to collect data concerning learner’s strategy use.

3.2.2 Interview: Introspective and Retrospective

According to Punch (2005, p. 168), “The interview is one of the main data collection tools in qualitative research. It is a very good way of accessing people’s perceptions, meanings, definitions of situations, and constructions of reality. It is also one of the most powerful ways we have of understanding others”. In addition, it is the research method that can provide the most detailed information about CSs. Interview can be used to elicit information on strategies learners employ in their oral communication in English. As pointed out by Ellis (1994), interview enables learners to report on the strategies they use in general or in relation to a specific activity.

Brown (2001, p. 5) refers to the term ‘interviews’ as “Procedures used for gathering oral data in particular categories (if the interview is well planned and structured in advance), but also for gathering data that was not anticipated at the outset”. He adds “Interviews can be conducted with individuals, in groups, or by telephone” (Brown, 2001, p. 5). However, interviews can be classified based on the degree of structure in the interview, and how deep the interview tries to go; and most can be placed on a continuum ranging from structured through semi-structured to unstructured interviews (Minichiello et al., 1990). Structured interviews are standardized. Interview questions are planned in advance; precoded categories are used for responses; and the interview itself does not attempt to go to any great depth (Punch, 2005). In Semi-structured interviews, the interviewer does not enter the interview with a total list of predetermined questions. He or she has a general area of interest and concern, and lets the conversation develop with this area (Robson, 2002). In unstructured interview, by contrast, interview questions are not preplanned, but instead there are general questions to get the interview going and to keep it moving.

The actual questions will depend on the directions the interview takes. There are no pre-established categories for responding (Punch, 2005). Consistent with this, Minichiello et al. (1990, p. 143) state “Face-to-face interviews are generally the best data-gathering technique for survey research”. Again, whatever types of interview a researcher wants to use as a method for data collection; he or she must consider the research strategy, purposes, and research questions.

Regarding the differences between introspective and retrospective interviews, introspective interviews require learners to describe his or her thoughts while working on a communicative task. The learners’ speech is recorded for later analysis. By contrast, in retrospective interviews, learners are prompted to recall a recently completed communicative task and describe what they did during the oral communication in English (Chamot, 2005; Wigglesworth, 2005). While students are performing communicative tasks, they are videotaped. Then, the interviewer plays back the videotape, pausing as necessary, asking the students to describe his or her thought at specific moment during the communicative task (Chamot, 2005). In this matter, Nunan (1992, p. 124) suggests “Subjects should not be informed that they will be required to retrospect until after they have completed the task”. This is because it is believed if the subjects know they will be asked after the task, this will influence their performance on the task leading to unreliable data obtained.

Generally, CSs are identified through different self-report procedures; and one of them is conducted through retrospective interviews (e.g. Lam, 2006; Si-Qing, 1990; Kazuo & Akira, 2004; Nakatani, 2005). Retrospective interviews take a role as one method of data collection because CSs are associated with not only observable but also unobservable strategies which are related to learners’ mental processes

(Chamot, 2005). Nakatani, (2005) expresses some more points that the retrospective verbal reports are used to understand the students' reasons for their strategic language use and personal reactions to them. However, when compared with retrospective interviews, an introspective interview does not seem to be a valid and useful method to collect data during a communicative task. Wigglesworth (2005, p. 103) explains, "Because they involve a spoken response to the task, they are not appropriate for use with listening or speaking data because they necessarily conflict with the communicative nature of such activities".

3.2.3 Observation

Observation methods have a long tradition in the social sciences; they have been extensively employed by psychologists and educational researchers (Punch, 2005). Observation methods are often used in studying language use and classroom events (Richards, Platt and Platt, 1992). In real world research, "It is commonly used in an exploratory phase, typically in an unstructured form, to seek to find out what is going on in a situation as a precursor to subsequent testing out of the insight obtained" (Robson, 2002, p. 311).

Based on Ellis (1994, p. 533), "Attempts have been made to identify different learning strategies by observing learners performing a variety of tasks, usually in classroom settings". So, it is conveyed by the assumption that observation technique is often used in an attempt to identify different CSs while learners are doing a variety of communicative tasks in classroom settings. Generally, the data that is collected from this procedure, usually accompanied by audio or video recordings, focuses on the frequency and duration with which specific behaviors, and/or types of behaviors occurred in the classroom (Wragg, 1999). It can be said that, in the field of CSs,

observation has been extensively used as one of the data collection methods in a research (e.g. Lam, 2006; Weerarak, 2003).

Robson (2002, p. 310) points out “A major advantage of observation as a technique is its directness”. A researcher does not have to ask language learners about their views, feelings, or attitudes; instead, he or she watches they do and listens to what they say. This means that observation always includes listening and looking on both verbal and visual behaviors that occur in the natural settings. With the observation technique, a researcher can obtain the primary data which is the real facts from the participants. However, Rubin (1981) has found that observation method is not very productive because it cannot provide any information regarding the mental operations of strategic language use of learners. Lam (2006, p. 146) holds the same view affirming “Surface evidence from observations does not yield insight into covert strategic thinking”. Observation technique, nevertheless, can also be used as a supportive method to collect data used to validate or corroborate the data obtained through other means (Robson, 2002).

3.2.4 Communicative Task Recordings

In the studies of CSs, video and audio recordings are the popular data-gathering tools used when students are performing communicative tasks (e.g. Haastrop and Phillipson, 1983; Corrales & Call, 1985; Si-Qing, 1990; Dörnyei, 1995; Flyman, 1997; Smith, 2003; Nakatani, 2005). Flyman (1997), for example, asked the subjects to perform three tasks of oral communication: translation, story telling, and topic discussion. While performing the tasks, the subjects’ speech would be video recorded for further analysis. Nakatani (2005) is another researcher in the field who also utilized video recording as a tool to collect the data in his research work. He

asked the participants to do the simulated authentic conversation tasks on both a pretest and posttest. The participants' performances were videotaped which were later transcribed and analyzed.

According to Hubbard and Power (1993), when compared with audiotapes, videotapes can be used to collect the data which has some unique opportunities. That is videotapes can serve the recording of the actions as well as the sounds of classroom life, and also the non-verbal interaction, which adds an often-neglected element to the data of a research. Similarly, DuFon (2002) points out that gestures, facial expressions, and other visual interaction cues which provide important information on CSs can be worth being recorded by videotapes for a later thorough analysis with accurate interpretations.

Another advantage of video recording is repeatability. That is, a researcher can view the videotape repeatedly by playing it back in order to see new things that he/she had not seen at the previous viewing, or to check what has already been seen (Fetterman, 1998). DuFon (2002, p. 44) states, "Replaying the event also allows us more time to contemplate, deliberate, and ponder the data before drawing conclusions, and hence serves toward off premature interpretation of the data".

However, since the transcription involved in video analysis is time-consuming and many layered, the researchers are advised to begin transcribing the tapes after they have begun to form categories so that they can deal selectively with the wealth of data in transcription (Hubbard and Power, 1993).

As illustrated earlier, the research methods must be appropriate for the research purposes; and the purposes of the present investigation were to investigate types and frequency of communication strategies reported being employed by RMUT

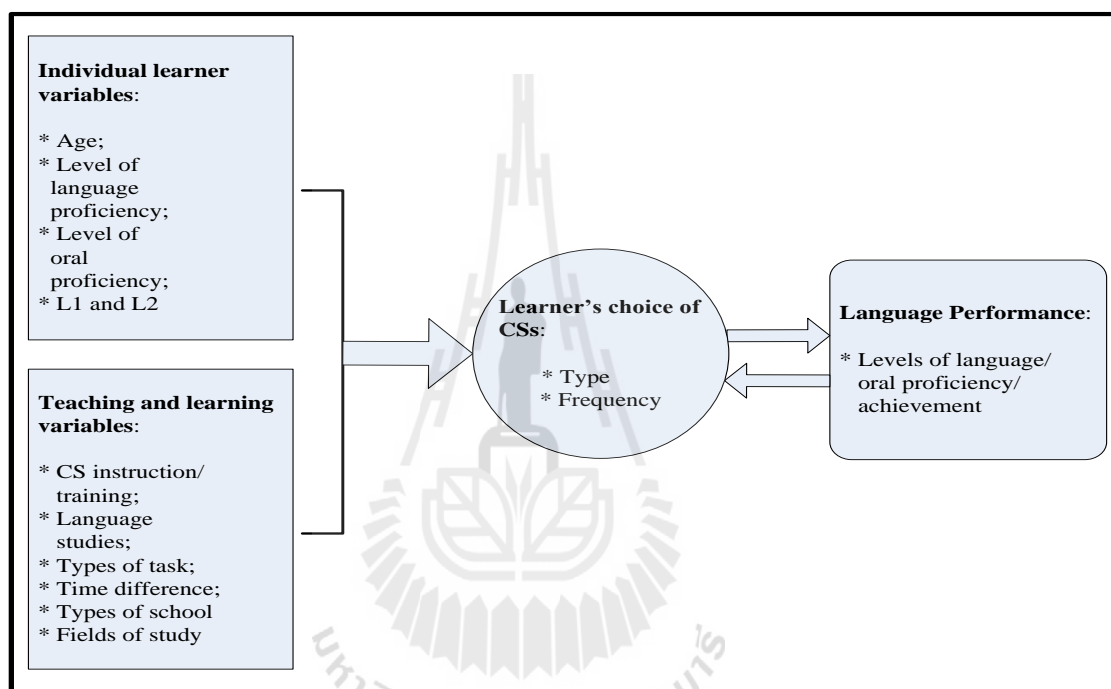
students majoring in EIC, and to examine the relationship between strategy use and the four independent variables. The study has been considered as exploratory and descriptive, or qualitative and quantitative in nature. Therefore, the semi-structured interview and communication strategy questionnaire were used as the main data collection instruments in the present investigation. That was because the semi-structured interview is flexible, and the questionnaire has been found to be a useful instrument to collect the data in the large-scale survey research. The response choices of the questionnaire are not complicated to be quantified and the questions are suited for quantitative, statistical analysis.

3.3 Theoretical Framework and Rationale for Selecting and Rejecting Variables for the Present Investigation

This section aims to discuss the development of the theoretical framework of the present investigation through the extensive review of related literature and other materials on CSs in Chapter 2. It is necessary to carry out the review of related research literature on research and other materials in the field of CSs in developing the theoretical framework, locating the present study in the context of past research studies and other researchers' ideas, and creating the rationale for selecting and rejecting variables for the present investigation (Intaraprasert, 2000).

The present study mainly focuses on how learners' choices of CS use are related to the four proposed variables: 1) gender of students: male and female; 2) exposure to oral communication in English: limited to classroom instructions only and non-limited to classroom instructions; 3) levels of study: beginner, intermediate, and advanced; and 4) locations of institutions: tourist destinations for foreigners and non-

tourist destinations for foreigners. Before discussing the theoretical framework of the present investigation, it is necessary to talk about the theoretical frameworks used in past research studies in the area of CSs as illustrated in Figure 3.1. This would help the researcher and readers get a clear picture of what variables have been hypothesized to influence types and frequency of the CS use of language learners.



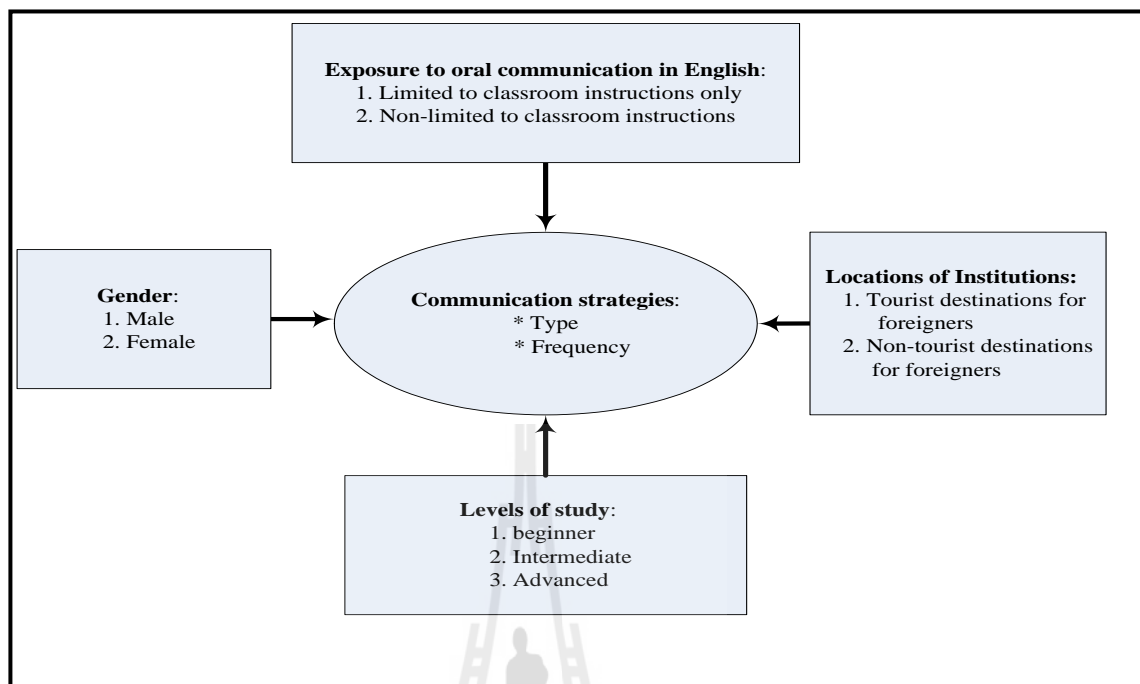
(Source: Adapted from Ellis, 1994, p. 530)

Figure 3.1: Factors Related to CSs and Language Performance in Past Research

The theoretical framework, adapted from Ellis (1994), shown above indicates that types of CSs and learners' frequency of CS use have been hypothesized to be influenced by two major categories of variables: 1) individual learner variables; and 2) teaching and learning variables in a single-direction relationship, while the relationship between types and frequency of CS use of learners and language performance is bi-directional. This can be described as learners' CS use, both types

and frequent use, could be affected by learners' oral/language proficiency; or learners' oral/language proficiency could be a result of learners' CS use.

The present study has modified the theoretical framework regarding CSs developed by Ellis (1994). In the context of the present study, four variables were examined to find the relationship between the variables and learners' CS use. The proposed variables include 1) gender of students: male and female; 2) exposure to oral communication in English: limited to classroom instructions only and non-limited to classroom instructions; 3) levels of study: beginner, intermediate, and advanced; and 4) locations of institutions: tourist destinations for foreigners and non-tourist destinations for foreigners. The main aim of this study is to investigate type of CSs and examine the frequency of learners' CS use, as well as look at the patterns of variation in the overall strategy use, use of strategy in categories, and use of individual strategies. Through the review of available related literature on CSs, we can see that none of the four variables have been studied by the past researchers although they are theoretically hypothesized to have an influence on learner's CS use. The proposed theoretical framework for the present investigation is shown in Figure 3.2.



(Source: Adapted from Intaraprasert, 2000, p. 59)

Figure 3.2: Theoretical Framework for the Present Investigation

The theoretical framework presented in Figure 3.2 shows that, in the context of the present study, types of CSs and frequency of CS use of learners may be hypothesized to have a one-directional relationship with all the four different variables, namely gender, exposure to oral communication in English, levels of study, and locations of institutions. That is to say, both individual learner-related variables (gender, exposure to oral communication in English, and levels of study) and institution-related variable (locations of institutions) may be predicted to have an effect on types of CSs and frequency of CS use of learners.

Since the aim of the present investigation is to examine types and frequency of communication strategies used by RMUT students majoring in EIC, the educational context of English curriculum at RMUTs is necessary to be considered and searched for in order to establish the variables to be investigated. The researcher hopes that the

research findings may contribute to language teaching and learning in the context of RMUTs. In other words, language teachers and students at RMUTs may be able to make use of the research findings to help improve their learning and teaching English communication. In the present study, the independent variables which have never been investigated in the past research studies in the field of CSs as gender, exposure to oral communication in English, levels of study, and locations of institutions have been explored to find out their effect on learners' choices of CS use.

The basic assumptions about the relationships between learners' CS use and the four variables, based on the theoretical framework, related literature, other researchers' opinions, and the researcher's own justification of the selected variables in the present investigation have been discussed in the subsequent sections.

3.3.1 Students' Use of CSs and Gender

One learner variable that may play a role in L2 learning is gender. Several researchers assert that gender 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; Intaraprasert, 2000; Gu, 2002; Williams et al., 2002; Ok, 2003; Tercanlioglu, 2004). However, from the literature review in Chapter 2, research studies on CSs which have examined the relationship between gender and learners' use of actual CSs have not been found. Siriwan (2007) points out that gender is seen as one of the main factors that influence strategy use of language learners but it still has received little attention by most previous researchers.

Since CSs are associated with language learning strategies, some research findings on language learning strategy relating to CSs were found. For example, Politzer (1983) found that females used 'social learning strategies' significantly more

frequently than did males. Further, Oxford and Nyikos (1989) found that female learners used strategies including ‘conversational input elicitation strategies’ more frequently than did male counterparts. Moreover, Ok (2003) also found that girls outperformed boys in the use of all six strategy categories, including ‘compensation’ and ‘social’ category. These strategies could be counted as CSs since they were, to certain extent, employed in students’ oral communication.

Although gender has been seen as one of the factors that may be related to CSs, it has received little attention by many language researchers in the field of CSs. Moreover, as mentioned earlier, no research has specifically aimed at investigating gender differences in the use of CSs of learners. Accordingly, it is of pedagogical value to examine whether or not gender differences among students were related to their use of CSs. The results of the study may provide a new insight concerning gender differences of learners to the researcher and other researchers on the employment of CSs in their language learning.

3.3.2 Students’ Use of CSs and Exposure to Oral Communication in English

It could be possible that the more the language learners expose to oral communication in English, the better their language learning will be. Allwright (1984) affirms that language learners learn by communicating. Through using the means of communication, language learners do not merely practice communicating but also extend their command of the means of communication, the language itself. This is the reason why language teachers try to encourage their students to use more English both inside and outside the classes.

According to Johnson (1995), having a chance to use English to communicate either inside or outside classroom settings provides language learners opportunities to perform a range of language functions; and while communicating, language learners may use CSs to make themselves understood.

So, in this study, the researcher also attempts to examine the link between RMUT students' use of CSs and their exposure to oral communication in English, namely limited to classroom instructions only and non-limited to classroom instructions. That is to say, the study aims to investigate whether or not the students' exposure to oral communication in English will affect the students' use of CSs.

3.3.3 Students' Use of CSs and Levels of Study

Language course level is hypothesized to influence how students learn a language (Ok, 2003). Generally, it is believed that students who are in the upper levels or have taken more courses of English should have greater formal control over the English language than those who are in the lower levels or have studied fewer courses of English. Regarding language learning strategies, most of the studies found that the more advanced the language learners, the better the strategies used. However, according to Oxford and Nyikos (1989), advancement in course level or years of study does not necessarily mean that students use better strategies in every instance. A study conducted by Cohen and Aphek (1981) also found that different types of learning strategies appeared across course levels.

In the field of CSs, nevertheless, no research exists on the effect of course levels or levels of study on the choice of CSs of learners. Therefore, the researcher intends to simultaneously explore and investigate it with RMUT students majoring in English for International Communication (EIC).

RMUTs offer two-year and four-year programs in bachelor's degree, apart from diplomas, to serve the needs of people in local communities. English for International Communication (EIC), the four-year program, is one of those programs and it is the primary focus of the present study. In this study, levels of study can be classified into three levels: beginner (first year), intermediate (second and third year), and advanced (fourth year).

3.3.4 Students' Use of CSs and Locations of Institutions

The institutions offering a four-year program in EIC in Thailand can be classified according to their locations, i.e. tourist destinations for foreigners and non-tourist destinations for foreigners. As Thailand has its own culture and there are many attractive places for foreigners to visit, a substantial number of foreigners come to visit Thailand. However, some institutions are located in areas where none or very few foreigners would like to visit. This may be because there are no places around the areas for foreigners to visit; and public transportation, accommodation, and communication may not be very good.

It is probably true to state that the institutions located in the areas that are full of foreign tourists may provide more opportunities for the language learners to communicate in English than those located in the areas that lack foreign tourists. Moreover, according to Corder (1983), the CSs adopted by speakers actually depend upon not only the speakers themselves but also their interlocutors who have different linguistic competence. For this reason, some limitations of the locations, in terms of the availability of the target language interlocutors, of the institutions at which language learners are studying may affect students' choice of strategy use. Therefore,

the researcher aims at investigating such a relationship to see whether or not this difference has an effect on students' use of strategies.

3.4 Research Questions

The present investigation has been designed to explore the CSs the RMUT students majoring in EIC employed in their oral communication in English and to examine the relationship between the students' CS use and the four selected independent variables (see Section 3.3). Based on the purposes of the present investigation, the research questions are formed as follows:

1. What are the communication strategies employed by RMUT students majoring in English for International Communication?
2. How frequently are the reported communication strategies employed by RMUT students majoring in EIC?
3. Does the employment of communication strategies vary significantly according to the gender of students? If it does, what are the main significant variation patterns?
4. Does the employment of communication strategies vary significantly according to the exposure to oral communication in English? If it does, what are the main significant variation patterns?
5. Does the employment of communication strategies vary significantly according to the levels of study? If it does, what are the main significant variation patterns?

6. Does the employment of communication strategies vary significantly according to the locations of institutions? If it does, what are the main significant variation patterns?

3.5 Sampling and Rationale for Choice of Participants

According to Punch (2005, p. 101), “All research, including qualitative research, involves sampling. This is because no study, whether quantitative, qualitative or both, can include everything”. Miles and Huberman (1994, p. 27) express the same view, “You cannot study everyone everywhere doing everything”. Moreover, Dörnyei (2003, p. 71) affirms, “Investigating the whole population is not necessary and in fact be a waste of resources”. He further states, “By adopting appropriate *sampling procedures* to select a smaller number of people to be questioned we can save a considerable amount of time, cost, and effort and can still come up with accurate results...”. Therefore, selecting sampling procedures is also a very important step that researchers should carefully take it into consideration because it will help get good samples and ensure the accurate results of the studies.

Furthermore, as pointed out by Punch (2005, p. 102), “A sampling plan is not independent of the other elements in a research project, particularly its research purposes and questions. ... Thus, if the research questions require representativeness, some form of representative sampling should be used. On the other hand, if the research questions highlight relationships between variables, or comparisons between groups, some sort of deliberate or purposive sampling may well be more appropriate, since it makes sense to select the sample in such a way that there is maximum chance for any relationship to be observed”. In such instance and on the basis of the purposes

and questions of the present study which mainly concern not only exploratory but also representativeness, they have been considered to require both purposive sampling which is under the non-probability sampling and some types of representative sampling which are based on probability sampling. Neuman (2006, p. 222) expresses his view about purposive sampling “Purposive sampling is a valuable kind of sampling for special situations. It is used in exploratory research or in field research”; and “Sampling to achieve representativeness is usually called probability sampling” (Neuman, 2006, p. 102).

‘A sample’ is the term for a subset of the population which is representative of the whole population; and a good sample must be very similar to the target population in its most important general characteristics (e.g. age, gender, ethnicity, educational background, academic capability, etc.) (Dörnyei, 2003). This is because “...the researchers want their sample results to be similar to those they would have got by studying the entire group” (Kane, 1995, p. 84). Therefore, several sampling procedures have been designed to yield highly representative samples for serving the purpose of sample-to-population inference (Rubin, 1983; Dörnyei, 2003; Punch, 2005; Neuman, 2006). In order to generalize the findings from the samples to the population, the sample must not only be carefully selected to be representative of the population; it also needs to include a sufficient number (Denscombe, 2003, p. 21). That is to say the adequate sample size is another inevitably important point the researchers have to deal with.

Drew (1980) indicates that sample size is very important because the interpretations of the results may not be accurate if the sample does not accurately represent the population. Sample size depends upon several factors, namely 1) the

accuracy required in the final results which means that how much precision you want between your findings and those you would get by studying the entire group. The less accurate the results need to be, the smaller can be the sample size; 2) the variation within the population, that is to say in a population where the people are similar in relation to what you are studying, you will need a smaller sample than one in which variation is greater; and 3) the number of variables you are studying, more variables can require larger samples (Rubin, 1983; Kane, 1995). According to Cohen and Manion (1984, p. 89), "...the correct sample size depends upon the purpose of the study and the nature of the population under scrutiny".

In the present investigation, through the use of both non-probability and probability sampling, the samples were good representatives of the entire population; and they were not too large to be manageable. To put it simply, the participants who were the subjects of the study were adequate in numbers and were the good representatives of RMUT students majoring in EIC.

In the context of RMUTs, there are 20 institutions offering EIC major. The purposive sampling and stratified random sampling were used to select the RMUT participants for the present investigation. For the purposive sampling, participants were sampled on basis of availability and convenience. According to Aiken (1997), convenience samples are usually *purposive*, which means that besides the relative ease of accessibility, participants also have to possess certain key characteristics that are related to the purpose of the investigation. Stratified random sampling was used on the basis of the representativeness of the samples of the target population. Stratified random sampling can generally produce samples that are more representative of the population than simple random sampling; however, the stratum

information must be accurate (Neuman, 2006). As a result, 11 institutions participated in the study.

Through the purposive sampling, 3 institutions of RMUTs: Thanyaburi campus, Sakon Nakhon campus, and Nakhon Ratchasima campus were selected to participate in the semi-structured interview in the first phase of data collection. There were altogether 48 students (4 students from each year of study: 16 students from each institution of RMUTs) taking part in the interview session. The data obtained from 48 participants of the interview was used to generate the written communication strategy questionnaire which was used as the main instrument in the second phase of data collection.

In the second phase of data collection, the written communication strategy questionnaire was administered to collect the data from 811 RMUT students majoring in EIC. The participants were from eight institutions of RMUTs obtained through stratified random sampling based on geographical region classification. The eight institutions of RMUTs include Phitsanulok campus (from RMUT Lanna), Tak campus (RMUT Lanna), Surin campus (RMUT Isan), Bangphra campus (RMUT Tawan-Ok), Krungthep campus (RMUT Krungthep), Hantra campus (RMUT Suwannaphumi), RMUT Thanyaburi, and Trang campus (RMUT Sriwichai).

The characteristics of the research participants in both phases for data collection have encompassed all the independent variables selected for the present study, i.e. gender of students, exposure to oral communication in English, levels of study, and locations of institutions. The next section discusses the characteristics of the research population.

3.6 Characteristics of the Research Participants

This section aims to discuss the characteristics of the research participants. The breakdown of the number of participating students related to each variable in the data collection in order to give a context for the results obtained through the data analysis for the present study was presented in Tables 3.1–3.3. This breakdown has been crosstabulated, and the chi-square (χ^2) tests were employed to determine the subject distribution among the investigated variables.

Table 3.1 Number of Students by ‘Gender’ in Terms of ‘Exposure to Oral Communication in English’, ‘Levels of Study’ and ‘Locations of Institutions’

Gender	Exposure to Oral Communication in English		Levels of Study			Locations of Institutions	
	Limited to classroom instructions only	Non-limited to classroom instructions	Beginner	Intermediate	Advanced	Tourist destinations for foreigners	Non-tourist destinations for foreigners
Male (n= 94)	36	58	25	53	16	56	38
Female (n=717)	300	417	212	353	152	402	315
Total (n=811)	336	475	237	406	168	458	353
	N.S		N.S			N.S	

Table 3.1 presents the number of students in each group of the three independent variables when related to ‘gender of students’. Of the three variables presented in the ‘white’ areas, the chi-square (χ^2) test results reveal that the distribution of the male and female subjects is significantly different in neither ‘exposure to oral communication in English’, ‘levels of study’, nor ‘locations of institutions’. That is to say, the proportion of the male and female students in each group of the three variables is similar to one another.

Table 3.2 Number of Students by ‘Exposure to Oral Communication in English’ in Terms of ‘Levels of Study’ and ‘Locations of Institutions’

Exposure to Oral Communication in English	Levels of Study			Locations of Institutions	
	Beginner	Intermediate	Advanced	Tourist destinations for foreigners	Non-tourist destinations for foreigners
Limited to classroom instructions only (n= 336)	114	174	48	172	164
Non-limited to classroom instructions (n= 475)	123	232	120	286	189
Total (n=811)	237	406	168	458	353
	$\chi^2 = 16.14^{***}$			$\chi^2 = 6.51^{**}$	

Note: ** p<.01, *** p<.001

The results of the chi-square (χ^2) tests presented in Table 3.2 show that the distribution of the number of students with their ‘exposure to oral communication in English’ both limited to classroom instructions only and non-limited to classroom instructions varied significantly within ‘levels of study’ and ‘locations of institutions’. That is, a higher proportion of students in both circumstances of exposure to oral communication in English are of the ‘intermediate’ level of study than of the ‘beginner’ and ‘advanced’ levels; and there are more students studying at RMUTs located in the areas of tourist destinations for foreigners than those located in the areas of non-tourist destinations for foreigners.

Table 3.3 Number of Students by ‘Levels of Study’ in Terms of ‘Locations of Institutions’

Levels of Study	Locations of Institutions	
	Tourist destinations for foreigners	Non-tourist destinations for foreigners
Beginner (n= 237)	131	106
Intermediate (n= 406)	215	191
Advanced (n= 168)	112	56
Total (n=811)	458	353
		$\chi^2 = 9.28^{**}$

Note: ** p<.01

Regarding ‘levels of study’ related to the variable of ‘locations of institutions’ as shown in Table 3.3, the chi-square (χ^2) test results show that the distribution of the subjects with different levels of study varied significantly within ‘locations of institutions’. That is to say, greater students with various levels of study are studying at RMUTs located in the areas of tourist destinations for foreigners than those located in the areas of non-tourist destinations for foreigners. It appears that a largest number of students at the intermediate level of study are studying at RMUTs located in the areas of tourist destinations for foreigners. Meanwhile, a smallest number of students at the advanced level of study are studying at the ones located in the areas of non-tourist destinations for foreigners.

Table 3.4 summarises the characteristics of the research participants when the distribution of the number of students among the variables is examined. The information demonstrates whether or not the distribution of the research participants varies significantly when related to different variables. This participant

characterization may be useful for the researcher to interpret some cases of the research findings in Chapter 7.

Table 3.4 Summary of the Variation of the Research Participants

	Exposure to Oral Communication in English	Levels of Study	Locations of Institution
Gender	NO	NO	NO
Exposure to Oral Communication in English		YES	YES
Level of Study			YES

Note: ‘YES’ means the distribution of participants varies significantly; and ‘NO’ means the distribution of participants does not.

The research participants can be summarized as follows:

- The total number of students reveals that there are more ‘female’ students than their ‘male’ counterparts; more students with non-limited exposure to oral communication in English to classroom instructions than those with limited exposure to classroom instructions only; more students at ‘intermediate level of study’ than those at ‘advanced’, and ‘beginner’ level of study; and more students studying at RMUTs located in the areas of tourist destinations for foreigners than those located in the areas of non-tourist destinations for foreigners.
- The number of students with non-limited exposure to oral communication in English to classroom instructions is the largest group of the investigated variables.
- The number of students with different levels of study studying at RMUTs located in the areas of tourist destinations for foreigners is larger than those located in the areas of non-tourist destinations for foreigners.

- The number of students who do not limit their exposure to oral communication in English to classroom instructions studying at RMUTs located in the areas of tourist destinations for foreigners is more than those located in the areas of non-tourist destinations for foreigners.

The characteristics of the research population demonstrated in Tables 3.1–3.3 are generally satisfactory although the distribution of the subjects is not perfectly well-balanced or proportioned as planned. This can be summarized briefly as follows:

1. Proportion of Male and Female Students

As we can see in Table 3.1, proportion of the gender of students was not definitely well-balanced, with a lot more of female than male students. This is because the population of the present study was majoring in English; and they were female in general. In other words, female students prefer taking English as their major field of study than do male counterparts. As a result, the number of the participating female students was relatively big when compared with their male counterparts. However, these male students had provided the researcher with useful information for the present study.

2. Proportion of Students' Exposure to Oral Communication of English

The number of students with their exposure to oral communication in English limited to classroom instructions only and those with non-limited to classroom instructions was in a little difference. That is, the former was slightly less than the latter. It was unpredictable whether students with which certain gender, levels of study, and locations of institutions would limit or not limit their exposure to oral communication in English to classroom instructions only. Fortunately, however, the

number of students between the two groups was not much different as shown in Tables 3.1-3.2.

3. Proportion of Students' Levels of Study

Proportion of the students with different levels of study was not perfectly well-balanced because the group of 'intermediate' level of study is the largest group. The number of students at 'intermediate' level of study was a lot bigger when compared with those at either 'advanced' or 'beginner' level of study. This is because the researcher has combined both second and third year students into one, the 'intermediate', level of study. Since EIC was the four-year program at RMUTs, it was logically classified into three groups as beginner (first year), intermediate (second and third year), and advanced (fourth year). This way of classification affects the number of students at different levels of study as shown in Tables 3.1-3.3.

4. Proportion of Students' Locations of Institutions

As illustrated in Tables 3.1-3.3, the number of students who was studying at RMUTs located in the areas of tourist destinations for foreigners was greater than those located in the areas of non-tourist destinations for foreigners. Although the proportion of students studying between these two different types of locations was not well-balanced, they were not a big difference. This is because the researcher had systematically planned in a sampling stage using stratified random sampling considering the investigated variables for the present study. Therefore, equal number of institutions from the two types of locations was obtained leading to a slightly difference in the number of students according to this variable.

3.7 Framework of Data Collection Methods for the Present

Investigation

The design and methods are closely aligned with the research questions right after the research questions are made clear (Punch, 2005). At this stage, it is necessary to consider the suitability among the research questions, design, and methods. Punch (2005, p. 247) points out “When the questions, design and methods fit together, the argument is strong and the research has validity. When they do not fit together, the argument is weakened and the research lacks validity”.

Regarding the research methods, Robson (2002, p. 370) states, “There is no rule that says that only method must be used in an investigation. Using more than one can have substantial advantages, even though it almost inevitably adds to the time investment required. Studies may combine methods producing quantitative data with others yielding qualitative data... . One important benefit of multiple methods is in the reduction of inappropriate certainty”. In this sense, it is beneficial to use more than one method to collect data in a single research in order to validate the research findings. Robson (2002) further asserts that multiple methods can also help in the way that rather than focusing on a single, specific research question, they may be used to address different but complementary questions within a study. This can be done through the use of different methods for alternative tasks. For instance, the initial exploratory work is done by means of unstructured interviews, and subsequent descriptive and explanatory work employs a sample survey.

Accordingly, in the context of the present study, the researcher has carefully decided to use multiple methods for data collection. Since each method of data collection has its own strengths and weaknesses, the researchers should consider

crucial aspects of each method and justify which method can best suit the purpose(s) of the studies (Robson, 2002). Through the literature review in the area of CSs, different methods of data collection have been used (e.g. classroom observation, communicative tasks and recorded, interview, communication strategy questionnaire). According to the six proposed research questions of the present investigation (see Section 3.4), some of them require one method for data collection whereas others need another method to answer them. As suggested by Punch (2005, p. 19), “Different research questions require different methods to answer them”. Moreover, Creswell (2003) suggests that the sequential procedures of strategies associated with the mixed methods approach may begin with a qualitative method for exploratory purposes and followed by a quantitative method with a large sample so that it can generalize results to the target population. For this reason, the researcher had employed multiple methods of data collection. With careful thought, the methods are both qualitative and quantitative, namely semi-structured interview and communication strategy questionnaire in the study. Ellis (1994, p. 534) points out, “A method that has been found to be more successful involves the use of structured interviews and questionnaires, both of which call retrospective accounts of the strategies learners employ”. Questionnaires are among the most efficient and comprehensive ways to assess the frequency of learners’ strategy use (Oxford, 1996). Apart from questionnaires, interviews can require language learners to report on the strategies they use in general or in relation to a specific activity (Ellis, 1994).

Based on the proposed research questions, some of them aim to explore types and frequency of communication strategies RMUT students employed in their oral communication in English, and some aim to describe as well as explain the

relationship between strategy use and the four independent variables. Therefore, two data collection methods: semi-structured interview and questionnaire have been selected as the main methods for data collection in the present investigation. The data collection processes of the two methods for the present study have been discussed in the next section.

3.8 Methods for Data Collection

In the present study, the semi-structured interview and the communication strategy questionnaire were used as the main methods for data collection to elicit information about CS use of the subjects to answer the proposed research questions. These two types of data collection methods were administered with RMUT students majoring in EIC. There were two main phases for data collection in the present study. The semi-structured interview was used as the main instrument in the first phase, and then the communication strategy questionnaire was used in the second phase of data collection. What follows is the detail of each method for data collection.

3.8.1 Semi-structured Interview

As mentioned above, semi-structured interview was used as one of the main data collection instruments in the present investigation. It was used in the first phase of the study in order to elicit information about communication strategies employed by RMUT students majoring in EIC. The data obtained through the semi-structured interviews in the first phase of data collection was used to generate the written communication strategy questionnaire which was used as the main data collection instrument in the second phase of the study in order to examine frequency of CS use as well as the variation patterns of CSs that RMUT students majoring in EIC employed in general.

The semi-structured interview questions were formulated based on the research questions of the study. Then the interview questions were cross-checked by the supervisor and revised as suggested. After that, the researcher translated the interview questions into the Thai language, so that the participants would not misinterpret or misunderstand the questions which may distract the actual responses as the participants' first language was Thai. Before the actual use, the Thai-version interview questions were rechecked and discussed with the supervisor, then piloted with RMUT students majoring in EIC who were from the target population, but had not participated in the main stage of the investigation, in order to see whether or not the questions work properly; there is anything wrong with the question items, question sequences, timing, recording, or other technical problems that would happen in the actual data collection scheme; and they are clear for the interviewees (Intaraprasert, 2000). Right after the piloting, there was a discussion about the implications from the pilot group between the supervisor and the researcher for the potential questions in order to ensure the questions were not problematic for the actual use.

The interview comprised two main parts: the background information of the interviewee part, and the communication strategy inquiry part. Questions 1 to 4 were in the first part asking the interviewees about their background information. It was intended to build the good rapport between the interviewer and the interviewees, as well as to enhance trust and confidence to the interviewees. Questions 5 to 12 were the inquiries focusing attention on communication strategies. The students were mainly asked what they find difficult in their oral communication in English and how they cope with the problems.

In the actual interviews, the interviewee in each of the three selected institutions of RMUTs were arranged at a different time to take the interviews based upon their convenience; and they were asked for permission to be tape-recorded during the interviews, so that the researcher would not miss any points of the interview data. In doing so, the researcher could also establish good rapport with the interviewees. As stated by Minichiello et al., (1990, p. 134), "Tape recording is one means of obtaining a full and accurate record of the interview. It can enhance greater rapport by allowing a more natural conversational style. The interviewer is free to be an attentive and thoughtful listener. The raw data remains on the record. Therefore, all the material is available for analysis when the researcher has the time to concentrate fully". Each interview was approximately between fifteen to twenty minutes. This might be the right period of time as it could allow the researcher to explore the main points of the interview. The interview may become boring and tiring for both the interviewer and interviewee if it takes too long (Intaraprasert, 2000). After the interview, the recorded interview data were transcribed and analyzed qualitatively. Then, the coded data were used to generate the questionnaire items for the communication strategy questionnaire.

3.8.2 The Communication Strategy Questionnaire

The written communication strategy questionnaire was used as the other main data collection method in the present study. It was used to gather data in the second phase of data collection from RMUT students majoring in EIC in order to find out types and frequency of use of communication strategies arising during the oral communication in English employed by the research subjects.

The items in the questionnaire were generated from the data obtained through the semi-structured interview. Nine items of CSs were adopted from existing CS classifications of other researchers in order to make the present inventory more comprehensive. The communication strategy questionnaire was a 4-point rating scale which for the description was adapted from Oxford (1990).

- | |
|---|
| 1= Never or almost never true of me
2= Somewhat true of me
3= Usually true of me
4= Always or almost always true of me |
|---|

(Source: After Oxford, 1990, p. 294)

For the language of the questionnaire, initially, the communication strategy questionnaire was devised in English and then translated into Thai for actual administration in order to help maximize ease of administration and ensure greater accuracy of results. The researcher was a person who translated the questionnaire into Thai. Then, the supervisor along with colleagues who were native speakers of Thai language working at RMUTs checked for the validity of the translated-version questionnaire.

Regarding the piloting of the written communication strategy questionnaire, after getting it checked for validity, it was piloted with RMUT students majoring in EIC who had not involved in the main stage of investigation, in order to see how the items would work in the actual practice. That is, to see whether the respondents would respond to the items as intended by the researcher. Any comments from the pilot group were discussed with the supervisor and considered to implement the questionnaire for the actual administration.

The data that was obtained in both phases of data collection was self-report information. The tape-recorded data obtained through the semi-structured interviews in the first phase of data collection was transcribed, and then analyzed using content analysis. Whilst the data obtained through the written communication strategy questionnaires in the second phase of data collection was analyzed by the assistance of the SPSS programme to answer the research questions for the present investigation. The following section presents how to analyze, interpret, and report data obtained through both the semi-structured interviews and the written communication strategy questionnaires.

3.9 Analyzing, Interpreting, and Reporting Data

As mentioned earlier, the present investigation was both qualitative (phase 1 of data collection) and quantitative (phase 2 of data collection). Qualitative data and quantitative data were definitely obtained. So, different methods of data analysis for both qualitative data and quantitative data were considered and selectively used in order to answer the research questions correctly.

3.9.1 Qualitative Data Analysis: Semi-structured Interview

To answer to RQ 1, the content analysis was used to analyze the contents of the transcribed data obtained through the semi-structured interviews. Through doing content analysis, the researcher could get conceptual categories with themes or concepts concerning CSs. Neuman (2006) points out that the content analysis mainly involves coding. He further states “Coding is two simultaneous activities: mechanical data reduction and analytic categorization of data” (p. 460). Examining the data to condense them into preliminary analytic categories or codes, organizing the codes,

linking them, and discovering key analytic categories are the coding procedures. These steps are not necessarily done sequentially; rather they are likely to be overlapping and done concurrently (Punch, 2005).

3.9.2 Quantitative Data Analysis: Communication Strategy Questionnaire

To answer to RQ's 2-6, the SPSS programme was used to analyze the data obtained through the communication strategy questionnaire examining the frequency of students' CS use and the relationship between the CS use and the investigated variables. The researcher analyzed the data to find out whether the patterns of CS use in relation to each of the four variables exists. If any, what kinds of variation patterns exist? The following statistics were used through the assistance of SPSS programme for data analysis and interpretation.

1. Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics were used to describe basic patterns in the data in terms of the frequency distributions of student-reported CS use in general. Three levels of strategy use: 'high use', 'medium use', and 'low use' based on the holistic mean score of frequency of strategy use by the participants of the present study have been defined (Intaraprasert, 2000).

2. Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

Analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to compare and test the significant differences among the means of two or more groups on a dependent variable (Nunan, 1989; Punch, 2005). The independent variables are usually nominal. This statistics have been used to examine the relationship between the overall use of learner-reported CSs and each of the selected independent variables, namely 1) gender of students: male and female; 2) exposure to oral communication in English: limited to

classroom instructions only and non-limited to classroom instructions; 3) levels of study: beginner, intermediate, and advanced; and 4) locations of institutions: tourist destinations for foreigners and non- tourist destinations for foreigners.

3. The post hoc Scheffé Test

The post hoc Scheffé test was used to examine the significant differences as the result of ANOVA where the variables have more than two groups (Roscoe, 1975). The post hoc Scheffé test is used to indicate which pair of the groups under such a variable contributes to the overall differences (Intaraprasert, 2000). In such an instance, in the context of present study, this statistic has been used to test the significant differences of students' levels of study: beginner, intermediate, and advanced.

4. The Chi-square Test

The chi-square test is used when dealing with data in form of frequencies rather scores, or when we are analyzing the number of times a particular event(s) occur (Nunan, 1989). It tells us the strength of the relationship between two variables (Neuman, 2006).

In the context of the present study, this statistic was used to determine the significant variation patterns in students' reported strategy use at the individual item level by each of the independent variables. The Chi-square test compared the actual frequencies with which students gave different responses on the 4-point rating scale, a method of analysis closer to the raw data than comparisons based on average responses for each item. For the Chi-square tests, responses of 1 and 2 ('Never or almost never true of me' and 'Usually not true of me') have been consolidated into a single "low strategy use" category, and responses of 3 and 4 ('Usually true of me' and

‘always or almost always true of me’) have been combined into a single “high strategy use” category. The purpose of consolidating the four response levels into two categories of strategy use (low and high) is to obtain cell sizes with expected values high enough to ensure a valid analysis (Green and Oxford, 1995, p. 271).

3.10 Summary

In this chapter, two main parts have been presented. The first part deals with a background of research methodology, i.e. research design, purposes of research, and types of research as well as methods and instrumentations in CSs research. The second part discusses the methodology for the present investigation, namely theoretical framework and rationale for selecting and rejecting variables for the present investigation; research questions; sampling and rationale for choice of participants; characteristics of the research participants; framework of data collection methods for the present investigation; and methods for data collection. The chapter ends with how to analyze, interpret, and report the data.

In the present study, there were two main phases for data collection. Oral semi-structured interviews were employed for the first phase of data collection. 48 RMUT students majoring in EIC participated in the interviews. The data obtained through this stage were used to generate the communication strategy questionnaire which was used as the main instrument in the second phase of data collection where 811 students responded to the written communication strategy questionnaire.

The results of the data obtained through both phases of data collection were analysed, discussed, and presented in the following chapters. Chapter 4 deals with the results of the student oral interviews which later were generated the communication

strategy inventory, and the communication strategy questionnaire. Then, the results of the data obtained through the communication strategy questionnaire are presented in Chapters 5 and 6.



CHAPTER 4

COMMUNICATION STRATEGY INVENTORY AND THE STRATEGY QUESTIONNAIRE

4.1 Introduction and Purpose of the Chapter

This chapter mainly focuses on the communication strategy inventory (CSI) which emerged from the data obtained through the student oral semi-structured interviews conducted with 48 Rajamangala University of Technology (RMUT) students majoring in English for International Communication (EIC). These students were from three RMUT institutions in different locations of Institutions in Thailand in the first semester of academic year 2009. Firstly, the researcher will present the procedures of eliciting information about communication strategy use of all 48 students through the semi-structured interviews in the first phase of data collection. Then, a description of how to generate the preliminary CSI based on the interview data is presented. This is followed by the generation of the definite CSI as well as how to validate it. The chapter ends up with the communication strategy questionnaire (CSQ) which was used as the main method in the second phase of data collection.

In the field of communication strategies (CSs), based on a related literature review of CSs in Chapter 2, we can see that a diversity of perspectives towards CSs of researchers leads to a variety of CS classifications. That is to say, different researchers have different ways of classifying CSs. This could be based on their own perspectives,

other researchers' work, or on a review of related literature in the field of CSs. However, it is undeniable that no single classification system is perfect. CS classification system which is suitable for a researcher to use for information elicitation about CS use of language learners with one group of students may not be suitable for another (Intaraprasert, 2000). Since there is no single, perfect CS classification system, the researcher took the CS classification system proposed by different researchers into account and decided to make use of the information reported by RMUT students majoring in EIC themselves with an effective method to elicit their CS use. What follow are the procedures of how to generate the CSI and the CSQ for the present investigation.

4.2 The Main Stage of the Student Oral Interviews

The student oral interviews, one-on-one semi-structured interviews, were used as the main method in the first phase of data collection under the present study. The reported statements obtained through the semi-structured interviews were used to generate the communication strategy inventory (CSI), and then the communication strategy questionnaire (CSQ). The interviews were conducted with 48 RMUT students majoring in EIC in June 2009 (see Appendix 2 for the interview timetable). The purpose of the student oral interviews at this stage was to elicit information about students' CS use, as well as to find out how they normally solved their oral communication problems in English. The content of the interview questions partly emerged from a related literature review, available related research work, and partly from the researcher's personal experience towards strategies for handling problems occurred while interacting in English. The interview questions mainly dealt with

asking students if they have any problems conveying the meaning to their interlocutor while communicating in English, what makes their oral communication in English difficult, what CSs they employed to solve particular problems, and what activities they did to improve their oral communication skill in English (see Appendix 3 for the interview guide). The sample questions can be summarized as follows:

Q1: an introductory part dealing with background information of the interviewees including the interviewee's name and nickname

Q2: an investigation of each interviewee's opinion towards studying English language

Q3, Q4: an investigation of each interviewee's chances of exposure to oral communication in English, and whether it is enough to improve their speaking skill

Q5, Q6: an investigation if each interviewee finds difficult in conveying the message to his/her interlocutor, and what he/she employs to solve those problems

Q7: an investigation if each interviewee finds difficult in immediately expressing him/herself in English, and what he/she employs to solve those problems

Q8: an investigation of each interviewee as to what he/she employs to make him/herself understood in case his/her interlocutor does not understand the conveyed message

Q9: an investigation if each interviewee makes mistakes while interacting in English, and what he/she employs to solve those mistakes

Q10: an investigation if each interviewee gets struck while conversing in English, and what he/she employs to make the conversation flow

Q11: an investigation if each interviewee does some extra activities to improve his/her speaking skill, and what activities he/she does

Q12: an investigation of each interviewee's comments about oral communication in English learning in his/her present classroom

The first oral interviews were carried out with sixteen EIC-majored students at RMUT Isan, Nakhon Ratchasima campus. Both the Institute and students were very co-operative. So, it was not difficult for the researcher to make an appointment with these students. The students were requested to provide the researcher some free time when they did not have classes for the interview. In making an appointment, the researcher informed students the main interview purposes and what they would be required to do. Some students questioned about the language being used for the interview. The researcher had to ensure them that the interview would be conducted in Thai not English which seemed to make them feel more relaxed. Consequently, the timetable was arranged and the interview guide was given to every student. It was found to be helpful for students to have an interview question guide before the actual interview since they could prepare responses to the proposed questions (Intaraprasert, 2000).

While interviewing, the researcher always kept in mind to set a relaxed atmosphere and build a good rapport between the interviewer and the interviewees. Denscombe (2003) points out that setting a relaxed atmosphere in the student oral interview is necessary since the students would feel free to give information on the topic. In addition, Measor (1985) suggests that one way to build a good relationship between the interviewer and the students is to ask the students' name. Taking the suggestions from both scholars in account, the researcher addressed all students by their nickname or by their first name as they preferred. This appeared to be very useful since the students seemed to respond to the interview questions with

confidence, feeling free to give information, and less anxious. Besides, the researcher also followed Robson's (2002) suggestions and guidelines during the interview process, for example the researcher should listen to the student more than speak; should put questions in a straightforward, clear and non-threatening way to the students; should not ask leading questions; should look satisfied with students' responses; and make students feel that they were understandable and easy to talk to. A similar interview process was administered at the other two institutes of RMUTs.

All in all, the student oral interviews in the first phase for data collection went as planned and scheduled, and everything worked out quite smoothly. Right after the interviews, the researchers started transcribing the interview recordings and the unfocused transcription was employed. This is because it involves outlining the basic intended meaning of a recording speech without attempting to represent its detailed contextual or interactional characteristics (Gibson and Brown, 2009). Since the process of transcribing the interviewed data was time-consuming, it took the researcher almost a month to finish it. Subsequently, the transcribed data were translated from Thai into English for the purpose of the data analysis. The translated data were cross-checked for accuracy by two Thai lecturers teaching English at the university. Then the data were analyzed through the content analysis to discover communication strategies reported being employed by these RMUT students majoring in EIC, and generate the CSI, as well as the CSQ for the second phase of data collection.

4.3 How the Communication Strategy Inventory was Generated?

When all the interview data obtained were transcribed, the researcher went on to the next step, that is, to generate the preliminary communication strategy inventory (CSI) which was administered through the following processes:

1. The researcher took a look at all the interview data obtained from 48 RMUT students majoring in EIC in order to get an overall picture of what behavior they reported doing for coping with their oral communication problems in English.
2. The researcher went on looking at each interview transcription and made a list of what could be regarded as communication strategies. Each individual communication strategy item was identified with carefulness to ensure that none of the CSs were left out.
3. From the list, the researcher found that there were altogether 560 statements about communication strategies. The researcher then started to consider the similarities and differences of the reported statements in the list in order to group them.
4. The researcher carefully grouped these 560 reported statements considering the similarities of the context in which the CSs were reported being employed. These reported statements were mostly used with the purpose of handling difficulties or achieving particular goals in their oral communication in English. Since there were various classification systems in categorizing CSs like those of some other scholars, such as Tarone, Cohen & Dumas (1976), Bialystok (1983, 1990), Færch and Kasper (1983c), Paribakht (1985), Dörnyei and Scott (1997), and Nakatani (2006), the researcher had to keep in mind how to categorise the reported statements appropriately and systematically that best serves the purpose of the present study. Richterich (1996) states that strategies were formed by a series of co-ordinated actions

for the purpose of achieving an objective reflected by the acquisition of knowledge, know-how, attitude, and learning skills. Furthermore, Intaraprasert (2000) proposes that strategies could be categorized according to the purpose of strategy use. After discussing with the supervisor, the researcher decided to follow Intaraprasert's (2000) language learning strategy classification system. Consequently, the preliminary CS classification system of the present investigation was generated based on the reported purpose of strategy use.

5. The next step, the researcher had to focus on actions and the purposes of CS use for grouping these reported statements. For example, one of the EIC-majored students reported her strategy use in order to convey a message to the interlocutor as, "In case my teacher does not seem to understand what I am talking, I sometimes switch the language from English to Thai hoping that he/she can understand the message better..." [translated interview]. Another student reported a similar statement, "I often cannot express myself in English. I sometimes speak out in Thai because the interlocutor also knows a bit of Thai and he can speak Thai for some words" [translated interview]. This means that 'switching L2 into L1' is an action for both students and they share the same purpose: to convey a message to the interlocutor. In the present investigation, these two reported statements were put under the same group. Initially, 35 groups of CSs emerged from the 560 reported statements. This grouping process continued with carefulness to make sure that the reported statements in each group shared the similar characteristics in the context or situation in which they were reported being used.

6. At this stage, the individual thirty-five CS items were coded. It was not easy to find the suitable name that neutrally covers the characteristics of the reported statements

which came under the same group. Eventually, all the individual group of the reported CS items were identified, then we started the next step.

7. In this step, the researcher started to further categorize the identified individual CS item. It should be noted that classifying communication strategies was really an iterative, tedious, and time-consuming process. The researcher with an assistance of her supervisor reconsidered whether the communication strategy behaviors could be classified further. When considering each individual behavior, we found that every strategy was reported being used to achieve a certain purpose, i.e. to convey a message to the interlocutor or to understand the message. So, the researcher decided to classify CSs based on the working definition of CS for the present study which mainly involves achieving particular purposes while interacting in English. As a result, four main categories of CSs came up and four suitable names were initially given.

8. The individual strategy items then were matched with each purpose. The researcher had adopted some existing CSs to the present CSI in order to make it more comprehensive. Eventually, 'The Communication Strategies Inventory' had been proposed. It comprised four main categories of CSs. These included 1) continuous interaction strategies for conveying a message to the interlocutor category, abbreviated as CSCM; 2) discontinuous interaction strategies for conveying a message to the interlocutor category, abbreviated as DSCM; 3) strategies for understanding the message category, abbreviated as SUM; and 4) strategies for maintaining the conversation category, abbreviated as SMC. The first category for the proposed CSI runs from CSCM1 to CSCM16, the second one from DSCM1 to DSCM7, the third from SUM1 to SUM12, and the fourth one from SMC1 to SMC9.

SUM12, for example, refers to the twelfth individual CS which students reported employing to understand the message.

In summary, content analysis was conducted in order to generate the CSI. The researcher made a great attempt to find all the reported statements regarded as CSs from the transcriptions of the 48 translated interview recordings. These communication strategies were reported being employed to handle problems in their oral communication in English in order to achieve a particular purpose while interacting with the interlocutor. They were later identified and categorized, based on the operational definition of CSs of the present investigation, into four main categories as 1) continuous interaction strategies for conveying a message to the interlocutor category (CSCM); 2) discontinuous interaction strategies for conveying a message to the interlocutor category (DSCM); 3) strategies for understanding the message category (SUM); and 4) strategies for maintaining the conversation category (SMC). In classifying CSs, the researcher took different aspects of strategy classifying system proposed by different researchers into consideration such as terms used to identify individual strategy item and purposes of strategy use as a whole. This stage took the researcher over a month to develop a satisfactory CSI. Table 4.1 summaries the CSI which emerged from the data obtained through the oral semi-structured interviews conducted with 48 RMUT students majoring in EIC.

Table 4.1 The Outline of the Communication Strategy Classification for the Present Investigation

Communication Strategy Inventory		
Main Category	Purpose to be Achieved	Individual Strategy
Main Category 1	Conveying a message to the interlocutor category	CSCM1- CSCM16
Main Category 2	Conveying a message to the interlocutor category	DSCM1- DSCM7
Main Category 3	Understanding the message	SUM1- SUM12
Main Category 4	Maintaining the conversation	SMC1- SMC9

Following is a description of communication strategy classification system to generate the CSI for the present investigation.

4.4 Communication Strategy Inventory (CSI)

The CSI for the present investigation emerged from the oral semi-structured interview data obtained in the first phase of data collection with 48 RMUT students majoring in EIC. The interview data were transcribed, and then analysed qualitatively by doing content analysis. The present classification system was based on the working definition of communication strategy for the present study which mainly involves achieving particular purpose of CS use, i.e. 1) for conveying a message to the interlocutor, 2) for understanding the message, and 3) for maintaining the conversation.

As mentioned earlier, some existing communication strategies from other researchers, namely Dörnyei and Scott (1997); and Nakatani (2006) have been adopted since they were reportedly employed by their students for handling oral communication problems. The researcher decided to adopt some existing CSs not

only to make the present CSI more comprehensive but also to examine if the adopted strategies would be reported being employed for coping with problems in learners' oral communication in English in the context of RMUTs. Nine strategies were adopted for the present investigation. They were:

- making up a new word in order to communicate a desired concept (Word-coinage);
- translating literally a lexical item, an idiom, a compound word or structure from Thai to English;
- 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 little by little;
- guessing the meaning of what the interlocutor has said;
- trying to relax when one feels anxious.

The subsequent sections are the results of the oral interview data emerged from 560 reported statements of CSs employed by 48 RMUT students majoring in EIC to handle their oral communication problems in order to achieve some particular communicative purposes while communicating in English, along with the nine strategies adopted from the CS classification of Dörnyei and Scott (1997), and Nakatani (2006). In order to ensure the trustworthiness of the qualitative analysis, the sample statements related to particular CSs reported being employed by the students were demonstrated. In this way, each student as the interviewee was labeled as a code for the confidentiality. For example, RMUT 1 is the first RMUT student who was interviewed.

4.4.1 Continuous Interaction Strategies for Conveying a Message to the Interlocutor (CSCM)

The CSs under this main category are the strategies reported being employed by RMUT students majoring in EIC to cope with their oral communication problems.

The students, as a message sender, demonstrated that he/she attempted to convey the intended message to the interlocutor without a breakdown or a pause by using one of the strategies or a series of strategies under this category to achieve the communicative purpose. In this category, altogether sixteen individual strategies emerged. The strategies include:

- CSCM1:** Switching some unknown words or phrases into Thai
- CSCM2:** Correcting one's own pronunciation, grammar and lexical mistakes
- CSCM3:** Using familiar words, phrases, or sentences
- CSCM4:** Using circumlocution
- CSCM5:** Using non-verbal expressions such as mime, gestures, and facial expressions
- CSCM6:** Referring to objects or materials
- CSCM7:** Drawing a picture
- CSCM8:** Repeating words, phrases, or sentences a few times
- CSCM9:** Spelling or writing out the intended words, phrases, or sentences
- CSCM10:** Using fillers
- CSCM11:** Appealing for assistance from the interlocutor
- CSCM12:** Making use of expressions which have been previously learnt
- CSCM13:** Making use of expressions found in some sources of media (e.g. movies, songs, or T.V.)
- CSCM14:** Using synonym or antonym
- CSCM15:** Making up a new word in order to communicate a desired concept (word-coinage)
- CSCM16:** Translating literally from Thai into English

- **CSCM1: Switching some unknown words or phrases into Thai**

In order to convey the intended message to the interlocutor continuously, some students reported speaking Thai instead of English for some words or phrases that they do not know. They thought that the interlocutor may know some Thai words and could understand the message:

RMUT 3: I often cannot express myself in English. I sometimes speak Thai because the interlocutor also knows a bit of Thai and he can speak Thai for some words.

RMUT 11: In case, my teacher does not seem to understand what I am talking, I sometimes switch the language from English into Thai hoping that he/she could understand the message better...

RMUT 23: For some simple sentences, I usually express myself in English. I sometimes switch the language into Thai for the more difficult part of the sentences.

RMUT 38: While speaking, I sometimes switch the language from English into Thai and, unbelievably, my foreign teacher can understand it.

- **CSCM2: Correcting one's own pronunciation, grammar and lexical mistakes**

Apart from switching the language from English into Thai, some students reported correcting the mistakes of the language they have made may help them to get the message across to the interlocutor continuously:

RMUT 9: When I speak English fast, I often put the words in an incorrect order and use them ungrammatically. Immediately, I correct the mistakes...

RMUT 11: I do not think I can use English to communicate 100 per cent correct, especially with my foreign teachers. For example, I wanted to say the word 'contact' but I said 'connect'. My teacher did not seem to understand the meaning, so I corrected it.

RMUT 13: I usually make a wrong pronunciation. I used to pronounce the word 'vegetable' wrongly. Then I pronounced it again correctly.

RMUT 18: I often use a wrong word and I usually correct it instantly. For example I want to use a verb in a past tense but I use it in a present tense. Then I say the verb again in a past tense and go on the conversation.

RMUT 22: I say sorry to the interlocutor when I pronounced words wrongly and I try to correct them at once.

RMUT 34: ...I repeat the same sentence and correct a mistake I have made.

RMUT 43: I often forgot to pronounce the final sound of words. If I recognise it, I actually pronounce that words again.

- **CSCM3: Using familiar words, phrases, or sentences**

Using familiar words was also reported to help students convey the intended meaning to the interlocutor instantly:

RMUT 4: Apart from asking for help from my friends, I usually use simple and easy words that I know to describe and explain the meaning.

RMUT 8: I can express myself in English because I use easy and familiar words that can quite straight forward in conveying the meaning.

RMUT 17: In fact, I do not know much of the words in English. Sometimes, I cannot think of a target word while communicating. Then, I choose to use an easy and familiar word that is likely to be able to convey the meaning.

RMUT 34: I use only simple words that I think it is easy to understand for both the interlocutor and I.

RMUT 42: ...first, I think of easy words, and then try to put the words in order...

- **CSCM4: Using circumlocution**

Some students reported that they could get the message across to the interlocutor spontaneously by using circumlocution or explaining the meaning of the target word:

RMUT 5: I try to explain the meaning to the interlocutor in order to get a message across to him/her. For example, if my intended word is 'market' but I cannot think of it, I would describe its characteristics instead like lots of sellers are selling things there...

RMUT 7: I keep explaining the intended meaning until he/she gets the message. I would describe the characteristics of the target word, e.g. its size, color, shape, etc.

RMUT 16: I would explain the meaning of the target word. I, for example, would like to mention the word 'crow' but I cannot recognise it. I would say 'a black bird' instead.

RMUT 17: When I use a word wrongly, I do not go on speaking. I say the word again or use another word that has a similar meaning, or give an example related to a particular word.

RMUT 23: When I face a problem in expressing a message, I give an example to describe the intended meaning...

• **CSCM5: Using non-verbal expressions such as mime, gestures, and facial expressions**

Using non-verbal expressions was reported to be one way to help students express themselves successfully and continuously:

RMUT 2: ...I often cannot think of a word that I want to communicate because my English vocabulary knowledge is quite limited. So, I may use body language to help convey the meaning.

RMUT 9: If that word can be explained by gesture or body language, I do not hesitate to use it to help convey the meaning...

RMUT 10: ...at that time, I gestured and used simple form of language to communicate. I think it worked because both the interlocutor and I could go on the conversation.

RMUT 11: I often resort to body language when it seems to me that I cannot express myself clearly and I think the interlocutor try to understand the message.

RMUT 13: If I cannot make myself understood, I use gesture to help convey the meaning. The interlocutor also tries to understand me, and he/she sometimes speaks that word or phrase out for me. If it is what I want to say, I would repeat what I have heard and say the whole expression again.

RMUT 19: I often use body language to support my message explanation.

• **CSCM6: Referring to objects or materials**

Besides using non-verbal expressions, some students also reported that referring to related objects or materials may help them express themselves and get the intended meaning across to the interlocutor instantly.

RMUT 18: Apart from writing a word to the interlocutor, I sometimes show him/her a picture of the place he/she wants to go...

RMUT 22: ...or if there is a map with me or near me, I make use of it telling a direction to the place that he/she asks for...

RMUT 26: I just keep saying though I use or speak the words improperly. I sometimes use pictures to help convey the meaning as well.

RMUT 36: I sometimes show an object to the interlocutor for getting him/her to understand what I mean. For example, I want to get a handout from my foreign teacher, and I show him my friend's handout along with saying "teacher paper sheet." Then I can get the handout from him.

RMUT 48: If there is a picture or a map around me, I explain the message and show that picture or map to the interlocutor.

- **CSCM7: Drawing a picture**

Some students reported that drawing a picture may be very helpful for them to get themselves understood spontaneously:

RMUT 9: When I still cannot convey the meaning, I use drawing strategy until the interlocutor understands the message.

RMUT 13: I always try my best to get the message across to the interlocutor. If body language does not work, I might draw pictures...

RMUT 18: I experienced that I could not get myself understood by the interlocutor. Then, I decided to draw pictures...

RMUT 22: I sometimes draw a map or pictures while explaining in order to make the interlocutor understand the message better.

- **CSCM8: Repeating words, phrases, or sentences a few times**

Repeating words, phrases, or sentences a few times was reported to enable some students to convey the meaning to the interlocutor without a short breakdown or a pause:

RMUT 1: When the interlocutor does not understand what I said, I often say the expression again. If the message is successfully conveyed, I go on the conversation.

RMUT 4: The interlocutor still does not get my message. So I have to explain it again and again and I say the same expressions a few times...

RMUT 41: I speak the whole sentence again, one or two times, in order to get the message across to the interlocutor.

- **CSCM9: Spelling or writing out the intended words, phrases, or sentences**

It was also reported by some students that spelling or writing out the intended words is a way to help them express themselves:

RMUT 2: When the interlocutor keeps asking me to explain him/her the message, I try to explain it by using body language, sometimes writing, or drawing pictures until he/she understands the meaning.

RMUT 7: If he/she really doesn't understand the message, I write down the target words or phrases for him/her to read.

RMUT 24: ... For example, I pronounce the word 'headache' wrongly, and I cannot correct it. I spell it to the interlocutor instead.

RMUT 45: ...or I may write down the word for the interlocutor. When I cannot pronounce the word clearly, I think writing down the word is a good way to solve the problem.

- **CSCM10: Using fillers**

Using fillers was reported by some students as one way to help convey the meaning to the interlocutor without a short breakdown or a pause:

RMUT 8: I always get stuck while speaking English and I often say 'Um' or 'Ah' in order to think what I want to say. Then I speak it out.

RMUT 16: I normally need time to think before expressing myself in English. I would say "Um..um..let me think for a while."...

RMUT 26: I often produce the sound 'Um... Ur...' while thinking a message.

RMUT 28: Yes, I sometimes cannot think of the intended word. Then, I would make the sound 'Um..' for a second to think about a message.

RMUT 31: My teachers taught me to produce the sound 'Um... Ur...' while thinking what to say, and I follow their suggestion...

- **CSCM11: Appealing for assistance from the interlocutor**

Apart from using fillers, some students reported that they could rely on the interlocutor who is proficient in English and can help them get the message across instantly. It was reported that appealing for assistance from the interlocutor may be helpful for them to express themselves without a short breakdown or a pause:

RMUT 5: When I use a word or pronounce a word incorrectly, I ask the interlocutor to correct or explain about it for me, and he/she helps me to use the word correctly without feeling annoyed.

RMUT 6: I do not easily give up the conversation. If I cannot think of a word, I will ask the interlocutor to help me. I used to experience that I wanted to mention 'January' but I forgot the word, so I indirectly asked the interlocutor by saying 'The first month of the year?' Then he/she said 'January'.

RMUT 16: If I do not know the word, I sometimes try to say something as a clue in order that the interlocutor says the intended word for me.

RMUT 29: If the interlocutor tells me that I use the wrong word, I would ask him/her to tell me the correct one.

- **CSCM12: Making use of expressions which have been previously learnt**

A few students reported that one way to help them convey the intended message to the interlocutor continuously is to use expressions which have been previously learnt:

RMUT 10: I try to recall the expressions that I have been taught to interact with the interlocutor...

RMUT 33: First, I have to calm down and try to recall the words, phrases, or sentences that I have already learnt which can be used to convey the intended meaning...

- **CSCM13: Making use of expressions found in some sources of media (e.g. movies, songs, or T.V.)**

Besides making use of expressions which have been previously learnt, making use of expressions found in some movies, songs, or T.V. was also reported by students to help them convey the intended message to the interlocutor without a short breakdown or a pause:

RMUT 4: I may recall the expressions found in English-speaking movies in order to help me express myself as quickly as possible.

RMUT 8: I sometimes sing some parts of a song of which the meaning is related to the intended expression...

- **CSCM14: Using synonym or antonym**

Some students reported that they could get the message across to the interlocutor continuously by using words that have similar or opposite meanings:

RMUT 4: When the interlocutor asks me to clarify the message, I may use other similar words to explain the target meaning. And the interlocutor seems to understand the message better.

RMUT 17: When I have to deal with a very difficult word, I avoid using it by using another word that has a similar or opposite meaning to the intended word instead.

RMUT 19: I try to explain by using another word that has similar meaning as the word I have said but the interlocutor cannot get it right.

RMUT 23: I try to think of a word that has as similar meaning as it of the intended word if I cannot make clear to the interlocutor.

- **CSCM15: Making up a new word in order to communicate a desired concept (word-coinage)** (Adopted from Dörnyei and Scott, 1997)
- **CSCM16: Translating literally from Thai into English** (Adopted from Dörnyei and Scott, 1997)

4.4.2 Discontinuous Interaction Strategies for Conveying a Message to the Interlocutor (DSCM)

The communication strategies under this main category are also the strategies that students reported employing to deal with communication breakdown. In using the strategies in this category, the student was likely to discontinue the interaction with the interlocutor for a while in order to seek a way to convey the intended message to the interlocutor. Eventually, he/she could successfully get the message across to the interlocutor. The seven individual strategies reported being employed by the interviewees under this main category include:

- DSCM1:** Keeping quiet while thinking about how to get a message across to the interlocutor
- DSCM2:** Speaking more slowly to gain time to think
- DSCM3:** Talking about something else to gain time to think
- DSCM4:** Appealing for assistance from other people around
- DSCM5:** Making a phone call to another person for assistance
- DSCM6:** Referring to a dictionary, a book, or another type of document
- DSCM7:** Thinking in Thai before speaking

- **DSCM1: Keeping quiet while thinking about how to get a message across to the interlocutor**

Some students reported that very often when interacting with foreign teachers or foreigners, it is not easy for them to express themselves. Keeping quiet for a while thinking about the meaningful message to get across to the interlocutor was reported by students to help them convey the intended message successfully though there was a short breakdown or a pause:

RMUT 10: ...I often keep quiet thinking what I want to say, and then slowly speak it out.

RMUT 22: In case I do not feel confident to express myself, I keep quiet for a second thinking about a message, and then confidently speak it out.

RMUT 32: I might keep quiet for a while in order to calm down and think about a message...

- **DSCM2: Speaking more slowly to gain time to think**

Some student reported that they may speak more slowly in order to gain time to think of the message to convey to the interlocutor:

RMUT 22: When I have to express myself in a very long sentence, I often slow down in order to gain time to think of what I am going to say.

RMUT 48: I take a deep breath, make myself clam down, and then slowly express myself in order to gain time to think of a message.

- **DSCM3: Talking about something else to gain time to think**

A few students also reported that talking about something else to gain time to think of the meaningful message may enable them to get the intended message across to the interlocutor though there was a short breakdown or a pause:

RMUT 19: While thinking, I sometimes talk to the interlocutor again what I have already said or talk about something else until I can think of what I want to say.

RMUT 26: I might talk about something else, and at the same time I think of an intended word. When I can recall it, I switch back to the original topic.

- **DSCM4: Appealing for assistance from other people around**

By asking for help from their friends or people around, some students reported that they may be able to get the intended message across to the interlocutor:

RMUT 5: My aunt's husband is from Netherlands, and he speaks Dutch. When we interact with each other, we always use English. Whenever I faced some problems in expressing myself, I often asked my aunt to help me explain him the message.

RMUT 11: At the university, my friends and I are always being together. If I have any problems in expressing myself in English, they will help me convey the message to the interlocutor...

RMUT 40: When I worked as an apprentice at Central Plaza in Bangkok, I had lots of opportunities to talk with foreign customers. When I could not convey the meaning, my senior staff often helped me talk to the customers.

- **DSCM5: Making a phone call to another person for assistance**

Mobile phone has become very popular among people especially teenagers recently. A few students reported that making a phone call to their friends or another person to get some help from them may be helpful to convey the message to the interlocutor successfully though a short breakdown or a pause occurred:

RMUT 33: When I cannot convey the intended meaning to the interlocutor, I used to make a phone call to my friend asking him/her to tell me the words that I want to say.

- **DSCM6: Referring to a dictionary, a book, or another type of document**

Apart from making a phone call for getting help from other people, some students reported that referring to any types of document such as a dictionary and a book may also enable them to convey the meaningful message to the interlocutor:

RMUT 5: I sometimes consult a dictionary either Thai-English or English-English dictionary to find the intend word, along with a little explanation. My uncle-in-law could understand the message easier.

RMUT 9: I could not recall a word that I wanted to say. Luckily, I had a Thai-English dictionary. So, I looked for the word in the dictionary and showed it to the interlocutor.

RMUT 33: I usually take an English pocket book with me, and I always make use of it looking for words that I want to say to the interlocutor...

RMUT 43: I always have a talking dictionary with me, and I often search words in it while communicating with the interlocutor.

RMUT 48: While explaining a message to my language teacher, I sometimes consult an online dictionary searching for a word that I want to convey.

- **DSCM7: Thinking in Thai before speaking**

It was reported that thinking in Thai before speaking was one of strategies employed by some students to get the intended message across to the interlocutor:

RMUT 2: No, I cannot immediately express myself in English. I have to think in Thai first in order to make it clear of what I want to say. Then I will translate it into English and speak it out.

RMUT 24: I always think in Thai first. Then translate it into English and try to put the words in a correct order before saying it out.

4.4.3 Strategies for Understanding the Message (SUM)

The communication strategies under this main category are strategies reported being employed in an attempt to understand the interlocutor's message. These strategies could be employed either while the message was being transmitted or after the message had already been transmitted. Twelve individual strategies were reported being employed to achieve this purpose. They include:

- SUM1:** Trying to catch the interlocutor's main point
SUM2: Noticing the interlocutor's gestures and facial expression
SUM3: Asking the interlocutor for a repetition
SUM4: Asking the interlocutor to slow down
SUM5: Appealing for assistance from other people around to clarify the interlocutor's message
SUM6: Asking the interlocutor to simplify the language
SUM7: Making clear to the interlocutor when one cannot perfectly catch the message
SUM8: Paying attention to the first part of the sentence
SUM9: Paying attention to the interlocutor's intonation
SUM10: Asking the interlocutor to give an example
SUM11: Repeating what the interlocutor has said softly and trying to translate into Thai
SUM12: Guessing the meaning of what the interlocutor has said

- **SUM1: Trying to catch the interlocutor's main point**

Some students reported that trying to catch the interlocutor's main point is one way to help them understand the message:

RMUT 19: ...I cannot catch every word that the interlocutor has said but I try to catch his/her main point and think how to respond to the message...

RMUT 20: ...I have to try to catch the main idea of the message in order that I can respond to it correctly.

RMUT 37: I try to catch the main idea of the message. If the interlocutor speaks slowly, it is not so difficult to understand what he/she wants to talk to me.

- **SUM2: Noticing the interlocutor's gestures and facial expression**

Besides catching the interlocutor's main point, noticing the interlocutor's gestures and facial expression was also reported to be helpful for a few students in understanding the message:

RMUT 39: I try to think along and notice his/her gesture while the interlocutor is speaking.

- **SUM3: Asking the interlocutor for a repetition**

Some students reported that asking the interlocutor to repeat what he/she has said is another way to help understand the message:

RMUT 1: When I met a foreign friend, I often greeted him/her. If sometimes I could not catch what he/she said to respond to my greeting, I said "Can you repeat that please?"...

RMUT 3: My problem is that I am not familiar with English language accent as well as the interlocutor speaks very fast which leads to my inability to catch the message. So, I often ask him/her to say the message again for a better understanding.

RMUT 22: If the interlocutor uses easy words, I actually can understand it. But if he/she says something that is very difficult to understand, I have to ask him/her to repeat it.

RMUT 34: Because of various accents of English speakers, I often ask the interlocutor to repeat what he/she has said for a clearer understanding.

RMUT 42: If the interlocutor asks me a question using difficult words, I ask him/her to say it again. Sometimes he/she tries to use Thai with me this time.

- **SUM4: Asking the interlocutor to slow down**

Asking the interlocutor to speak more slowly was also reported to be used by a few students as a way of understanding the message:

RMUT 12: My English is limited, so it is very difficult for me to catch what the interlocutor said. I often ask him/her to say the message again and speak more slowly.

RMUT 27: ...or I would ask the interlocutor to slow down. Then, I can follow him/her better.

- **SUM5: Appealing for assistance from other people around to clarify the interlocutor's message**

Some students reported that they ask for help from people around to clarify the interlocutor's message to understand the message:

RMUT 4: ... I often ask my friend who comes along with me to help clarify the message. When I understand the message better, I give a response to the interlocutor by myself.

RMUT 27: For some words that I cannot understand, I would ask my friends to explain or clarify the meaning of those words before I respond to the interlocutor.

RMUT 29: I might ask my friend to translate the interlocutor's message into Thai for me for a better understanding before going on talking to the interlocutor...

- **SUM6: Asking the interlocutor to simplify the language**

In order to understand the message, some students also reported that they may ask the interlocutor to use easier words, phrases, or sentences:

RMUT 11: When I do not understand the message, I ask the interlocutor to use another word that is easier to understand...

RMUT 18: If the interlocutor uses words that I have never heard before, I often ask him/her to use another word instead in case I can understand the message better.

RMUT 46: I could not catch my teacher's question, so I asked him to simplify it unless there was no response from me.

- **SUM7: Making clear to the interlocutor when one cannot perfectly catch the message** (Adopted from Nakatani, 2006)

- **SUM8: Paying attention to the first part of the sentence** (Adopted from Nakatani, 2006)

- **SUM9: Paying attention to the interlocutor's intonation** (Adopted from Nakatani, 2006)

- **SUM10: Asking the interlocutor to give an example** (Adopted from Nakatani, 2006)
- **SUM11: Repeating what the interlocutor has said softly and trying to translate into Thai** (Adopted from Nakatani, 2006)
- **SUM12: Guessing the meaning of what the interlocutor has said** (Adopted from Nakatani, 2006)

4.4.4 Strategies for Maintaining the Conversation (SMC)

The communication strategies under this main category are strategies reported being employed by the students to keep the conversation going or to maintain the conversation. Nine strategies under this main category were reported being employed.

They include:

- SMC1:** Feeling all right about one's wrong pronunciation
- SMC2:** Trying to enjoy the conversation
- SMC3:** Feeling all right for taking risks while speaking
- SMC4:** Paying little attention to grammar and structure
- SMC5:** Feeling all right if the conversation does not go smoothly by keeping speaking
- SMC6:** Preparing the message by trying to anticipate what the interlocutor is going to say based on the context
- SMC7:** Speaking slowly to keep the conversation going smoothly
- SMC8:** Responding to the interlocutor despite an imperfect understanding of the message
- SMC9:** Trying to relax when one feels anxious

- **SMC1: Feeling all right about one's wrong pronunciation**

Trying to feel all right about making wrong pronunciation was reported to be one of the strategies employed by some students to keep the conversation going:

RMUT 1: I usually have a problem with word stress, especially with a long word. But if I pronounce the word incorrectly while communicating, I go on speaking...

RMUT 18: Even though I know that I pronounced the word wrongly, I do not stop speaking. I know that my teacher will correct it for me later.

RMUT 20: I am not concerned much of making wrong pronunciation. It is just all right if I can express myself.

- **SMC2: Trying to enjoy the conversation**

Some students also reported that trying to enjoy the conversation is another way to help them maintain the conversation:

RMUT 7: When communicating in English, I try to be in a good mood in order that the interlocutor feels interested in my conversation...

RMUT 25: When I converse with foreigners, I talk to them without stress. I make myself easy although I get struck while speaking...

RMUT 33: ...I try to use simply words and keep smiling during a conversation.

RMUT 36: Before the conversation, I always smile and greet the interlocutor with a very friendly expression...

- **SMC3: Feeling all right for taking risks while speaking**

Apart from trying to enjoy the conversation, some students reported that trying to feel all right for taking risks while speaking may help them to cope with the communication breakdown:

RMUT 10: ... My language teachers have always taught me to dare to speak English, and do not be afraid of using English even inaccurately use. This makes me feel confident when communicating in English.

RMUT 18: I have taken seven courses of English for communication for two years, so I think I do not have to be shy and feel fear to communicate with foreigners. Just do my best.

RMUT 26: Whether the word I use is right or wrong, I speak it out...

RMUT 33: I am not afraid of interacting with foreigners. I never walk away from them. I know that if I make mistakes, the interlocutor will correct them for me.

RMUT 42: When I can recall the word, I say it out immediately. If it is not correct, it is okay for me. I think I have to be brave to communicate with foreigners...

- **SMC4: Paying little attention to grammar and structure**

Some students reported that paying little attention to grammar and structure may also help them to keep the conversation going:

RMUT 5: I think it is impossible to always use English grammatically correct. Though I speak English in a wrong grammar, the interlocutor often understands what I want to say.

RMUT 10: Frankly speaking, when I use English to communicate, I often use it ungrammatically. For example, I used to say "She face so beautiful." to compliment one girl who was quite good-looking and my interlocutor undoubtedly understood it.

RMUT 14: I normally think fast, and I often just speak out what I can think of without seriously concerning about grammatical correctness.

RMUT 18: ...I often speak English ungrammatically, sometimes without a subject of the sentence, but the interlocutor can understand the message.

RMUT 31: I don't pay much attention to grammar or structure of English. I think if I can convey the meaning to the interlocutor, it is okay.

- **SMC5: Feeling all right if the conversation does not go smoothly by keeping speaking**

Some students reported that they try to feel all right though the conversation does not go smoothly by keeping speaking to avoid the communication breakdown:

RMUT 14: ...I am not worried if the conversation does not flow. I just keep speaking what I can think of.

RMUT 16: I speak out what I can think of. I just want to communicate and I am not worried if I can speak English smoothly or not.

RMUT 32: It is all right to go on speaking even though you get stuck. This will promote your confidence leading to be more proficient in using English to communicate.

- **SMC6: Preparing the message by trying to anticipate what the interlocutor is going to say based on the context**

Preparing the message by trying to anticipate what the interlocutor is going to say based on the context was reported to be able to help them to keep the conversation going:

RMUT 20: In order to avoid getting stuck while speaking, I often think in advance what the interlocutor is going to ask me, and I would prepare the answer for the pending question.

RMUT 22: While listening to the interlocutor, I often think along and quickly prepare what to respond.

RMUT 24: I have to think the whole process like if I say this message, what message he/she is going to respond to me, and what I would say to respond to it. I often think these kinds of things in advance.

RMUT 45: In a formal communication, I often guess a question that the interlocutor is likely to ask me and I prepare the answer in advance. I think this technique is quite useful.

- **SMC7: Speaking slowly to keep the conversation going smoothly**

Speaking slowly to keep the conversation going smoothly was also reported to be used by some students as a way of maintaining the conversation:

RMUT 9: In order to make the conversation go smoothly, I would stop myself from being excited. I would try to clam down and think of words or expressions that I want to say and slowly speak them out. I think if the message is successfully conveyed to the interlocutor, slowly speaking is all right.

RMUT 30: I always speak slowly and clearly since it makes me feel more relax, and the conversation flows as well.

RMUT 48: I always take a deep breath, and slowly say a message. I think it works.

- **SMC8: Responding to the interlocutor despite an imperfect understanding of the message**

A few students reported that responding to the interlocutor although they do not understand the message perfectly may enable them to keep the conversation going:

RMUT 48: When I communicate with the interlocutor, I often cannot catch his/her message. I do not know what to do because I have asked him/her to repeat the message many times. So I decide to respond to him/her in what I understand.

- **SMC9: Trying to relax when one feels anxious** (Adopted from Nakatani, 2006)

In summary, the communication strategies inventory (CSI) for the present investigation was generated based on the data obtained through the oral semi-structured interview carried out with 48 students majoring in EIC who were studying in three different institutions of RMUTs. Emerged from the interview data were thirty-five individual communication strategies and they were then classified into four main categories. The classification system was based on the working definition of communication strategy for the present investigation which involved certain purposes of CS use. These include strategies 1) for conveying a message to the interlocutor, 2) for understanding the message, and 3) for maintaining the conversation. Nine existing CSs were adopted in order to make the proposed CSI more comprehensive. This CSI was subsequently used to generate the communication strategy questionnaire which was used as the main instrument for the second phase of data collection eliciting information about the frequency of CS use from a larger number of RMUT students majoring in EIC. The following section is the detailed discussion of the communication strategy questionnaire for the present investigation as well as its validation and reliability.

4.5 The Communication Strategy Questionnaire (CSQ)

When the CSI was completely developed, it was used to generate the communication strategy questionnaire (CSQ) which was used as the main instrument in the second phase of data collection. The CSQ was administered to a larger group of RMUT students majoring in EIC to elicit information about their CS use. Since the CSQ was used for collecting data from Thai students, it was first translated from English into Thai in order to avoid the misunderstanding by the research subjects as to the questions. Moreover, the Thai version helped maximise ease of administration and ensured greater accuracy of results, especially with the lower-ability students (Green and Oxford, 1995). (see the English version of CSQ in Appendix 7)

As mentioned earlier, the CSQ for the present investigation was developed and generated to elicit information about use of communication strategies by RMUT students. The questionnaire comprised two main parts: 1) the student personal background information and 2) the students' frequency of communication strategy use. The former involved student's gender, level of study, institution, exposure to oral communication in English, and personal perception of his/her ability in English speaking skill. It was necessary to determine the student personal background in the questionnaire since it involved the main variables being investigated in the present study. While the latter included three main sections asking if the students employed CSs to achieve a particular goal in their oral communication in English. If their answer was 'yes', they then were asked to indicate the appropriate frequency of their CS use: 'never', 'sometimes', 'often', 'almost or almost always'. At the end of each section, there was an open-ended choice in the form of 'others (please specify)' for students to add more CSs employed to deal with the communication breakdown that

were not included in the CSQ. This form of questionnaire was designed to serve the purpose of the present investigation that is to reveal the frequency of the EIC students' self-reported CS use. Each student was given freedom to express their own judgment on the frequency of CS use to achieve a particular goal in their oral communication in English (Intaraprasert, 2000).

Before the actual use of the CSQ in the second phase of data collection, the researcher tried to make the questionnaire valid and reliable. In doing so, apart from getting the questionnaire checked by the researcher's supervisor, five Thai native speakers who are university teachers of English were asked to check the questionnaire for both content validity and wording. Denscombe (2003) points out that it is necessary to get the wording of the questions right and straightforward. The CSQ was proved for validity through the Item-Objective Congruence (IOC) system. It was submitted to the five experts to see whether they agreed with the proposed questionnaire in terms of the congruence between the objective and items in the questionnaire. They were also asked to see if the CS items were problematic and what suggestions they made for the improvement or refinement of the CS items and the questionnaire. The result of the CSQ validation showed that the CSQ was acceptably valid for the content validity and wording. What follows is a summary of the result of the content validity.

Table 4.2 A Summary of the Content Validity of CSQ

Statement	Experts' Opinions on the CSQ					Total	IOC value	Judgment
	Exp1	Exp2	Exp3	Exp4	Exp5			
Section 1 (Item 1-23)	1.0	1.0	1.0	.92	1.0	4.92	.98	✓
Section 2 (Item 1-12)	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	5	1.00	✓
Section 3 (Item 1-9)	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	5	1.00	✓

Note: 1) "Exp." Stands for 'an expert'

2) "1.0" means 'valid', "0" means 'not sure', "-1.0" means 'not at all valid'

3) "✓" means 'acceptable'

4) "IOC" criterion is more than 80 per cent

Table 4.2 is a summary of the result of the content validity of the CSQ for the present investigation. The result based on the IOC values revealed that the CSQ was acceptable as valid in content in all three main sections. Regarding the wording aspect, some words were found problematic and needed refining. Then, they were refined following the suggestions of the experts such as changing places of words within a sentence for a clearer understanding accordingly.

Regarding the reliability of the CSQ for the present investigation, the questionnaire was piloted with altogether 55 RMUT students majoring in EIC, and then Cronbach's alpha or alpha coefficient (α) was used to estimate the internal consistency of the CSQ. Santos (1999) mentions that one of the most popular reliability statistics in use today is Cronbach's alpha which is used to determine the internal consistency or average correlation of items in a survey instrument to gauge its reliability. Table 4.3 below shows the reliability estimate.

Table 4.3 Reliability Estimate of the Communication Strategy Questionnaire as a whole and the Three Main Sections

communication strategy category	CS Questionnaire as a Whole (44 Items)	Section 1 (23 Items)	Section 2 (12 Items)	Section 3 (9 Items)
Reliability estimate alpha coefficient (α)	.92	.81	.87	.78

Table 4.3 shows that the reliability estimates of the CSQ for the present investigation (.92) are in a high degree of consistency when compared with the acceptable reliability coefficient of .70 (Nunnally, 1978). Oxford and Burry-Stock (1995) reported the reliability coefficients of different SILL (Strategy Inventory for Language Learning) versions as a whole ranging from .85 to .95. This can be concluded that the reliability estimates of the CSQ for the present investigation were acceptable.

Figure 4.4 shows a sample of the questionnaire used as the main instrument for the second phase of data collection in order to elicit information about the students' frequency of CS use.

Table 4.4 A Sample of the Communication Strategy Questionnaire

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 solve the problems?

Communication Strategy	Frequency of Your Own Communication Strategy Use			
	Always/ Almost always	Often	Sometimes	Never/ Almost never
1. Switching some unknown words or phrases into Thai	✓			

4.6 Summary

The communication strategy questionnaire (CSQ) for the present investigation was developed and generated from the CSI resulted from the student oral interview data. The CSI comprises four main categories through the classification system based on the working definition of communication strategy for the present investigation. The four main categories include 1) continuous interaction strategies for conveying a message to the interlocutor (CSCM); 2) discontinuous interaction strategies for conveying a message to the interlocutor (DSCM); 3) strategies for understanding the message (SUM); and 4) strategies for maintaining the conversation (SMC). Nine existing CSs were adopted in order to make the present CSI more comprehensive. However, the proposed CSI may be considered to be representative of the CSs employed by RMUT students majoring in EIC.

The CSI was subsequently used to generate the CSQ which was used as the main instrument for the second phase of data collection to elicit information about the frequency of CS use from a larger number of RMUT students majoring in EIC. Before administering the CSQ in the actual phase of data collection, it was proved for the validity through IOC system and reliability through Cronbach's alpha or alpha coefficient (α). The Thai CSQ was administered to the students in order to obtain students' frequency of CS use. The next chapter will deal exclusively with details of data analysis.



CHAPTER 5

DATA ANALYSIS FOR COMMUNICATION

STRATEGY USE (I)

5.1 Introduction and Purpose of the Chapter

The main purpose of this chapter is to present and describe the research findings of the present study at different levels of data analysis: overall use of communication strategies, use of communication strategies in the four main categories, and use of individual communication strategies. The holistic mean scores of frequency of communication strategy use reported by 811 Rajamangala University of Technology (RMUT) students majoring in English for International Communication (EIC) obtained through the communication strategy questionnaire are determined in this chapter.

In the present investigation ‘communication strategies’ have been specifically defined as a systematic attempt made by students to cope with oral communication problems both to convey a message to the interlocutor and to understand the message due to their inadequate linguistic or sociocultural knowledge. These communication strategies may be also employed in order to maintain their conversation. Communication strategies may occur in either pseudo communication or real-life communication both inside and outside language classroom settings.

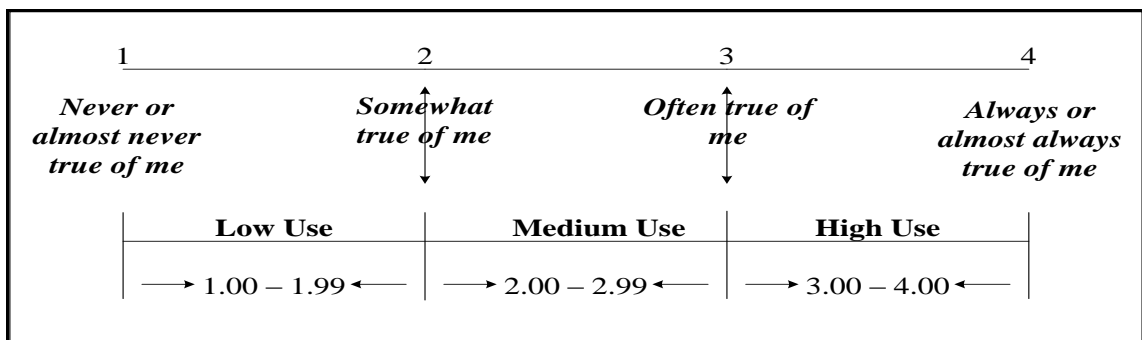
As mentioned in the related literature review in Chapter 2, certain variables have been hypothesized to have a relation to the use of communication strategies of

language learners. According to Ellis (1994), these variables may be classified as ‘learner individual differences’ and ‘teaching and learning conditions’. Examples of the former involve age, level of language proficiency, level of oral proficiency, and L1 and L2 of learners. The latter includes CS instruction or training, language studies, types of task, time difference, fields of study, and types of school. In the field of CS, Bialystok (1983), Paribakht (1985), Huang & Van Naerssen (1987), Si-Qing (1990), Dörnyei (1995), Flyman (1997), Kazuo & Akira (2004), and Nakatani (2006) are examples of researchers who studied the relationship of CS use to these variables. In addition, among these variables, language proficiency level has received more attention from the researchers than other variables. However, it is difficult for the researcher to study all of the variables mentioned above. Meanwhile, little attention has been paid to variables of the present study. Therefore, the relationship between students’ use of CSs and gender of students, exposure to oral communication in English, locations of institution, and levels of study is the focal point in the present investigation.

In this chapter, the frequency of overall use of CSs reported by 811 RMUT students majoring in EIC will be explored. Then, the frequency of CS use of the students in the four main categories: 1) continuous interaction strategies for conveying a message to the interlocutor (CSCM); 2) discontinuous interaction strategies for conveying a message to the interlocutor (DSCM); 3) strategies for understanding the message (SUM); and 4) strategies for maintaining the conversation (SMC) will be examined. Finally, we will further explore the frequency of students’ reported use of the forty-four individual CSs (CSCM1– CSCM16, DSCM1 – DSCM7, SUM1 – SUM12, and SMC1 – SMC9).

5.2 Communication Strategy Use Reported by 811 Rajamangala University of Technology Students Majoring in English for International Communication

In this section, the simple statistical methods are applied in order to analyze the data obtained from 811 RMUT students majoring in EIC through the communication strategy questionnaire. The mean frequency scores of students' reported CS use 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 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' valued as 1, 'Somewhat true of me' valued as 2, 'Often true of me' valued as 3, '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 minimum and 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 determined as 'low use', from 2.00 to 2.99 as 'medium use', and from 3.00 to 4.00 as 'high use'. Figure 5.1 below is the applied measure.



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

Figure 5.1 The Measure of High, Medium, and Low Frequency of CS Use

5.2.1 Frequency of Students' Overall Strategy Use

The result of the holistic mean frequency score across the communication strategy questionnaire responded to by 811 RMUT students majoring in EIC are illustrated in Table 5.1 below.

Table 5.1 Frequency of Students' Overall Communication Strategy Use

Students' Reported Overall Strategy Use	Number of Students	Mean Frequency Score (\bar{x})	Standard Deviation (S.D)	Frequency Category
Overall Strategy Use	811	2.68	.29	Medium use

As shown in Table 5.1, the mean frequency score of students' reported overall communication strategy use is 2.68. This indicates that these 811 RMUT students majoring in EIC, as a whole, reported employing CSs at the medium frequency level when they had to deal with difficulty in their oral communication problems. CSs which fall into the 'high use' and 'low use' categories will be identified and discussed later in this chapter.

5.2.2 Frequency of Students' Communication Strategy Use in CSCM, DSCM, SUM, and SMC Categories

As mentioned in Chapter 4, the CSs for the present investigation have been classified under four main categories according to the purpose of strategy use. Table 5.2 presents the mean frequency score of reported CS use in the four categories together with the standard deviation and the frequency category.

Table 5.2 Frequency of Students' Communication Strategy Use in CSCM, DSCM, SUM, and SMC Categories (n = 811)

Strategy Category	Mean Frequency Score (\bar{x})	Standard Deviation (S.D)	Frequency Category
CSCM Category	2.59	.35	Medium use
DSCM Category	2.54	.41	Medium use
SUM Category	2.84	.40	Medium use
SMC Category	2.74	.42	Medium use

Table 5.2 above demonstrates that RMUT students majoring in EIC who have involved in the present study reported employing CSs at the medium frequency level in all four main categories. Considering the mean frequency scores of the four categories, we found that the most frequent use of students' reported CSs are in the SUM category, followed by the SMC, CSCM, and the DSCM categories respectively. These mean scores illustrate that, among the four CS categories, RMUT students majoring in EIC reported employing CSs for understanding the message slightly more frequently than those for the other purposes.

The frequency of individual CS use in each category will be explored in the next section. This can help us to explore in detail which individual CSs have been reported being employed more frequently than the others.

5.2.3 Frequency of Individual Communication Strategy Use

The frequency of CS use presented in Table 5.2 demonstrates an overall picture of CS use of RMUT students majoring in EIC in the four main categories. This section provides more information on students' reported CS use in a more detailed manner. That is, the frequency of reported CS use will be presented and described in an individual strategy use layer.

The frequency of individual strategy use, together with the standard deviation as well as the frequency category, are presented in Tables 5.3, 5.4, 5.5, and 5.6 respectively according to the four main categories of CSs for the present study. To be specific, Table 5.3 presents the frequency of the 16 individual CS use for the CSCM category in which individual CSs are referred to as CSCM1-CSCM16. This is followed by Table 5.4 demonstrating 7 individual CSs for the DSCM category in which individual CSs are referred to as DSCM1- DSCM7. Then, the frequency of 12 individual CS use for the SUM category in which individual CSs are referred to as SUM1- SUM12 are presented in Table 5.5. Lastly, the frequency of 9 individual CS use for the SMC category in which individual CSs are referred to as SMC1- SMC9 are presented by Table 5.6.

In order to make it easier to see the whole picture of students' reported frequency of each individual CS use, these strategies are presented in order of their mean frequency scores, ranging from the highest to the lowest. This may help us to see a clearer picture of the strategies which have been reported most and least frequently. The higher mean frequency score of a strategy use implies that students claimed to employ that strategy more frequently.

5.2.3.1 Frequency of Individual Strategy Use of Continuous

Interaction Strategies for Conveying a Message to the Interlocutor (CSCM)

Table 5.3 shows the frequency of individual CS use in the CSCM category which contains altogether 16 individual items reported being employed by the research subjects for conveying a message to the interlocutor without an intermission or a pause.

Table 5.3 Frequency of Individual Strategy Use of Continuous Interaction Strategies for Conveying a Message to the Interlocutor (n = 811)

Individual Continuous Interaction Strategies for Conveying a Message to the Interlocutor	Mean	S.D	Frequency Category
CSCM3: Using familiar words, phrases, or sentences	3.45	.68	High use
CSCM5: Using non-verbal expressions such as mime, gestures, and facial expressions	3.23	.80	High use
CSCM12: Making use of expressions which have been previously learnt	3.16	.67	High use
CSCM13: Making use of expressions found in some sources of media (e.g. movies, songs, or T.V.)	2.92	.78	Medium use
CSCM10: Using fillers	2.86	.81	Medium use
CSCM4: Using circumlocution	2.73	.83	Medium use
CSCM2: Correcting one's own pronunciation, grammar and lexical mistakes	2.61	.72	Medium use
CSCM6: Referring to objects or materials	2.61	.88	Medium use
CSCM11: Appealing for assistance from the interlocutor	2.54	.77	Medium use
CSCM1: Switching some unknown words or phrases into Thai	2.46	.76	Medium use
CSCM8: Repeating words, phrases, or sentences a few times	2.41	.92	Medium use
CSCM16: Translating literally from Thai into English	2.34	.79	Medium use
CSCM9: Spelling or writing out the intended words, phrases, or sentences	2.32	.92	Medium use
CSCM14: Using synonym or antonym	2.31	.87	Medium use
CSCM7: Drawing a picture	1.88	.81	Low use
CSCM15: Making up a new word in order to communicate a desired concept (word-coinage)	1.67	.81	Low use

Table 5.3 shows, based on the mean frequency scores, that the students reported employing three CSs at the high frequency level, whereas only two strategies were reportedly employed at the low frequency of strategy use. More than half of the CSs (eleven) in this category were reported being employed at the medium frequency level. These strategies were reported for conveying a message to the interlocutor successfully without an intermission or a pause in their interaction.

When taking a closer look at the students' three reported CSs at the high frequency of strategy use, we could see that the strategy reported most frequent is *'using easy or familiar words, phrases, or sentences'*. This is followed by *'using meaningful non-verbal language to convey the meaning'*, and *'making use of expressions which have been previously learnt'* respectively. Considering the first two strategies, it is noticeable that the students tended to use the target language in a simple way in order to get the message across to the interlocutor successfully without an intermission or a pause in their interaction.

In respect of the reported CS use of students at the medium frequency level, *'making use of expressions found in some movies, songs, or T.V.'* was reported more frequently than the others. Meanwhile *'using synonym or antonym'* was reportedly employed less frequently than the others. The students also reported various types of CSs at medium use. Examples are: *'using fillers'*, *'using circumlocution or describing the properties or characteristics of the target word'*, *'correcting their own mistakes (i.e. pronunciation, grammar and lexical mistakes)'*, *'repeating an expression a few times'*, *'translating literally from Thai into English'*, and *'spelling or writing out the intended words'*.

Regarding the CSs reported at the low frequency of use, *'drawing a picture'*; and *'creating a non-existing L2 word'* were reported to help convey the intended meaning to the interlocutor without a short breakdown or a pause in their interaction.

5.2.3.2 Frequency of Individual Strategy Use of Discontinuous

Interaction Strategies for Conveying a Message to the Interlocutor (DSCM)

Table 5.4 demonstrates the frequency of individual CS use in the DSCM category. There are altogether 7 individual CSs reported by the research

subjects for conveying a message to the interlocutor with an intermission or a pause in the interaction.

Table 5.4 Frequency of Individual Strategy Use of Discontinuous Interaction

Strategies for Conveying a Message to the Interlocutor (n = 811)

Individual Discontinuous Interaction Strategies for Conveying a Message to the Interlocutor	Mean	S.D	Frequency Category
DSCM7: Thinking in Thai before speaking	3.23	.75	High use
DSCM2: Speaking more slowly to gain time to think	2.92	.65	Medium use
DSCM1: Keeping quiet while thinking about how to get a message across to the interlocutor	2.83	.71	Medium use
DSCM6: Referring to a dictionary, a book, or another type of document	2.66	.90	Medium use
DSCM4: Appealing for assistance from other people around	2.65	.76	Medium use
DSCM3: Talking about something else to gain time to think	1.97	.77	Low use
DSCM5: Making a phone call to another person for assistance	1.55	.68	Low use

The frequency of 7 individual CS use under the DSCM category shown in Table 5.4 reveals that only one CS was reported at the high frequency of use, while more than half of the CSs (four) were reported being employed at the medium and two CSs at the low frequency of use.

The only CS reported at the high frequency of strategy use is *'thinking in Thai before speaking'*. The students wanted to make clear of what they were about to speak before expressing themselves.

Regarding the four CSs reported at the medium frequency of use, the students reported *'speaking more slowly'*, *'keeping quiet for a while thinking about the meaningful message to get across to the interlocutor'*, *'consulting a dictionary, a book or another type of document'*, and *'appealing for assistance from other people around'*. The first two strategies were reportedly employed in order to gain time to think about the message being conveyed to the interlocutor. However, all the four

strategies were reported to try to convey the intended message to the interlocutor though there was a short break or a pause in the interaction.

In respect of the low frequency of strategy use, the students mentioned two strategies: *'talking about something else to gain time to think'*, and *'making a phone call to another person for assistance'*. The second strategy was reportedly employed the least frequent in this category.

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

Table 5.5 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 5.5 Frequency of Individual Strategy Use for Understanding the Message

(n = 811)

Individual Communication Strategies for Understanding the Message	Mean	S.D	Frequency Category
SUM1: Trying to catch the interlocutor's main point	3.39	.59	High use
SUM2: Noticing the interlocutor's gestures and facial expression	3.34	.65	High use
SUM3: Asking the interlocutor for a repetition	3.04	.75	High use
SUM4: Asking the interlocutor to slow down	3.00	.75	High use
SUM12: Guessing the meaning of what the interlocutor has said	2.95	.72	Medium use
SUM10: Asking the interlocutor to give an example	2.72	.80	Medium use
SUM8: Paying attention to the first part of the sentence	2.67	.76	Medium use
SUM6: Asking the interlocutor to simplify the language	2.67	.86	Medium use
SUM7: Making clear to the interlocutor when one cannot perfectly catch the message	2.65	.68	Medium use
SUM9: Paying attention to the interlocutor's intonation	2.63	.84	Medium use
SUM5: Appealing for assistance from other people around to clarify the interlocutor's message	2.58	.79	Medium use
SUM11: Repeating what the interlocutor has said softly and trying to translate into Thai	2.45	.81	Medium use

Table 5.5 illustrates that there are 12 individual CSs under this category being reportedly employed by the research subjects of the present study. The students' reported strategies in this category mainly focus on trying to understand the message of the interlocutor. In respect of the frequency of reported CS use of students, it appears that the students reported employing four CSs at the high frequency level, and eight CSs at the medium frequency level. None of CSs in this category were reported being employed at the low frequency level. No reported CS use at the low frequency level may mean that understanding the message is likely to be one of students' serious problems. So, they had to utilize a wide range of CSs frequently to solve such problems.

Regarding the four strategies reported at the high frequency of strategy use, *'trying to catch the interlocutor's main point'* was reported more frequently than the others. This is followed by *'noticing the interlocutor's gestures and facial expression'*, *'asking the interlocutor for a repetition'*, and *'asking the interlocutor to slow down'*. When considering these strategies, we can see that the first two strategies were reported to help understand the message of the interlocutor while the interlocutor was speaking and the other two strategies were reported to help understand the message of the interlocutor during the interaction.

In terms of the eight reported strategies of students at the medium frequency of use, two of them were reportedly employed for helping to understand the message of the interlocutor while the interlocutor was speaking. These strategies are *'paying attention to the first part of the sentence'*, and *'paying attention to the interlocutor's intonation'*. The other six strategies were also reported for helping with the problems in understanding the message of the interlocutor during the interaction. Examples are:

'guessing the meaning of what the interlocutor has said', 'asking the interlocutor to give an example', 'appealing for assistance from other people around to clarify the interlocutor's message', and 'repeating what the interlocutor has said softly and trying to translate into Thai'.

5.2.3.4 Frequency of Individual Strategy Use for Maintaining the Conversation (SMC)

Table 5.6 presents the frequency of 9 individual CS use in the SMC category reported by the research subjects for maintaining the conversation or keeping the conversation between the students and the interlocutors going.

Table 5.6 Frequency of Individual Strategy Use for Maintaining the Conversation

(n = 811)

Individual Communication Strategies for Maintaining the Conversation	Mean	S.D	Frequency Category
SMC2: Trying to enjoy the conversation	3.12	.68	High use
SMC9: Trying to relax when one feels anxious	2.91	.76	Medium use
SMC3: Feeling all right for taking risks while speaking	2.91	.77	Medium use
SMC7: Speaking slowly to keep the conversation going smoothly	2.90	.66	Medium use
SMC4: Paying little attention to grammar and structure	2.82	.79	Medium use
SMC5: Feeling all right if the conversation does not go smoothly by keeping speaking	2.62	.80	Medium use
SMC6: Preparing the message by trying to anticipate what the interlocutor is going to say based on the context	2.62	.82	Medium use
SMC8: Responding to the interlocutor despite an imperfect understanding of the message	2.51	.74	Medium use
SMC1: Feeling all right about one's wrong pronunciation	2.29	.81	Medium use

Table 5.7 demonstrates the frequency of use of the 9 reported CSs. These strategies were reported in order to maintain the conversation or to keep the conversation going. The mean frequency scores reveal that one strategy was reported at the high frequency level, and eight strategies at the medium frequency level. Like the frequency of individual strategy use in the SUM category, none of CSs in this category were reported

at the low frequency of strategy use. This may also mean that, in order to keep the conversation going, students do their best by frequently resorting to various CSs.

Through a closer look at the students' one CS reported at the high frequency level, we can see that it is a strategy concerning students' stress management for maintaining the conversation, i.e. *'trying to enjoy the conversation'*.

Regarding the eight CSs reported at the medium frequency of use, the students reported *'trying to relax when one feels anxious'*, *'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'*, and *'feeling all right about one's wrong pronunciation'* to manage their stress in order to keep the conversation going. The students also employed *'speaking slowly to keep the conversation going smoothly'*, *'preparing the message by trying to anticipate what the interlocutor is going to say'* and *'responding to the interlocutor despite an imperfect understanding of the message'* to help maintain the conversation.

5.3 Summary

This chapter demonstrates the frequency of communication strategy use at different layers reported by 811 RMUT students majoring in EIC. The frequency of CS use, considering the mean frequency scores, was described in three main levels: 1) an overall picture of strategy use; 2) CS use in four main categories: CSCM, DSCM, SUM, and SMC; and 3) CS use in 44 individual items. A summary of the highlighting findings of the present study is shown below.

1. Regarding the overall communication strategy use, 811 RMUT students majoring in EIC reported employing CSs with medium frequency.

2. The particular purposes of employing CSs by these students are 1) to convey a message to the interlocutor without an intermission or a pause in the interaction (CSCM), 2) to convey a message to the interlocutor with an intermission or a pause in the interaction (DSCM), 3) to understand the message (SUM), and 4) to maintain the conversation (SMC).

3. In terms of frequency of CS use in the CSCM, DSCM, SUM, and SMC categories, the students reported employing strategies at the medium frequency level of CS use in each of the four categories.

4. The highest frequency of 44 individual CS use in all four categories reported by the students was CSCM3 - Using familiar words, phrases, or sentences. Whilst DSCM5 - Making a phone call to another person for assistance was reported being employed the least frequent.

5. In terms of using CSs for understanding the message (SUM) and CSs for maintaining the conversation (SMC), the students reported not employing any CSs at a low frequency level. It implies that students relied more on CSs when they had to deal with both message understanding and conversation maintaining.

In this chapter, the frequency level of CS use that RMUT students majoring in EIC reported employing has been described and discussed. The chapter has presented the frequency level of overall strategy use, the frequency level of strategy use in four main categories, and a detailed analysis of the frequency level of the individual strategy in each category shown in the mean frequency scores ranging from the highest to the lowest. The next chapter will present data analysis for communication strategy use in relation to the four independent variables.

CHAPTER 6

DATA ANALYSIS FOR COMMUNICATION

STRATEGY USE (II)

6.1 Introduction and Purpose of the Chapter

As presented in Chapter 5, the students' reported communication strategy use has been divided into three different levels: overall use of communication strategies, use of communication strategies under the four main categories, and use of 44 individual communication strategies under the four purposes. This chapter 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, namely:

1. Gender of students (male and female);
2. Exposure to oral communication in English (limited to classroom instructions

only and non-limited to classroom instructions);

3. Levels of study (beginner, intermediate, and advanced); and
4. Locations of institutions (tourist destinations for foreigners and non-tourist destinations for foreigners).

The result of the data analysis regarding variations in frequency of students' 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 four main categories: 1) continuous interaction strategies for conveying a message to

the interlocutor (CSCM); 2) discontinuous interaction strategies for conveying a message to the interlocutor (DSCM); 3) strategies for understanding the message (SUM); and 4) strategies for maintaining the conversation (SMC). Finally, an examination of variations in frequency of 44 individual CS use related to the four 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 6.1 illustrates an overall picture of the three main levels of data analyses for students' reported CS use in this chapter.

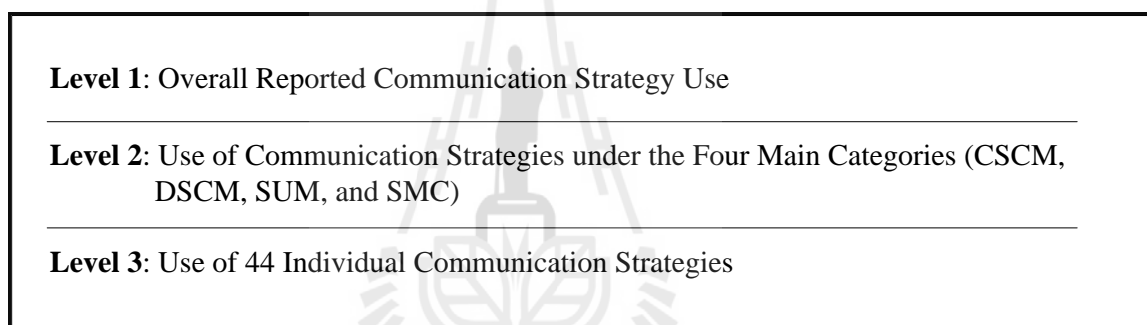


Figure 6.1 Different Levels of Communication Strategy Use

6.2 Variation in Frequency of Students' Overall Reported

Communication Strategy Use

This section examines variation in frequency of students' reported CS use as a whole based on the analysis of variance (ANOVA). This statistical method demonstrates significant variations according to the four variables: gender of students, exposure to oral communication in English, levels of study, and locations of institutions. The results of the first level from the ANOVA are summarized in Table 6.1. This table contains the independent variables hypothesized to influence students'

CS use, followed by mean frequency score of strategy use, standard deviation (S.D), level of significance, and pattern of variation in frequency of students' CS use if a significant variation exists.

Table 6.1 A Summary of Variation in Frequency of Students' Overall Reported CS Use

Gender	Male (n=94)		Female (n=717)		Comments			
	Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D	Sig.	Pattern of Variation		
Overall CS Use	2.61	.28	2.69	.29	p< .05	Female>Male		
Exposure to Oral Communication	Limited to Classroom Instructions only (n=336)		Non-limited to Classroom Instructions (n=475)		Comments			
	Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D	Sig.	Pattern of Variation		
Overall CS Use	2.66	.30	2.70	.28	p< .05	Non-limited>Limited		
Levels of Study	Beginner (n=237)		Intermediate (n=406)		Advanced (n=168)		Comments	
	Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D	Sig.	Pattern of Variation
Overall CS Use	2.71	.28	2.67	.29	2.67	.28	N.S	-
Locations of Institutions	Tourist Destinations for Foreigners (n=458)		Non-tourist Destinations for Foreigners (n=353)		Comments			
	Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D	Sig.	Pattern of Variation		
Overall CS Use	2.68	.28	2.69	.29	N.S	-		

As can be seen in Table 6.1, the ANOVA results reveal that the frequency of students' CS use as a whole varied significantly according to their gender and exposure to oral communication in English ($p < .05$).

With regard to the students' gender, the results from ANOVA show significant differences between male and female students. The mean frequency scores of female and male students were 2.69 and 2.61 respectively. This means that female students reported employing CSs significantly more frequently than did male students in order to handle oral communication problems.

In terms of the students' exposure to oral communication in English, the ANOVA results shows significant differences between students with non-limited exposure to oral communication in English to classroom instructions and those with limited exposure to oral communication in English to classroom instructions only. The mean frequency scores were 2.70 and 2.66 respectively. It is evident that students with non-limited exposure to oral communication in English to classroom instructions generally reported employing CSs significantly more frequently than did those with limited exposure.

Table 6.1 also illustrates that there was no significant variation in frequency of students' overall reported CS use according to their levels of study and locations of institutions. What follow are the results from ANOVA for students' reported CS use under the four main categories.

6.3 Variation in Frequency of Students' Use of Communication

Strategies under the Four Main Categories

As mentioned in Chapter 4, the communication strategies for the present study have been classified into four main categories. These include 1) continuous interaction strategies for conveying a message to the interlocutor (CSCM); 2) discontinuous interaction strategies for conveying a message to the interlocutor (DSCM); 3) strategies for understanding the message (SUM); and 4) strategies for maintaining the conversation (SMC). The results from ANOVA show significant variations in frequency of students' reported CS use under the four main categories according to gender, exposure to oral communication in English, and levels of study. However, no significant variations in frequency of CS use of students in all the four

categories according to the locations of institution have been found. Tables 6.2 - 6.5 show the ANOVA results and the variations in frequency of students' use of CSs under the four main categories according to each of the four variables.

6.3.1 Variation in Frequency of Students' Communication Strategy Use under the Four Main Categories According to Gender of Students

Table 6.2 below demonstrates variations in frequency of reported CS use of students under the four main categories according to their gender based on the ANOVA results.

Table 6.2 Variation in Frequency of Students' Use of CSs under the Four Main Categories According to Gender of Students

Strategy Category	Male (n = 94)		Female (n = 717)		Sig.	Comments Pattern of Variation
	Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D		
1) CSCM Category	2.50	.37	2.61	.35	p< .01	Female>Male
2) DSCM Category	2.43	.44	2.56	.41	p< .01	Female>Male
3) SUM Category	2.73	.36	2.86	.40	p< .01	Female>Male
4) SMC Category	2.81	.44	2.73	.42	N.S.	-

The results of ANOVA in Table 6.2 show that significant variations were found in the frequency of students' use of reported CSs to convey a message to the interlocutor without an intermission or a pause in the interaction (CSCM), to convey a message to the interlocutor with an intermission or a pause in the interaction (DSCM), and to understand the message (SUM) according to gender of students. Female students reported employing CSs significantly more frequently than did male students. However, no significant differences were found in the use of CSs to maintain the conversation (SMC) according to gender of students. Although the

students' use of CSs in the SMC category did not vary significantly according to gender of students, the mean frequency scores of this category indicate that male students appeared to report slightly greater use of CSs in the category than did female students. The mean frequency scores of the SMC category were 2.81 and 2.73 respectively, all of which are considered 'medium' frequency of CS use.

6.3.2 Variation in Frequency of Students' Communication Strategy Use under the Four Main Categories According to Exposure to Oral Communication in English

The ANOVA results presented in Table 6.3 below shows variations in frequency of reported CS use of students under the four main categories according to their exposure to oral communication in English.

Table 6.3 Variation in Frequency of Students' Use of CSs under the Four Main Categories According to Exposure to Oral Communication in English

Strategy Category	Limited to Classroom Instructions only (n = 336)		Non-limited to Classroom Instructions (n = 475)		Sig.	Comments
	Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D		
1) CSCM Category	2.55	.35	2.63	.35	p< .01	Non-limited>Limited
2) DSCM Category	2.59	.41	2.51	.41	p< .01	Limited>Non-limited
3) SUM Category	2.86	.41	2.83	.39	N.S.	-
4) SMC Category	2.65	.42	2.81	.42	p< .001	Non-limited>Limited

The ANOVA results shown in Table 6.3 reveal that significant variations were found in the frequency of students' CS use to convey a message to the interlocutor without an intermission or a pause in the interaction (CSCM), to convey a message to the interlocutor with an intermission or a pause in the interaction (DSCM), and to

maintain the conversation (SMC) according to students' exposure to oral communication in English.

Regarding the significant differences in the frequency of CS use under the CSCM and SMC categories, students with non-limited exposure to oral communication in English to classroom instructions reported employing CSs significantly more frequently than did those with limited exposure to oral communication in English to classroom instructions only. Meanwhile, under the DSCM category, students with limited exposure to oral communication in English to classroom instructions only reported employing CSs significantly more frequently than did those with non-limited exposure. However, no significant differences were found in the use of CSs to understand the message (SUM) according to this variable. Although the use of CSs under the SUM category did not vary significantly according to students' exposure to oral communication in English, the mean frequency scores of this category indicate that students with limited exposure to oral communication in English to classroom instructions only appeared to report slightly greater use of CSs under the SUM category than did those with non-limited English exposure. The mean frequency scores for the SUM category were 2.86 and 2.83 respectively, all of which are considered 'medium' frequency of CS use.

6.3.3 Variation in Frequency of Students' Communication Strategy Use under the Four Main Categories According to Levels of Study

Table 6.4 demonstrates variations in frequency of reported CS use of students under the four main categories according to their levels of study.

Table 6.4 Variation in Frequency of Students' Use of CSs under the Four Main Categories According to Levels of Study

Strategy Category	Beginner (n = 237)		Intermediate (n = 406)		Advanced (n = 167)		Sig.	Comments Pattern of Variation
	Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D		
1) CSCM Category	2.60	.35	2.58	.36	2.62	.36	N.S.	-
2) DSCM Category	2.59	.41	2.54	.40	2.48	.43	p<.05	Beginner>Advanced
3) SUM Category	2.88	.39	2.85	.41	2.77	.37	p<.05	Beginner>Advanced
4) SMC Category	2.76	.43	2.72	.43	2.77	.40	N.S.	-

As demonstrated in Table 6.4, based on the ANOVA results, significant variations were found in the frequency of students' use of CSs to convey a message to the interlocutor with an intermission or a pause in the interaction (DSCM), and to understand the message (SUM) according to students' levels of study, with beginner level students reported employing CSs significantly more frequently than did advanced level students. However, no significant variations were found in the use of CSs of students to convey a message to the interlocutor without an intermission or a pause in the interaction (CSCM), and to maintain the conversation (SMC) according to students' levels of study. The mean frequency scores of these categories are considered 'medium' frequency of CS use.

6.3.4 Variation in Frequency of Students' Communication Strategy Use under the Four Main Categories According to Locations of Institutions

Table 6.5 shows variations in frequency of reported CS use of students under the four main categories according to the locations of institutions.

Table 6.5 Variation in Frequency of Students' Use of CSs under the Four Main Categories According to Locations of Institutions

Strategy Category	Tourist Destinations for Foreigners (n = 458)		Non-tourist Destinations for Foreigners (n = 353)		Sig.	Comments Pattern of Variation
	Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D		
1) CSCM Category	2.60	.36	2.59	.35	N.S.	-
2) DSCM Category	2.53	.42	2.56	.39	N.S.	-
3) SUM Category	2.82	.40	2.87	.40	N.S.	-
4) SMC Category	2.74	.43	2.75	.41	N.S.	-

As can be seen in Table 6.5, 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, students who have been studying at the RMUT campuses located whether in the areas of tourist destinations for foreigners or non-tourist destinations for foreigners did not report employing CSs for any purposes of the four main categories significantly differently. All of the mean frequency scores of students' use of CSs are considered in the 'medium' frequency of CS use.

The ANOVA results show no significant differences in either frequency of students' overall CS use, or frequency of CS use under the four main categories according to the locations of institutions. As will be reported later in this chapter, however, significant differences in use of individual CS were found to be related to this variable.

Table 6.6 Summary of Significant Variations in Frequency of Students' Use of CSs under the Four Main Categories: CSCM, DSCM, SUM, and SMC According to the Four Independent Variables

Strategy Category	Gender	Exposure to Oral Communication in English	Levels of Study	Locations of Institutions
1) CSCM Category	YES	YES	N.S	N.S
2) DSCM Category	YES	YES	YES	N.S
3) SUM Category	YES	N.S	YES	N.S
4) SMC Category	N.S	YES	N.S	N.S

Note: 'YES' means a significant variation exists whereas 'N.S.' means not significant

To sum up, when taking a look at variations based on the results of ANOVA shown in Table 6.6, we can see a clearer picture of students' use of CSs in this level. That is, the frequency of students' reported CS use in CSCM category varied significantly according to their gender and exposure to oral communication in English; DSCM varied significantly according to their gender, exposure to oral communication in English, and levels of study; SUM varied significantly according to gender and levels of study; and SMC varied significantly according only to exposure to oral communication in English. However, no significant variations in frequency of students' CS use in all the four main categories according to their locations of institutions were found.

6.4 Variation of Individual Communication Strategy Use

Sections 6.2 and 6.3 discussed significant variations, based on the results of ANOVA, in frequency of students' reported CS use across the entire survey including an overall use of strategies and use of CSs to achieve purposes of the four main categories in association with the four independent variables. In this section, the results of the Chi-square tests used to determine patterns of the significant variations in students' reported CS use at the individual strategy item level are demonstrated. The purpose of using the Chi-square tests was 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 (χ^2) value were employed in order 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' reporting high use (3 and 4 in the CS questionnaire), ranking from highest to lowest. This leads to easier understanding a picture of the CSs which were reported being frequently used, analyzed in terms of each of the four variables.

What follow are patterns of significant variations in frequency of students' reported use of individual CS items according to the four variables, including a brief discussion of each of the four variables.

6.4.1 Variation in Students' Reported Use of Individual Communication Strategies According to Gender of Students

As presented in Sections 6.2 and 6.3, variations in frequency of students' overall reported CS use, and use of CSs under the CSCM, DSCM, and SUM categories varied significantly 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 6.7 reveal significant variations in use of fourteen out of forty-four individual CSs by this variable.

Table 6.7 Variation in Students' Reported Use of Individual CSs According to Gender of Students

Individual Communication Strategy	% of high use (3 and 4)		Observed χ^2
	Male	Female	
Used more by female students- 12 strategies			
DSCM7: Thinking in Thai before speaking to convey the message to the interlocutor	74.5	84.0	$\chi^2=5.27^*$
CSCM5: Using non-verbal expressions such as mime, gestures, and facial expressions to convey the message to the interlocutor	68.1	83.8	$\chi^2=13.94^{***}$
DSCM2: Speaking more slowly to gain time to think to convey the message to the interlocutor	69.1	79.6	$\chi^2=5.40^*$
SUM4: Asking the interlocutor to slow down to understand the message	61.7	76.2	$\chi^2=9.13^{**}$
SUM3: Asking the interlocutor for a repetition to understand the message	62.8	75.3	$\chi^2=6.78^{**}$
SUM10: Asking the interlocutor to give an example to understand the message	48.9	60.9	$\chi^2=4.98^*$
DSCM4: Appealing for assistance from other people around to convey the message to the interlocutor	45.7	57.5	$\chi^2=4.63^*$
DSCM6: Referring to a dictionary, a book, or another type of document to convey the message to the interlocutor	39.4	56.1	$\chi^2=9.34^{**}$
SUM9: Paying attention to the interlocutor's intonation to understand the message	41.5	54.7	$\chi^2=5.80^*$
CSCM6: Referring to objects or materials to convey the message to the interlocutor	28.7	53.6	$\chi^2=20.50^{***}$
CSCM1: Switching some unknown words or phrases into Thai to convey the message to the interlocutor	28.7	47.1	$\chi^2=11.39^{***}$
CSCM16: Translating literally from Thai into English to convey the message to the interlocutor	29.8	41.1	$\chi^2=4.47^*$
Used more by male students- 2 strategies			
SMC5: Feeling all right if the conversation does not go smoothly by keeping speaking to maintain the conversation	70.2	51.3	$\chi^2=11.92^{***}$
SMC1: Feeling all right about one's wrong pronunciation to maintain the conversation	46.8	32.4	$\chi^2=7.73^{**}$

Note: * $p<.05$, ** $p<.01$, *** $p<.001$

The Chi-square test results shown in Table 6.7 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 12 CSs for handling their oral communication problems. 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 without an intermission or a pause in the interaction. Examples are *'switching some unknown words or phrases into Thai'* (CSCM1), and *'translating literally from Thai into English'* (CSCM16). Furthermore, a significantly higher percentage of female than male students also reported employing strategies to convey a message to the interlocutor though the interaction was not continuous such as *'speaking more slowly to gain time to think'* (DSCM2), *'appealing for assistance from other people around'* (DSCM4), and *'thinking in Thai before speaking'* (DSCM7). Regarding the strategies for understanding the message, they include *'asking the interlocutor for a repetition'* (SUM3), *'asking the interlocutor to slow down'* (SUM4), and *'paying attention to the interlocutor's intonation'* (SUM9).

Meanwhile, a significantly greater percentage of male than female students reported employing high use of CSs mainly to maintain the conversation, which are *'feeling all right about one's wrong pronunciation'* (SMC1) and *'feeling all right if the conversation does not go smoothly by keeping speaking'* (SMC5). This can imply that more male students are keen on managing their stress or anxiety while communicating in English in order to keep the conversation going than their female counterparts.

6.4.2 Variation in Students' Reported Use of Individual Communication

Strategies According to Their Exposure to Oral Communication in English

The Chi-square test results demonstrate that seventeen out of forty-four 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 exposure to oral communication in English. Table 6.8 below shows the variations in students' individual CS use according to their exposure to oral communication in English.

Table 6.8 Variation in Students' Reported Use of Individual CSs According to Their Exposure to Oral Communication in English

Individual Communication Strategy	% of high use (3 and 4)		Observed χ^2
	Used more by students whose exposure to English is NOT limited to classroom instructions- 9 strategies	Limited to Classroom	
CSCM12: Making use of expressions which have been previously learnt to convey the message to the interlocutor	87.6	81.5	$\chi^2=5.64^*$
SMC2: Trying to enjoy the conversation to maintain the conversation	78.0	86.3	$\chi^2=9.64^{**}$
CSCM5: Using non-verbal expressions such as mime, gestures, and facial expressions to convey the message to the interlocutor	77.7	85.1	$\chi^2=7.25^{**}$
SMC3: Feeling all right for taking risks while speaking to maintain the conversation	56.0	76.2	$\chi^2=37.00^{***}$
CSCM13: Making use of expressions found in some sources of media (e.g. movies, songs, or T.V.) to convey the message to the interlocutor	64.0	73.9	$\chi^2=9.16^{**}$
CSCM4: Using circumlocution to convey the message to the interlocutor	54.8	63.4	$\chi^2=6.06^*$
SMC5: Feeling all right if the conversation does not go smoothly by keeping speaking to maintain the conversation	43.8	60.4	$\chi^2=21.99^{***}$
CSCM2: Correcting one's own pronunciation, grammar and lexical mistakes to convey the message to the interlocutor	47.0	59.8	$\chi^2=12.93^{***}$
SMC8: Responding to the interlocutor despite an imperfect understanding of the message to maintain the conversation	43.2	51.2	$\chi^2=5.05^*$

Table 6.8 Variation in Students' Reported Use of Individual CSs According to Their Exposure to Oral Communication in English (Cont.)

Individual Communication Strategy	% of high use (3 and 4)		Observed χ^2
	Limited to Classroom	Non-limited to Classroom	
Used more by students whose exposure to English is limited to classroom instructions only- 8 strategies			
DSCM7: Thinking in Thai before speaking to convey the message to the interlocutor	86.6	80.2	$\chi^2=5.67^*$
DSCM1: Keeping quiet while thinking about how to get a message across to the interlocutor	73.2	66.5	$\chi^2=4.14^*$
DSCM4: Appealing for assistance from other people around to convey the message to the interlocutor	61.6	52.2	$\chi^2=7.06^{**}$
DSCM6: Referring to a dictionary, a book, or another type of document to convey the message to the interlocutor	58.6	50.9	$\chi^2=4.68^*$
SUM5: Appealing for assistance from other people around to clarify the interlocutor's message to understand the message	56.5	45.9	$\chi^2=8.93^{**}$
SUM11: Repeating what the interlocutor has said softly and trying to translate into Thai to understand the message	51.5	43.2	$\chi^2=5.49^*$
CSCM1: Switching some unknown words or phrases into Thai to convey the message to the interlocutor	50.3	41.3	$\chi^2=6.49^*$
CSCM16: Translating literally from Thai into English to convey the message to the interlocutor	44.3	36.6	$\chi^2=4.89^*$

Note: * $p<.05$, ** $p<.01$, *** $p<.001$

The results from the Chi-square tests shown in Table 6.8 reveal the significant variations in students' use of individual CSs related to their exposure to oral communication in English. A significantly higher percentage of students with non-limited exposure to oral communication in English to classroom instructions than those with limited exposure reported high use of 9 CSs whereas a significantly greater percentage of students with limited exposure to oral communication in English to classroom instructions only than those with non-limited exposure reported high use of 8 CSs. A closer look at the findings reveals that, of the 17 CSs with significant differences related to this variable, 13 CSs were reported with high frequency use by more than 50 per cent of students in either group.

A significantly greater percentage of students with non-limited exposure to oral communication in English to classroom instructions reported employing high use of CSs to convey a message to the interlocutor without an intermission or a pause in the interaction than those with limited exposure. Examples are: *'correcting one's own pronunciation, grammar and lexical mistakes'* (CSCM2), *'using circumlocution'* (CSCM4), *'making use of expressions which have been previously learnt'* (CSCM12), and *'making use of expressions found in some sources of media e.g. movies, songs, or T.V.'* (CSCM13). A significantly higher percentage of students with non-limited exposure to oral communication in English to classroom instructions than those with limited exposure also reported employing CSs to maintain the conversation or to keep their conversation flowing. Examples are: *'feeling all right for taking risks while speaking'* (SMC3), *'feeling all right if the conversation does not go smoothly by keeping speaking'* (SMC5), and *'responding to the interlocutor despite an imperfect understanding of the message'* (SMC8).

The other variation patterns in students' individual CS use with high frequency level demonstrates that a significantly greater percentage students with limited exposure reported employing CSs to convey a message to the interlocutor without an intermission or a pause in the interaction than those with non-limited exposure. These reported strategies are *'switching some unknown words or phrases into Thai'* (CSCM1), and *'translating literally from Thai into English'* (CSCM16). The students with limited exposure also reported employing CSs to get the message across to the interlocutor though the interaction was not continuous than those with non-limited exposure. Examples are: *'keeping quiet while thinking about how to get a message across to the interlocutor'* (DSCM1), *'referring to a dictionary, a book, or*

another type of document (DSCM6), and *'thinking in Thai before speaking'* (DSCM7). In addition, such strategies as *'appealing for assistance from other people around to clarify the interlocutor's message'* (SUM5), and *'repeating what the interlocutor has said softly and trying to translate into Thai'* (SUM11) were reported to understand the message by a significantly greater percentage of students with limited exposure.

6.4.3 Variation in Students' Reported Use of Individual Communication Strategies According to Levels of Study

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 ten out of forty-four CSs varied significantly according to this variable. Patterns of variation of students' use of individual strategies in the present study were considered as positive (used more by more advanced students), negative (used more by less advanced students), or mixed. Of the ten strategies with significant differences in terms of the levels of study, 6 strategies are classified as negative; 2 as positive; and 2 as mixed. To give a clearer picture of these patterns of variation, examples of stacked bar graphs showing the classification by stair-step patterns are subsequently presented. Table 6.9 demonstrates the variations in the use of students' individual CSs according to their levels of study.

Table 6.9 Variation in Students' Reported Use of Individual CSs According to Their Levels of Study

Individual Communication Strategy	% of high use (3 and 4)			Observed χ^2
	Beginner	Inter-mediate	Advanced	
Negative: Used more by beginner>intermediate>advanced students-6 strategies				
SUM12: Guessing the meaning of what the interlocutor has said to understand the message	79.7	75.1	61.3	$\chi^2=18.16^{***}$
SUM3: Asking the interlocutor for a repetition to understand the message	78.9	73.4	67.9	$\chi^2=6.30^*$
DSCM1: Keeping quiet while thinking about how to get a message across to the interlocutor	73.8	70.2	60.7	$\chi^2=8.27^*$
SUM6: Appealing for assistance from other people around to clarify the interlocutor's message to understand the message	63.7	58.6	49.4	$\chi^2=8.33^*$
SUM5: Appealing for assistance from other people around to clarify the interlocutor's message to understand the message	55.7	50.7	41.7	$\chi^2=7.80^*$

Table 6.9 (Cont.) Variation in Students' Reported Use of Individual CSs According to Their Levels of Study

Individual Communication Strategy	% of high use (3 and 4)			Observed χ^2
	Beginner	Inter-mediate	Advanced	
Negative: Used more by beginner>intermediate>advanced students-6 strategies				
CSCM1: Switching some unknown words or phrases into Thai to convey the message to the interlocutor	49.8	46.3	36.5	$\chi^2=6.90^*$
Positive: Used more by advanced>intermediate>beginner students-2 strategies				
SMC3: Feeling all right for taking risks while speaking to maintain the conversation	76.2	65.8	65.4	$\chi^2=6.82^*$
CSCM4: Using circumlocution to convey the message to the interlocutor	68.5	59.4	54.4	$\chi^2=8.12^*$
Mixed: Used more by advanced>beginner>intermediate students-1 strategies				
CSCM6: Referring to objects or materials to convey the message to the interlocutor	56.0	54.4	46.3	$\chi^2=6.31^*$
Mixed: Used more by intermediate >beginner>advanced students- 1 strategies				
DSCM6: Referring to a dictionary, a book, or another type of document to convey the message to the interlocutor	58.1	52.7	46.4	$\chi^2=6.81^*$

Note: * $p<.05$, ** $p<.01$, *** $p<.001$

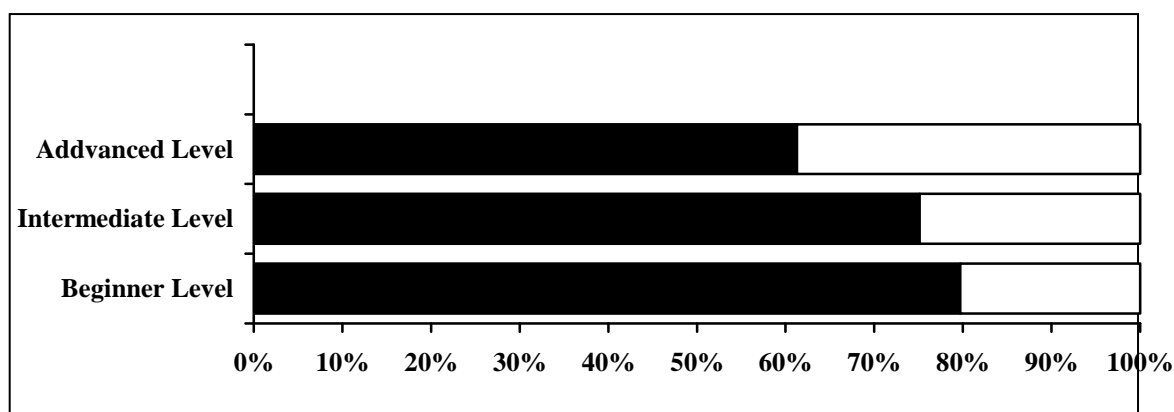
Of the 10 CSs, 9 strategies were reported with high frequency of use by more than 50 per cent of the beginner level students, 8 strategies were reported with high frequency of use by more than 50 per cent of the intermediate level students, and 6 strategies were reported with high frequency of use by more than 50 per cent of the advanced level students.

Although no significant variations in frequency of students' overall CS use and use of CSs in the CSCM and SCM categories were found according to students' levels of study, there were significant differences, based on the results of the Chi-square tests, in use of 10 individual CSs related to this variable. The Chi-square test results shown in Table 6.9 illustrate that more than half of the 10 strategies have a negative pattern of variations in students' individual CS use. This reveals that a significantly higher percentage of students at lower level of study, beginner level students, reported employing various CSs to handle communication problems than those at higher level of study (intermediate and advanced level students). These strategies include CSs for conveying a message to the interlocutor without an intermission or a pause in the interaction (CSCM), CSs for conveying the message to the interlocutor though the interaction was not continuous (DSCM), and CSs for understanding the message (SUM). Regarding the CSs for conveying a message to the interlocutor without an intermission or a pause in the interaction, students reported '*switching some unknown words or phrases into Thai*' (CSCM1). In terms of the CSs for conveying the message to the interlocutor though the interaction was not continuous, students reported '*keeping quiet while thinking about how to get a message across to the interlocutor*' (DSCM1). In respect of the CSs for understanding the message, various strategies e.g. '*asking the interlocutor for a repetition*' (SUM3),

'appealing for assistance from other people around to clarify the interlocutor's message' (SUM5), *'asking the interlocutor to simplify the language'* (SUM6), and *'guessing the meaning of what the interlocutor has said'* (SUM12) were reported.

When looking at the positive variation pattern, we found that a significantly greater percentage of the advanced level students reported two CSs than intermediate and beginner level students respectively. The advanced level students reported *'using circumlocution to convey the message to the interlocutor continuously'* (CSCM4) and *'feeling all right for taking risks while speaking to maintain the conversation'* (SMC3).

In terms of the mixed variation pattern, one of the variation patterns demonstrates that a significantly greater percentage of advanced level students than beginner and intermediate level students respectively reported *'referring to objects or materials to convey the message to the interlocutor continuously'* (CSCM6). The other mixed variation pattern reveals that a significantly greater percentage of the intermediate level students reported *'using one strategy, i.e. referring to a dictionary, a book, or another type of document to convey the message to the interlocutor though the interaction was not continuous'* (DSCM6) than the beginner and advanced students respectively. The stacked bar graph in Figure 6.2 illustrates an example of a negative variation pattern, Figure 6.3 demonstrates an example of a positive variation pattern, and Figure 6.4 shows an example of a mixed variation pattern.



	(Darker areas) 'Often' or 'Always or almost always'			(White areas) 'Never or almost never' or 'Sometimes'	
	<u>n</u>	<u>Response</u>	(%)	<u>Response</u>	(%)
Advanced Level	168	103	61.3	65	38.7
Intermediate Level	406	305	75.1	101	24.9
Beginner Level	237	189	79.7	48	20.3

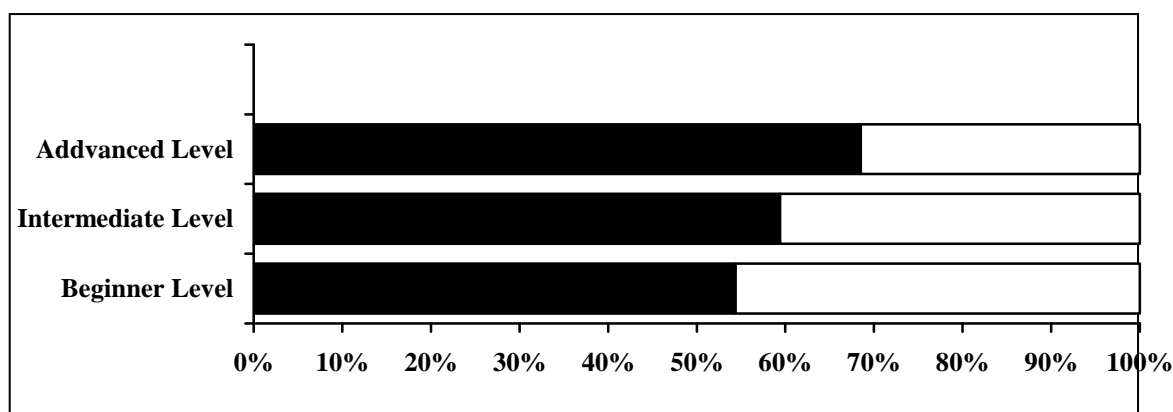
Note: $\chi^2 = 18.16$ (df = 2), $p < .001$

Figure 6.2 Example of Variation Pattern Classified as Negative

(Beginner > Intermediate > Advanced)

SUM12: Guessing the meaning of what the interlocutor has said to understand the message

Figure 6.2 shows that 79.7 per cent of beginner level students reported high frequency of use of SUM12: guessing the meaning of what the interlocutor has said to understand the message; whereas 75.1 and 61.3 per cent of intermediate and advanced level students respectively reported high frequency of use of this strategy.



	(Darker areas) 'Often' or 'Always or almost always'			(White areas) 'Never or almost never' or 'Sometimes'	
	<u>n</u>	<u>Response</u>	(%)	<u>Response</u>	(%)
Advanced Level	168	115	68.5	53	31.5
Intermediate Level	406	241	59.4	165	40.6
Beginner Level	237	129	54.4	108	45.6

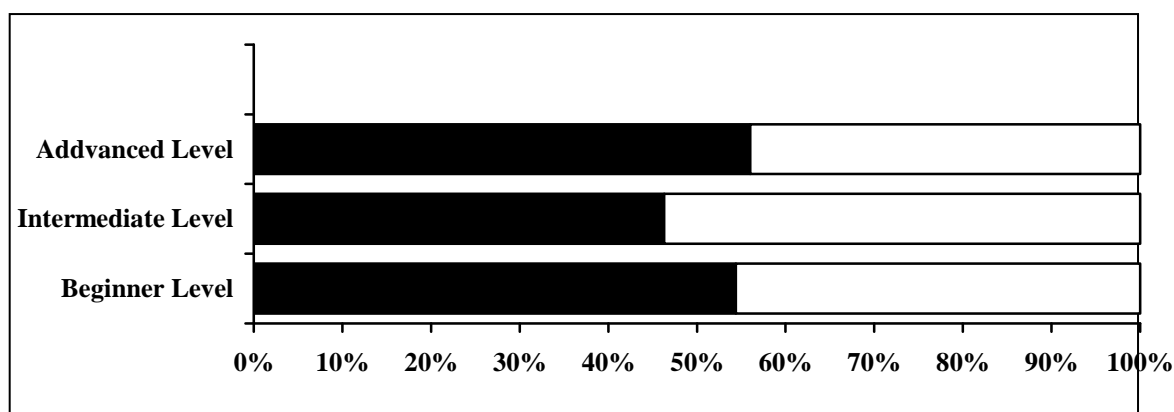
Note: $\chi^2 = 7.47$ (df = 2), $p < .05$

Figure 6.3 Example of Variation Pattern Classified as Positive

(Advanced > Intermediate > Beginner)

CSCM4: Using circumlocution to convey the message to the interlocutor continuously

Figure 6.3 shows that 68.5 per cent of advanced level students reported high frequency of use of CSCM4: using circumlocution to convey the message to the interlocutor continuously; whereas 59.4 and 54.4 per cent of intermediate and beginner level students respectively reported high frequency of use of this strategy.



	(Darker areas) 'Often' or 'Always or almost always'			(White areas) 'Never' or 'Sometimes'	
	<u>n</u>	<u>Response</u>	(%)	<u>Response</u>	(%)
Advanced Level	168	94	56.0	74	44.0
Intermediate Level	406	188	46.3	218	53.7
Beginner Level	237	129	54.4	108	45.6

Note: $\chi^2 = 6.49$ (df = 2), $p < .05$

Figure 6.4 Example of Variation Pattern Classified as Mixed

(e.g. Advanced > Beginner > Intermediate)

CSCM6: Referring to objects or materials to convey the message to the interlocutor continuously

Figure 6.4 shows that 56.0 per cent of advanced level students reported high frequency of use of CSCM6: referring to objects or materials to convey the message to the interlocutor continuously; whereas 54.4 and 46.3 per cent of beginner and intermediate level students respectively reported high frequency of use of this strategy.

6.4.4 Variation in Students' Reported Use of Individual Communication Strategies According to Locations of Institutions

As demonstrated in Sections 6.2 and 6.3, no significant variations in frequency of students' overall CS use and use of CSs in all the four categories were found according to students' locations of institutions. However, at the individual strategy level, the results of the Chi-square tests show significant variations in use of seven out of forty-four CSs by this variable. 5 strategies were reported with a high use by a significantly greater percentage of students studying at institutions located in non-tourist destinations for foreigners than those studying at institutions located in tourist destinations for foreigners, while 2 strategies were the other way round. All of the 7 CSs were reported with high frequency of CS use by more than 50 per cent of students in each group. What follow are the variations in students' individual CS use according to this variable.

Table 6.10 Variation in Students' Reported Use of Individual CSs According to Locations of Institutions

Individual Communication Strategy	% of high use (3 and 4)		Observed χ^2
	Tourist Destinations	Non-tourist Destinations	
Used more by students studying in areas of non-tourist destinations for foreigners - 5 strategies			
DSCM7: Thinking in Thai before speaking to convey the message to the interlocutor	80.6	85.8	$\chi^2=3.90^*$
SUM7: Making clear to the interlocutor when one cannot perfectly catch the message to understand the message	55.7	64.3	$\chi^2=6.16^*$
SUM6: Asking the interlocutor to simplify the language to understand the message	55.0	62.3	$\chi^2=4.37^*$
CSCM2: Correcting one's own pronunciation, grammar and lexical mistakes to convey the message to the interlocutor	50.0	60.3	$\chi^2=8.60^{**}$
SUM8: Paying attention to the first part of the sentence to understand the message	51.5	60.3	$\chi^2=6.26^*$
Used more by students studying in areas of tourist destinations for foreigners - 2 strategies			
CSCM3: Using familiar words, phrases, or sentences to convey the message to the interlocutor	94.8	89.5	$\chi^2=7.87^{**}$
CSCM13: Making use of expressions found in some sources of media (e.g. movies, songs, or T.V.) to convey the message to the interlocutor	73.1	65.4	$\chi^2=5.61^*$

Note: * $p<.05$, ** $p<.01$, *** $p<.001$

Table 6.10 shows that a significantly greater percentage of students studying at institutions in non-tourist locations than those studying at institutions in tourist locations reported employing various strategies in a high use in order to achieve different communicative purposes, namely to convey a message to the interlocutor without an intermission or a pause in the interaction, to convey the message to the interlocutor though the interaction was not continuous, and to understand the message. Regarding the CSs for conveying a message to the interlocutor without an intermission or a pause in the interaction, students reported '*correcting one's own pronunciation, grammar and lexical mistakes*' (CSCM2). In respect of the CSs for conveying the message to the interlocutor though the interaction was not continuous, students reported '*thinking in Thai before speaking*' (DSCM7). In terms of the CSs for understanding the message, various strategies were reported. These strategies include '*asking the interlocutor to simplify the language*' (SUM6), '*making clear to the interlocutor when one cannot perfectly catch the message*' (SUM7), and '*paying attention to the first part of the sentence*' (SUM8).

The results of the Chi-square tests also show that a significantly higher percentage of students studying at institutions in tourist locations reported high use of CSs of CSCM3: using familiar words, phrases, or sentences to convey the message to the interlocutor continuously and CSCM13: making use of expressions found in some sources of media e.g. movies, songs, or T.V. to convey the message to the interlocutor continuously than those studying at institutions in non-tourist locations.

6.5 Summary

This chapter has focused on the data analysis for communication strategy use with the significant variation. The variations in frequency of students' overall reported CS use, strategy use under the four main categories, and individual CS use in relation to the four independent variables: gender of students, exposure to oral communication in English, levels of study, and locations of institutions have been systematically examined. The data were collected through the communication strategy questionnaire containing a total 44 individual CSs. The analysis of variance (ANOVA) and the Chi-square (χ^2) tests were applied as the main statistical methods of data analysis for the present study.

The research findings presented in this chapter have demonstrated a number of points. Each focal point may cast new light on the use of CSs by different groups of Thai learners of English. The summary of each focal point is as follows.

1. According to the ANOVA results, significant variations in frequency of students' overall CS use were found in relation to two out of four investigated variables, namely gender of students and exposure to oral communication in English.

- 1.1 Regarding the students' gender, female students reported overall CS use significantly more frequently than did their male counterparts.

- 1.2 In respect of exposure to oral communication in English, students with non-limited exposure to oral communication in English to classroom instructions reported employing CSs significantly more frequently than did those with limited exposure.

2. Based on the results of ANOVA, significant variations in frequency of students' reported use of CSs under the four main CS categories are as follows:

2.1 The frequency of students' reported CS use in CSCM category varied significantly according to their gender and exposure to oral communication in English. In terms of gender of students, female students reported more frequent use of strategies in CSCM category than did male students. In respect of exposure to oral communication in English, students with non-limited exposure to oral communication in English to classroom instructions reported more frequent use of strategies in CSCM category than did those with limited exposure;

2.2 The frequency of students' reported CS use in DSCM varied significantly according to their gender, exposure to oral communication in English, and levels of study. In respect of gender of students, female students reported employing CSs under this category significantly more frequently than did male students. In terms of exposure to oral communication in English, students with limited exposure to oral communication in English to classroom instructions only reported employing the strategies significantly more frequently than did those with non-limited exposure. Regarding levels of study, beginner level students reported employing the strategies significantly more frequently than did advanced level students;

2.3 The frequency of students' reported CS use in SUM varied significantly according to gender and levels of study. In terms of gender of students, female students reported more frequent use of strategies in this category than did male students. In respect of levels of study, beginner level students reported more frequent use of the strategies than did advanced level students;

2.4 The frequency of students' reported CS use in SMC varied significantly according only to their exposure to oral communication in English, with students with non-limited exposure to oral communication in English to classroom

instructions reported more frequent use of strategies in this category than did those with limited exposure; and

2.5 No significant variations in frequency of students' CS use in all the four main categories according to their locations of institutions were found.

3. According to the results of the Chi-square (χ^2) tests, significant variations in students' reported high use of individual CSs were found in relation to all four independent variables:

3.1 A significantly greater percentage of female students reported employing individual CSs than their male counterparts;

3.2 A significantly higher percentage of students with non-limited exposure to oral communication in English to classroom instructions reported employing individual CSs than those with limited exposure;

3.3 A significantly higher percentage of students with lower level of study reported employing individual CSs than those with higher level of study; and

3.4 A significantly greater percentage of students studying at the institutions in non-tourist locations reported employing individual CSs than those studying at the institutions in tourist locations.

The research findings for the present study have provided the researcher with useful information in terms of CS use perspective of the research population. Chapter 7, which is the last chapter of the study, summarizes the research findings in response to the research questions proposed in Chapter 3, the discussions of the research findings, the implications, the contributions of the present study, as well as limitations of the present study and proposals for future research.

CHAPTER 7

SUMMARY, DISCUSSIONS, AND CONCLUSION

7.1 Introduction and Purpose of the Chapter

The main purpose of this chapter is to relate the principal findings of the present investigation to research questions 1-6 proposed earlier in Section 3.4 and to discuss them with reference to the relevant literature. This is followed by the implications of the research findings for the teaching and learning of English of Rajamangala University of Technology (RMUT) students majoring in English for International Communication (EIC) and the contributions of the present investigation to related areas. Finally, the limitations of the present study and proposals for future research are presented.

In Chapter 4, the researcher has described types of CSs reported by 48 RMUT students majoring in EIC through face-to-face, semi-structured interviews. As a result, an inventory of communication strategies has been generated. Chapters 5 and 6 focus on examining the frequency of CS use reported by 811 RMUT students majoring in EIC obtained through a communication strategy questionnaire, describing them at three different levels of the data analysis, namely overall use of CSs, use of CSs in the four main categories, and use of individual CSs. Chapter 5 considers the frequency of reported CS use based on the mean frequency scores whereas Chapter 6 determines significant variations in students' reported frequency of use of CSs in relation to different

independent variables which are gender of students, exposure to oral communication in English, levels of study, and locations of institutions. From the strategy questionnaire, significant findings in students' frequency of CS use are obtained. The researcher will suggest possible reasons as an explanation for certain patterns of significant variations in CS use, as well as other apparent significant differences in relation to each investigated variable in the subsequent discussion section (Section 7.3) for a better understanding of those significant variations.

7.2 Summary of Research Findings

The research findings of the present investigation on students' reported CS use providing responses to the research questions are summarized below.

7.2.1 Research Question 1: What are the communication strategies employed by RMUT students majoring in English for International Communication?

In response to Research Question 1, the data obtained through the semi-structured interviews from 48 research subjects were described. The research findings reveal that a total 35 communication strategies were reported by RMUT students majoring in EIC. These strategies were classified, according to the purpose of strategy use, into four main categories. These include Category 1: continuous interaction strategies for conveying a message to the interlocutor (CSCM), comprising 14 individual strategies; Category 2: discontinuous interaction strategies for conveying a message to the interlocutor (DSCM), comprising 7 individual strategies; Category 3: strategies for understanding the message (SUM), comprising 6 individual strategies; and Category 4: strategies for maintaining the conversation (SMC), comprising 8

individual strategies. The individual CSs under each of the four main categories are demonstrated as follows.

Category 1: Continuous Interaction Strategies for Conveying a Message to the Interlocutor (CSCM)

- CSCM1: Switching some unknown words or phrases into Thai
- CSCM2: Correcting one's own pronunciation, grammar and lexical mistakes
- CSCM3: Using familiar words, phrases, or sentences
- CSCM4: Using circumlocution
- CSCM5: Using non-verbal expressions such as mime, gestures, and facial expressions
- CSCM6: Referring to objects or materials
- CSCM7: Drawing a picture
- CSCM8: Repeating words, phrases, or sentences a few times
- CSCM9: Spelling or writing out the intended words, phrases, or sentences
- CSCM10: Using fillers
- CSCM11: Appealing for assistance from the interlocutor
- CSCM12: Making use of expressions which have been previously learnt
- CSCM13: Making use of expressions found in some sources of media (e.g. movies, songs, or T.V.)
- CSCM14: Using synonym or antonym
- CSCM15: Making up a new word in order to communicate a desired concept (word-coinage)
(Adopted from Dörnyei and Scott, 1997)
- CSCM16: Translating literally from Thai into English (Adopted from Dörnyei and Scott, 1997)

Category 2: Discontinuous Interaction Strategies for Conveying a Message to the Interlocutor (DSCM)

- DSCM1: Keeping quiet while thinking about how to get a message across to the interlocutor
- DSCM2: Speaking more slowly to gain time to think
- DSCM3: Talking about something else to gain time to think
- DSCM4: Appealing for assistance from other people around
- DSCM5: Making a phone call to another person for assistance
- DSCM6: Referring to a dictionary, a book, or another type of document
- DSCM7: Thinking in Thai before speaking

Category 3: Strategies for Understanding the Message (SUM)

- SUM1: Trying to catch the interlocutor's main point
- SUM2: Noticing the interlocutor's gestures and facial expression

SUM3: Asking the interlocutor for a repetition

SUM4: Asking the interlocutor to slow down

SUM5: Appealing for assistance from other people around to clarify the interlocutor's message

SUM6: Asking the interlocutor to simplify the language

SUM7: Making clear to the interlocutor when one cannot perfectly catch the message
(Adopted

from Nakatani, 2006)

SUM8: Paying attention to the first part of the sentence (Adopted from Nakatani, 2006)

SUM9: Paying attention to the interlocutor's intonation (Adopted from Nakatani, 2006)

SUM10: Asking the interlocutor to give an example (Adopted from Nakatani, 2006)

SUM11: Repeating what the interlocutor has said softly and trying to translate into Thai
(Adopted

from Nakatani, 2006)

SUM12: Guessing the meaning of what the interlocutor has said (Adopted from Nakatani, 2006)

Category 4: Strategies for Maintaining the Conversation (SMC)

SMC1: Feeling all right about one's wrong pronunciation

SMC2: Trying to enjoy the conversation

SMC3: Feeling all right for taking risks while speaking

SMC4: Paying little attention to grammar and structure

SMC5: Feeling all right if the conversation does not go smoothly by keeping speaking

SMC6: Preparing the message by trying to anticipate what the interlocutor is going to say
based on the context

SMC7: Speaking slowly to keep the conversation going smoothly

SMC8: Responding to the interlocutor despite an imperfect understanding of the message

SMC9: Trying to relax when one feels anxious (Adopted from Nakatani, 2006)

7.2.2 Research Question 2: How frequently are the reported

communication strategies employed by RMUT students majoring in EIC?

In response to Research Question 2, the mean frequency scores in reported CS use found from the data obtained through the communication strategy questionnaire responded to by 811 research subjects are focused in this section. The research findings

reveal that the students' reported overall CS use is of medium frequency level according to the measure described in Chapter 5 (Section 5.2). The mean frequency score was 2.68. The frequency of CS use in each of the four main categories, namely CSCM, DSCM, SUM, and SMC is at the medium frequency level. The mean frequency scores of these categories were 2.59, 2.54, 2.84, and 2.74 respectively.

Almost all of the individual CS strategies were reported with medium frequency of use. However, some individual strategies showed higher or lower frequency of use. For the CSCM Category, students reported medium frequency use of eleven individual strategies whereas three strategies were reported at high use and the other two at low use. The first three individual strategies reportedly employed with high frequency level of use were: *'using familiar words, phrases, or sentences'* (CSCM3); *'using non-verbal expressions such as mime, gestures, and facial expressions'* (CSCM5); and *'making use of expressions which have been previously learnt'* (CSCM12). The mean frequency scores of these individual CSs were 3.45, 3.23, and 3.16 respectively. Meanwhile, *'drawing a picture'* (CSCM7); and *'making up a new word in order to communicate a desired concept'* (word-coinage) (CSCM15) were reportedly employed with low frequency of use with the mean frequency scores of 1.88, and 1.67 respectively.

Based on the findings at the individual strategy level for the DSCM Category, students reported high frequency use of only one individual strategy, i.e. *'thinking in Thai before speaking'* (DSCM7). The mean frequency score was 3.23. The students reported medium frequency use of four individual strategies, and low frequency use of two individual strategies. The latter two strategies were *'talking about something*

else to gain time to think' (DSCM3) and *'making a phone call to another person for assistance'* (DSCM5), with the mean frequency scores of 1.97 and 1.55 respectively.

Regarding the SUM Category, no individual strategies were reported at low frequency of strategy use. However, students reported high frequency use of four individual strategies: *'trying to catch the interlocutor's main point'* (SUM1); *'noticing the interlocutor's gestures and facial expression'* (SUM2); *'asking the interlocutor for a repetition'* (SUM3); and *'asking the interlocutor to slow down'* (SUM4). The mean frequency scores of these individual strategies were 3.39, 3.34, 3.04, and 3.00 respectively. Besides, the eight individual strategies were found to be reportedly employed at medium frequency of CS use.

Based on the findings at the individual strategy level for the SMC Category, students reported high frequency use of one individual strategy, i.e. *'trying to enjoy the conversation'* (SMC2). The mean frequency score of this individual strategy was 3.12. The other eight individual strategies were found to be employed at medium frequency level of CS use. No individual strategy was reported at low frequency of CS use in this category.

7.2.3 Research Question 3: Does the employment of communication strategies vary significantly according to the gender of students? If it does, what are the main significant variation patterns?

In response to Research Question 3, the significant variations as well as patterns of variation have been examined. The findings at three different levels of data analysis in relation to gender of students are summarized as follows.

- **Overall Strategy Use**

Based on the results of the analysis of variance (ANOVA), the findings (Table 6.1, Chapter 6) reveal significant variations in students' reported frequency of overall CS use according to gender of students. The significant variations show that female students reported more frequent overall strategy use than did their male counterparts.

- **Use of Strategies in the CSCM, DSCM, SUM, and SMC Categories**

The results of ANOVA (Table 6.2, Chapter 6) demonstrate that there were significant variations in the frequency of students' use of reported CS in the CSCM, DSCM, and SUM categories in association with gender of students. Female students reported employing CSs significantly more frequently than did male students. However, no significant differences in the use of CSs in the SMC Category were found between female and male students.

- **Use of Individual Communication Strategies**

The results of the Chi-square (χ^2) tests (Table 6.7, Chapter 6) reveal that the use of 14 out of 44 individual CSs (31.82%) varied significantly in relation to gender of students, with two different patterns of variation: Female > Male, and Male > Female. The former indicates that a significantly higher percentage of female students reported employing 12 CSs than their male counterparts, such as *'thinking in Thai before speaking to convey the message to the interlocutor though the interaction was not continuous'* (DSCM7), *'using non-verbal expressions e.g. mime, gestures, and facial expressions to convey the message to the interlocutor without an intermission or a pause in the interaction'* (CSCM5), or *'asking the interlocutor to slow down to understand the message'* (SUM4). Meanwhile, the latter demonstrates that a significantly greater percentage of male students reported employing 2 strategies than did their female counterparts. The strategies include *'feeling all right if*

the conversation does not go smoothly by keeping speaking to maintain the conversation (SMC5), and *'feeling all right about making wrong pronunciation to maintain the conversation'* (SMC1).

7.2.4 Research Question 4: Does the employment of communication strategies vary significantly according to the exposure to oral communication in English? If it does, what are the main significant variation patterns?

The findings at three different levels of data analysis according to the exposure to oral communication in English are briefly presented as follows.

- **Overall Strategy Use**

The results of the ANOVA reveal significant variations in students' reported frequency of overall CS use related to students' exposure to oral communication in English. The significant variations show that students with non-limited exposure to oral communication in English to classroom instructions generally reported more frequent overall use of CSs than did those with limited exposure.

- **Use of Strategies in the CSCM, DSCM, SUM, and SMC Categories**

The results of ANOVA (Table 6.3, Chapter 6) show significant variations in the frequency of students' use of reported CS in the CSCM, DSCM, and SMC categories in association with students' exposure to oral communication in English. Students with non-limited exposure to oral communication in English to classroom instructions reported more frequent use of CSs in CSCM, and SMC categories than did those with limited exposure. Meanwhile, CSs in the DSCM category were reportedly employed more frequently by students with limited exposure. However, no significant differences in the use of CSs in the SUM Category were found according to this variable.

- **Use of Individual Communication Strategies**

The results of the Chi-square (χ^2) tests (Table 6.8, Chapter 6) reveal that the use of 17 out of 44 individual CSs (38.64%) varied significantly according to students' exposure to oral communication in English, with two different patterns of variation: Non-limited to Classroom > Limited to Classroom, and Limited to Classroom > Non-limited to Classroom. The former illustrates that a significantly higher percentage of students with non-limited exposure to oral communication in English to classroom instructions reported employing 9 strategies than those with limited exposure. Examples of these strategies are: *'making use of expressions which have been previously learnt to convey the message to the interlocutor without an intermission or a pause in the interaction'* (CSCM2); *'trying to enjoy the conversation to maintain the conversation'* (SMC2); and *'responding to the interlocutor despite an imperfect understanding of the message to maintain the conversation'* (SMC8). The latter shows that a significantly higher percentage of students with limited exposure to oral communication in English to classroom instructions only reported employing 8 strategies than those with non-limited exposure. These strategies include *'thinking in Thai before speaking to convey the message to the interlocutor though the interaction was not continuous'* (DSCM7); *'appealing for assistance from other people around to convey the message to the interlocutor though the interaction was not continuous'* (DSCM4); *'appealing for assistance from other people around to clarify the interlocutor's message to understand the message'* (SUM5); and *'switching some unknown words or phrases into Thai to convey the message to the interlocutor without an intermission or a pause in the interaction'* (CSCM1).

7.2.5 Research Question 5: Does the employment of communication strategies vary significantly according to the levels of study? If it does, what are the main significant variation patterns?

The findings at three different levels of data analysis according to the levels of study are summarized below.

- **Overall Strategy Use**

Based on the results of the ANOVA, no significant variations in students' reported frequency of overall CS use were found in association with students' levels of study. In other words, students whether they were studying at the beginner, intermediate, or advanced level did not report employing strategies, as a whole, differently.

- **Use of Strategies in the CSCM, DSCM, SUM, and SMC Categories**

The results of ANOVA (Table 6.4, Chapter 6) show that significant variations in the frequency of students' reported strategy use in the DSCM and SUM categories were found according to students' levels of study. The results of the post hoc Scheffé test indicate that the beginner level students reported significantly more frequent use of strategies to get the message across to the interlocutor though the interaction was not continuous (DSCM), and to understand the message (SUM) than did advanced level students. However, no significant variations were found in students' reported frequency strategy use in CSCM, and SMC categories in association with this variable.

- **Use of Individual Communication Strategies**

The results of the Chi-square (χ^2) tests (Table 6.9, Chapter 6) reveal that the use of 10 out of 44 individual CSs (22.73%) varied significantly according to

students' levels of study, with four different patterns of variation: Beginner > Intermediate > Advanced (negative); Advanced > Intermediate > Beginner (positive); Advanced > Beginner > Intermediate (mixed); and Intermediate > Beginner > Advanced (mixed).

The first variation pattern illustrates that a significantly higher percentage of beginner level students reported employing 6 individual strategies than intermediate and advanced level students, such as *'guessing the meaning of what the interlocutor has said to understand the message'* (SUM12); *'asking the interlocutor for a repetition to understand the message'* (SUM3); *'keeping quiet while thinking about how to get a message across to the interlocutor'* (DSCM1); and *'switching some unknown words or phrases into Thai to convey the message to the interlocutor without an intermission or a pause in the interaction'* (CSCM1).

The second variation pattern shows that a significantly greater percentage of advanced level students reported employing 2 individual strategies than intermediate and beginner level students. These strategies include *'feeling all right for taking risks while speaking to maintain the conversation'* (SMC3); and *'and using circumlocution to convey the message to the interlocutor without an intermission or a pause in the interaction'* (CSCM4).

Moreover, in the third pattern, the significant variations also demonstrate that a significantly higher percentage of advanced level students also reported using one strategy, i.e. *'referring to objects or materials to convey the message to the interlocutor without an intermission or a pause in the interaction'* (CSCM6) than beginner and intermediate level students.

Meanwhile, the last variation pattern reveals that a significantly greater percentage of intermediate level students reported employing one strategy than beginner and advanced level students, i.e. *'referring to a dictionary, a book, or another type of document to convey the message to the interlocutor though the interaction was not continuous'* (DSCM6).

7.2.6 Research Question 6: Does the employment of communication strategies vary significantly according to the locations of institutions? If it does, what are the main significant variation patterns?

The findings at three different levels of data analysis according to the locations of institution are summarized as follows.

- **Overall Strategy Use**

The results of the ANOVA show no significant variations in the students' reported frequency of overall CS use in relation to the locations of institution. That is to say, the students at the institutions in tourist locations did not report employing strategies, as a whole, differently from the students at the institutions in non-tourist locations did.

- **Use of Strategies in the CSCM, DSCM, SUM, and SMC Categories**

The results of ANOVA (Table 6.5, Chapter 6) reveal no significant variations in the frequency of students' reported strategy use in all the four main categories according to students' locations of institutions.

- **Use of Individual Communication Strategies**

The results of the Chi-square (χ^2) tests (Table 6.10, Chapter 6) demonstrate that the use of 7 out of 44 individual CSs (15.91%) varied significantly according to the locations of institutions, with two different patterns of variation: Non-tourist

Destinations > Tourist Destinations, and Tourist Destinations > Non-tourist Destinations. The former variation pattern shows that a significantly higher percentage of students studying at the institutions in non-tourist locations reported employing 5 individual strategies than those studying at the institutions in tourist locations. Examples are: *'thinking in Thai before speaking to get the meaningful message across to the interlocutor though the interaction was not continuous'* (DSCM7); *'making clear to the interlocutor when one cannot perfectly catch the message to understand the message'* (SUM7); and *'correcting his/her own pronunciation, grammar and lexical mistakes to convey the message to the interlocutor without an intermission or a pause in the interaction'* (CSCM2). Meanwhile, the latter reveals that a significantly greater percentage of students studying at the institutions in tourist locations reported employing 2 individual strategies than those studying at the institutions in non-tourist locations. The two strategies are: *'using familiar words, phrases, or sentences to convey the message to the interlocutor without an intermission or a pause in the interaction'* (CSCM3); and *'making use of expressions found in some sources of media (e.g. movies, songs, or T.V.) to convey the message to the interlocutor without an intermission or a pause in the interaction'* (CSCM13).

7.3 Discussion of Research Findings

As seen in the above section in response to the research questions, the relationships of the CS use at different levels by 811 RMUT students majoring in EIC to the four independent variables have been described. In this section, the discussions of the research findings including possible reasons as an explanation for apparent

significant variations in certain CS use in relation to each investigated variable are presented.

- **Use of Communication Strategies and Gender**

Gender difference in language use has been well studied and documented. According to several studies, the gender of the students makes a significant difference in language strategy use (e.g. Oxford and Nyikos, 1989; Nyikos, 1990; Oxford et al., 1993; Green and Oxford, 1995; Maubach and Morgan, 2001; Ok, 2003; Siriwan, 2007; Saengpakdeejit, 2009). Most previous studies found the relationship between gender and language learners' choice of strategies, where frequency and variety of strategy use was significantly greater for females. According to Oxford (1993), most prior studies showed that females tend to be more active strategy users than their male counterparts.

In the present study, the findings showed a strong association between the gender of students and their strategy use. The results demonstrated that female students showed significantly higher frequency of overall CS use; use of CSs in the CSCM, DSCM, and SUM categories than their male counterparts. That is, females reportedly used CSs for conveying a message to the interlocutor without an intermission or a pause in the interaction, for conveying a message to the interlocutor though the interaction was not continuous, and for understanding the message more frequently than males. These findings are consistent with those of Green and Oxford (1995) where females used strategies, including social strategies, significantly more often than males. According to Green and Oxford (1995, p. 264), social strategies are 'such as asking questions, cooperating with native speaker...'. These kinds of strategies can be regarded as communication strategies. In a study of strategy use of

1,200 university students carried out by Oxford and Nyikos (1989), Female learners used strategies including conversational input elicitation strategies more frequently than did male learners. They explained, “sex differences in strategy use had a profound influence in here” (p. 296). Moreover, in the Korean context, Ok (2003) found that females scored significantly higher than did males in terms of frequency of strategy use in five of six strategy categories. Among the five categories, social strategies were also included.

Most empirical studies, as well as the present study, which examined gender as a variable in the use of language learning strategies alongside CSs reported that significant gender differences almost always occurred in a single direction, showing greater use of strategies by females. One possible explanation for such significant differences is women’s sociability. According to Mori and Gobel (2006), females have a greater desire to make L2-speaker friends and a greater interest to have direct contact with target language speakers than their male counterparts. Ok (2003, p. 26) mentions, “females are superior to, or at least very different from, males in many social skills with females showing a greater social orientation”. In addition, Browne (1996) comments that females use language to draw out and include others. That is, females have more willingness to use English as a foreign language to communicate and deal with people than male students.

Another possible explanation for higher frequency of CS use by females is women’s self-perception, as it has been suggested by several prior studies that female students are more positively inclined to language learning than male counterparts (e.g. Wright, 1999; Williams et al., 2002; Henry, 2009). This positive attitude might be, to some extent, influenced by innate characteristics of females. That is, females are

innately better at language learning than males (Oxford, Nyikos and Ehrman, 1988). This could be an acceptable reason why more female than male students choose to study a foreign language as their major subject. According to Wigfield and Eccles (1992), female students value English more, whereas male students value math more. That is, females have more positive attitudes towards studying foreign languages than their male counterparts.

However, the findings of the present study do support the statement of Ghani (2003, p. 33), “males do better than females in the use of some strategies”. More male than female students reported use of certain individual CSs. These strategies include feeling all right about making wrong pronunciation to maintain the conversation (SMC1) and feeling all right if the conversation does not go smoothly by keeping speaking to maintain the conversation (SMC5). Considering the use of these individual strategies, we can see that male students have greater willingness to manage anxiety while interacting in English in order to maintain the conversation than female students. This could be because males are quite self-confident in their oral abilities. According to Maubach and Morgan (2001, p. 44), “males seem much more self-reliant in keeping a conversation going, tending to follow their own instincts, sometimes even under-preparing material due to an over-confidence in their oral abilities”. They further explain that males, with greater confidence, seem to have a greater enjoyment of speaking activity than female students.

In sum, considering the results of previous studies and the present study, it might be concluded that language strategy use is a gender-related issue. If females are more skilled in using certain strategies to learn a language, then males might need more help in developing such strategies and vice versa. Some possible explanation

hypothesized by the researcher for the significant differences in the strategy use by different gender of students are, for females, the women's sociability and self-perception; and, for males, the self-confidence. However, we cannot be certain about what really caused these significant differences; thus, more research to investigate these aspects is needed.

- **Use of Communication Strategies and Exposure to Oral Communication in English**

Norton and Toohey (2001) point out that the success of good language learners, especially in communication, depends very much on the degree and quality of exposure to variety of conversations in their communities. In the field of CSs, to date, no research studies have demonstrated a direct relationship between students' use of CSs and their exposure to oral communication in English. In the present study, the two different types of exposure to oral communication in English of students have been categorized as limited to classroom instructions only and non-limited to classroom instructions.

The findings of the study reveal significant variations in the overall strategy use and use of CSs in the CSCM, DSCM, and SMC categories of students in association with their exposure to oral communication in English. The results illustrate that the frequency and variety of strategy use was significantly greater for students who have had wider exposure to oral communication in English. Some factors hypothesized by the researcher to explain such significant differences are: motivation for social interaction, CSs as a part of oral communication, and variety of interlocutors.

In terms of motivation for social interaction, Ushioda (2008, p. 25) states, "...motivation develops through social participation and interaction." This means that the more exposure to oral communication in foreign language of learners, the more opportunity for them to become motivated in language learning. Oxford and Nyikos (1989) have studied variables affecting language learners' choice of strategy use. They found that the more motivated students used learning strategies of all kinds including functional practice strategies and conversational input elicitation strategies more often than did the less motivated students. They explain that learners who are highly motivated to learn a language are likely to use a variety of strategies. Therefore, it can be said that language learners who have more variety in their exposure to oral communication in English are likely to be more motivated to learn languages leading in turn to a high and wide range of strategy use in their oral communication.

Another possible explanation for higher frequency of CS use by students whose exposure to oral English communication was not limited to classrooms instructions is that CSs were used as a part of the oral communication. According to Mariani (2010), CSs are known as the ways and means speakers employ when they experience a problem in oral communication, either because they cannot say what they would like to say or because they cannot understand what is being said to them. She also states, "CSs are by no means an exclusive feature of communication in a foreign or second language— problems can and do occur in native-language communication too, and can be managed by using the same basic types of strategies..." (p. 8). This can be said that CSs, to a certain extent, could play a role as a part of oral communication in any language. That is to say, in any oral

communication, even in native language, CSs seem to be actually used to manage problems which may occur in the interaction in order to achieve particular communicative purposes. Thus, whenever language learners have any communicative practice opportunities, especially in natural or outside classroom settings, undoubtedly, they are likely to use a range of CSs.

Variety of interlocutors is also hypothesized to be a factor which may explain such significant differences. In this study, students with non-limited exposure to oral communication in English to classroom instructions reported that they have opportunities to use English to interact with various people in different places, such as with their foreign father or mother at home; tutors at tutoring institutes, tourists at tourist spots, or foreign friends via the Internet. In communicating with different kinds of people in different contexts, learners actually have different communicative goals and are likely to use different CSs. Huang and Andrews (2010) have studied the use of language learning strategies with 47 senior secondary students in Mainland China, the results indicate that the process of strategy development and use were mediated by various aspects including interpersonal interactions with their teachers, peers and family members. They further explain, “family members also contributed to the students’ strategy development” (p. 28). These findings suggest that interlocutors also play a role in strategy development and use of students.

In summary, the three hypothesized factors - motivation for social interaction, CSs as a part of oral communication, and variety of interlocutors - may contribute to the high use of CSs of students who are not limited their exposure to oral communication in English to classroom instructions.

- **Use of Communication Strategies and Levels of Study**

According to previous studies, language course level or, in this study, levels of study influences how students learn foreign or second languages (e.g. Bialystok, 1981; Potizer, 1983; Oxford and Nyikos, 1989; Ok, 2003). For example, Potizer (1983) found that course level affected the strategy choice of foreign language learners, with higher-level students using more communicative or functional strategies. Oxford and Nyikos (1989) also found differences in strategy use as advanced students use functional practice and conversational input elicitation strategies more often than did lower level students. In general, the more advanced the language learner, the more use of strategies.

However, the findings of the present study are not consistent with those of the past studies. In the present study, students studying in a beginner level, i.e. first year reported significantly greater use of CSs in the DSCM and SUM categories than did students studying in an advanced level, i.e. fourth year. In the DSCM Category, the beginner level students reported keeping quiet while thinking about how to get a message across to the interlocutor (DSCM1). In the SUM Category, students reported asking the interlocutor for a repetition to understand the message (SUM3), appealing for assistance from other people around to clarify the interlocutor's message to understand the message (SUM5), appealing for assistance from other people around to clarify the interlocutor's message to understand the message (SUM6), and guessing the meaning of what the interlocutor has said to understand the message (SUM12). These strategies are known as 'stalling or time-gaining strategies' for DSCM, and 'achievement or compensatory strategies' for SUM (Dörnyei, 1995). Regarding the 'achievement or compensatory strategies', Corder (1983) suggests that language

teachers should encourage these kinds of strategies in part of teaching, so that the learner would know how to use the strategies which can help them reach their communicative goals and eventually lead to their language learning. The findings of the present study may support the statement of Ok (2003, p. 12), “Advancement in course level or years of study does not necessarily mean that students use better strategies in every instance”.

Based on the findings of the present study, one possible explanation that might be drawn from the findings is the easiness of strategy use. When considering the use of individual strategies of the beginner level students in the two main categories: DSCM and SUM, we can see that these strategies are mainly appealing for assistance and using fillers or hesitation devices. These kinds of strategies seem to be less complicated to be used, so the beginner level students who are less experienced language learners might not have to put much effort to use them to solve their oral communication problems they confronted. Therefore, the students at a beginner level appeared to use such strategies more often than did the students at an advanced level.

Another factor that is likely to play a role in the results is the learning context of the advanced level students. English for International Communication (EIC) major is quite new in RMUTs. This is because, originally, RMUTs’ main aim is to provide tertiary education focusing on developing ‘science and technology’ professionals with quality and capacity essential for the career to serve the nation need (RMUT Thanyaburi Council, 2006). Moreover, RMUTs are government universities with limited budget. Thus, some necessary facilities are not fully ready for students majoring in EIC, e.g. self-access language learning center, language laboratories, native English speaking teachers. When the advanced level students found that, for

the whole four years, they have been studying with the same language teachers who are, commonly, Thai-native speakers and using very limited learning sources, they might not be motivated and get bored with learning English which seems to affect a willingness to speak English and use of CSs in their oral communication.

However, when taking a closer look at the individual strategy use of the advanced level students, the results of the present study showed that the advanced level students reported significantly more frequently in use of certain individual CSs than the beginner level students. These strategies include feeling all right for taking risks while speaking to maintain the conversation (SMC3); and using circumlocution to convey the message to the interlocutor without an intermission or a pause in the interaction (CSCM4). Unlike the strategies used by the beginner level students, these strategies seem to involve more self-reliance. That is to say, the advanced level students who are more experienced language learners are likely to try to make possible use of their English language knowledge to solve communicative problems by themselves in order to achieve their communicative purposes.

In short, two possible factors that may be contributed to the higher use of CSs by students at a beginner level are the easiness of strategy use and the learning context of the advanced level students. However, the findings also reveal the greater frequent use of some individual CSs which seems to be self-reliance strategies of the advanced level students.

- **Use of Communication Strategies and Locations of Institutions**

As Thailand has its own culture and there are many attractive places for foreigners to visit, a substantial number of foreigners come to visit Thailand. However, some institutions of RMUTs are located in areas where none or very few

foreigners would like to visit. Thus, in the present study, students' locations of institutions have been categorized into two main types as tourist destinations for foreigners and non-tourist destinations for foreigners.

No previous studies have been found to be carried out to investigate the relationship between locations of institutions and students' choice of CSs. The findings of the present study reveal no significant differences between students studying at institutions located in the areas of tourist destinations for foreigners and those studying at institutions in non-tourist locations in association with their choices of CSs. That is, students studying at institutions located in either location have similar strategic communicating habits. One possible factor which probably contributes to this finding is the sociocultural characteristics of Thais, in particular 'Krengjai'. This characteristic is a combination of diffidence, deference, and consideration merged with respect (Klausner, 1993). According to Foley (2005, p. 229), "A 'Krengjai' feeling often seems to inhibit a student to ask his teacher to repeat an explanation. The possible negative side is the apparent lack of initiative, weakness, and subservience that can result from an unhealthy degree of Krengjai". This aspect of sociocultural characteristics of Thais is likely to affect students' oral communication and CS use both inside and outside classroom settings. That is to say, with the feelings of Krengjai, students seem to speak less in any communication situations, especially with foreigners. When students communicate less in the target language, their opportunity to use CSs in their oral communication seems to be less as well.

However, there is a minor significant difference in use of individual strategy items with more students studying at institutions in non-tourist locations reported employing a wider range of strategies to understand the message than those studying

at institutions in tourist locations. These CSs are: asking the interlocutor to simplify the language (SUM6), making clear to the interlocutor when one cannot perfectly catch the message (SUM7), and paying attention to the first part of the sentence (SUM8). When taking a look at the purpose of using these individual strategies, to understand the message, it might be possible to say that students studying at institutions in non-tourist locations may not have many more chances to interact with foreigners. So, they may not be familiar with English accent. When they communicated in English, they seemed to resort to various strategies in order to understand the interlocutor's message. Meanwhile, more students studying at institutions in tourist locations reported use of certain individual CSs for conveying a message to the interlocutor without an intermission or a pause in the interaction. These strategies are: using familiar words, phrases, or sentences (CSCM3) and making use of expressions found in some sources of media e.g. movies, songs, or T.V. (CSCM13). Considering these kinds of strategies, it might be possible to say that students studying at institutions in tourist locations may have more chances to interact with foreigners. It may not be difficult for them to listen to English but they may need to recourse to strategies in order to convey the intended message to the interlocutor.

In conclusion, the findings suggest that two independent variables for the present study, i.e. gender of students, and exposure to oral communication in English have been found in association with students' choice of overall strategy use. Meanwhile, the relationship between the other two variables: students' levels of study and locations of institutions, and students' use of strategies in the four main categories and individual strategies have been found. The findings of the present study are generally consistent with those of the previous studies in terms of gender of students,

where female students reported a higher frequency of strategy use than did their male counterparts. By contrast, in respect of levels of study, the findings of this study are not consistent with those of the previous studies, where students at beginner level of study reported a higher frequency of strategy use both for conveying the message to the interlocutor though the interaction was not continuous and for understanding the message than did those at intermediate and advanced level of study. Regarding students' exposure to oral communication in English, the findings suggest that there is a significant difference in strategy use between students with non-limited exposure to oral communication in English to classroom instructions and those with limited exposure. Meanwhile, there is a minor significant difference in the use of individual strategy items in relation to students' locations of institutions.

7.4 Implications of the Research Findings for the Teaching and Learning of English for RMUT Students Majoring in EIC

As summarised in the previous section in response to the research questions, the research findings reveal that there is a relationship between gender of students and exposure to oral communication in English, and students' overall CS use. The relationship between students' levels of study and locations of institutions, and students' use of strategies in the main categories and individual strategy items have also been found. Some implications for the teaching and learning of English for RMUT students majoring in EIC may be drawn as follows:

1. Arising out of the research findings, students who are not limited their exposure to oral communication in English to classroom instructions and students who have studied in the institutions located in the areas of tourist destinations for

foreigners reported making use of expression found in some sources of media, e.g. movies, songs, or television in order to get the message across to the interlocutor. This could shed some light on teaching oral communication lessons in terms of material utilisation. Language teachers should take into consideration different forms of media when teaching oral communication. For example, a teacher may enter the classroom with a CD in hand and start a lesson by getting students to listen to a song. The teacher should set a purpose for listening to a song to students, i.e. create some listening activities about the song for students to do. Another time, teachers may get students to watch a film or movie alongside assigning them to do activities in all stages of watching: before, while, and after. This may help and encourage students to remember and use some words or expressions found or heard from those media in their oral communication whether to keep the conversation flowing or to solve their oral communication problems they encounter during the course of communication;

2. One finding demonstrates that the advanced level students reported feeling all right about taking risks while speaking. It is recommended that language teachers should encourage students, especially the beginner level students to feel all right for taking risks and use CSs while speaking English. It is necessary to let students know that they are not expected to speak English as fluently and accurately as do native-speakers. They should be explicitly taught to resort to CSs in order to handle their oral communication problems without being afraid of making mistakes. It is believed that language learners can learn and gain some more knowledge from their mistakes. Eventually, their communicative competence will be improved. Therefore, some agreement should be formed with the students to help them build more confidence in communicating with language teachers and foreigners, by suggesting to them not to

be too sensitive about errors or mistakes as even native-speakers can sometimes make mistakes (Tasee & Intaraprasert, 2009). Moreover, the students should be informed that they should not feel shy to use CSs in their oral communication since native-speakers employ CSs to try to convey the intended meaning to their listeners as well. As stated by Rabab'ah (2002, p. 192), “When faced with such problems, they [native speakers] try to avoid particular language or grammatical items; paraphrase when they do not have the appropriate form or construction; ask the interlocutor for the correct form... This phenomenon exists even in first language use”;

3. The findings reveal that students who are not limited their exposure to oral communication in English to classroom instructions reported employing a greater use of different CSs than did those who are limited their exposure to oral communication in English to classroom instructions only. This could argue for the creation of ‘artificial’ English-speaking environment through the use, for example, of an English corner, English speaking contest, English game show, short play performance, and so on outside classroom setting. These activities can help promote CS use of language learners which can assist them to practice the target language. According to Graham (1997), increasing participation in language activities is the key factors for CSs. Besides, by continual exposure to natural conversation students may learn both to hear more of the target language and to produce new utterances to test their knowledge (Wenden & Rubin, 1987).

4. One finding also demonstrates that the beginner level students reported using strategies mostly for understanding the message. Moreover, the advanced level students did not report employing a wide range of strategies. Therefore, it is recommended to develop the curriculum focusing on strategy training in order to raise

learners' awareness of a wide range of CS use. According to Nakatani (2005, p. 87), "...learners' strategic competence can be developed through raising their awareness of managing and supervising specific strategy use".

5. In general, students from all categories reported a medium level of use of CSs. Therefore, it could be argued that language teachers need to raise learners' awareness of the value of CSs and introduce them to a wide range. For example, a mini-seminar on CSs should be held for learners in order to encourage and help them to become aware of the potential of CSs in their oral communication in English. During the seminar, the students should be provided with opportunities to use CSs, and then identify and discuss the CSs that they have used based on the CS classification for the present study. They may also be asked to provide opinions on the CS classification for the present study in terms of usefulness and workability as well as add to the list some CSs which they think are missing. In addition, an informal talk with students about CSs should be held occasionally. Furthermore, teachers should be encouraged to introduce CSs as part of classroom lessons and, at the same time, encourage the students to use CSs for situational classroom practice. This will provide the students with opportunities for practice in CS use. As Dörnyei (1995, p. 64) points out, "providing opportunities for practice in strategy use appears to be necessary because CSs can only fulfill their function as immediate first aid devices if their use has reached an automatic stage".

In addition, it could be that teachers themselves need to become aware of their own use (or non-use) of communication strategies. One method of raising awareness could be to record staff conversations in English, and then hold a mini-conference at which staff listen to and analyse the way they themselves are using CSs, perhaps using the classification system adopted in the present study, and seeing how they

promote fluent communication. This way the teachers should recognise that different CSs may have different benefits. This activity could be a starting-point then for discussion of CSs with students, as suggested above.

7.5 Contributions of the Present Study

The present study has made some significant contributions to the field of communication strategies. These contributions based on the findings of the present study can be characterised as follows:

1. As mentioned in Chapter 2, there have been some past empirical studies on CSs carried out in the Thai context; however, most of the focal points of the studies have generally been limited to examining the relationship among CS use, field of study and language or oral proficiency level. Consequently, the present study has widened the focal points of study through a variety of investigated variables, namely gender of students; exposure to oral communication in English; levels of study; and locations of institutions.

2. The researcher for the present study has systematically produced a communication strategy inventory as shown in Chapter 4, which was based on the self-reported data obtained through students' semi-structured interviews. This communication strategy inventory has been used as the instrument to elicit the strategy use of RMUT students majoring in EIC in details.

3. In terms of data analysis, two different types of statistical methods were employed, namely an analysis of variance (ANOVA) and the Chi-square tests (χ^2). This data analysis can be a guide for other researchers to apply in similar types of reported data.

7.6 Limitations of the Present Study and Proposals for Future

Research

The present study has addressed the research questions, which were to describe types of CSs reportedly employed by RMUT students majoring in EIC as well as to examine variation patterns and explore the relationship between frequency of students' reported strategy use at different levels and each investigated variable. However, certain limitations need to be acknowledged and taken into account in any future research enterprise.

1. Although the communication strategy questionnaire (CSQ) of the present study is workably used to elicit reported strategy use from RMUT students majoring in EIC in the second phase of data collection, the researcher acknowledges that respondents may not have reported their CS use reliably, i.e. they cannot actually recall what they have done during the interaction. So, other assessment methods, such as classroom observation; performance recordings; group interview; or learning log should have included in the present study in order to get other collected data to triangulate the findings from the CSQ. This is because each investigation method has its own strong and weak points as pointed out by Cohen (1998) that each investigation method has a unique set of advantages and disadvantages. In addition, the available data on strategies depends on the collection method (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990).

2. The research population should have been more well-balanced in terms of each investigated variable. In other words, the number of students from each gender, exposure to oral communication in English, levels of study, and locations of institutions should have been approximately the same.

3. This study aims to study CSs specifically employed by RMUT students majoring in EIC. Therefore, all participants were from RMUTs in Thailand that have similar characteristics in nature. The findings would be more interesting if students majoring in English from other types of universities, e.g. government universities; private universities; teacher universities; and so on, participated in the present study. Then, another pattern of CS use may be discovered.

In spite of the limitations, the researcher acknowledges that some areas might justify further research studies. These areas could include the following:

a) As demonstrated in the literature review in Chapter 3 (Section 3.3), no researchers in the field of CSs have taken exposure to oral communication in English into consideration as a factor related to students' choices of CS. In order to understand more about this factor, further studies should examine the longitudinal effects of continuing exposure to oral communication in English on the use of CSs of students.

b) Based on the related literature review, no research works in the field of CSs have been carried out with type of interlocutors in students' exposure to oral communication in English as a variable. This factor should be explored to investigate its effects on learners' use of CSs.

c) As mentioned earlier, the CS questionnaire was used as the only main method to collect the data of strategy use from RMUT students majoring in EIC in the second phase of data collection. The findings would be more accurate if several assessment methods have been combined in order to compensate for weak points of the questionnaire method. In doing so, for instance, future researchers may conduct a case study of 10 students getting them to perform communication activities as well as recording their performance alongside questionnaire responses. In short, in order to

validate the research findings, the combination of data collection methods is recommended.

d) The research population for the present study is the RMUT students majoring in EIC. The findings would be useful if we recruited students majoring in English from other types of universities. To get a more complete picture of the English-majored undergraduate students' CS use, students with different types of universities should be included in the future research.

e) As mentioned earlier, the research population for the present study is the RMUT students majoring in EIC. The findings would be interesting if we recruited students from other fields of study, such as engineering students, agricultural students, or business administration students. To get a whole picture of the RMUT students' CS use, students with different fields of study should be included in the future research.

7.7 Conclusion

The present study has contributed to the field of CS in terms of CS classification and the variables investigated. One of the major contributions of the present study has been the classification system of CSs which RMUT students majoring in EIC reported employing to cope with communication problems in their oral communication in English. The CSs have been classified on the basis of communicative purposes, i.e. CSs for conveying the message to the interlocutor, CSs for understanding the message, and CSs for maintaining a conversation, as reported by the research subjects. Of the four investigated variables, three variables i.e. exposure to oral communication in English; levels of study; and locations of institutions, have rarely been taken into consideration by any former researchers in this field.

Finally, the researcher for the present study has suggested some implications emerging from the research findings for the teaching and learning of English to RMUT students majoring in EIC. Besides, limitations of the present study and some proposals for the future research have been provided. The researcher believes that with a research design presented in Chapter 3, as well as appropriate instruments for eliciting CS use of the students, future researchers can gain further insights into how students handle communication problems in their oral communication in English, and how CSs are employed by different students in different learning contexts.



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APPENDIX A

Number of Students and Institutions Participating in the Data Collection

Regions	Provinces	Campus Cluster	Data Collection		Number of Students		
			Phase 1	Phase 2	Semi-structured Interviews	Communication Strategy Questionnaire	
RMUT Lanna							
North	Phitsanulok	- Phitsanulok	...	x	...	31	
	Chiang Mai	- Phak Pha Yap*	
	Tak	- Tak	...	x	...	60	
	Chiang Rai	- Chiang Rai*	
	Lampang	- Lampang	
	Nan	- Nan	
RMUT Isan							
Northeast	Nakhon Ratchasima	- Nakhon Ratchasima	x	...	16	...	
	Surin	- Surin	...	x	...	78	
	Khon Kaen	- Khon Kaen	
	Kalasin	- Kalasin*	
	Sakon Nakhon	- Sakon Nakhon	x	...	16	...	
	RMUT Tawan-Ok						
Central	Bangkok	- Chakraphong-phuwanat	
	Bangkok	- U-Thenthawai*	
	Chonburi	- Bangphra	...	x	...	117	
	Chanthaburi	- Chanthaburi*	
	RMUT Phra-Nakhon						
			- Panitchayakarn Phra Nakhon
Bangkok		- Chotiwet*	
Bangkok		- Thewet*	
Bangkok		- Phra Nakhon-Nua*	
Bangkok		- Chumphonkhet Udomsak*	
RMUT Rattanakosin							
Nakhon Pathom		- Salaya*	
Bangkok		- Pho Chang*	
Prachuap Khiri Khan		- Klai Kangwon*	
Bangkok		- Bophitphimuk-chakawat	

Regions	Provinces	Campus Cluster	Data Collection		Number of Students		
			Phase 1	Phase 2	Semi-structured Interviews	Communication Strategy Questionnaire	
		RMUT Krungthep					
Central	Bangkok	- Bophitphimuk-mahamek*	
	Bangkok	- Krungthep	...	x	...	210	
	Bangkok	- Phranakhon-Tai*	
			RMUT Suwannaphumi				
	Phra Nakhon Si Ayutthaya	- Hantra	...	x	...	98	
	Phra Nakhon Si Ayutthaya	- Wasukri	
	Nonthaburi	- Nonthaburi	
	Suphanburi	- Suphanburi	
			RMUT Thanyaburi	x	...	16	140
			RMUT Sriwichai				
South	Nakhon-Srithammarat	- Thung Yai*	
	Nakhon-Srithammarat	- Kha Nom*	
	Nakhon-Srithammarat	- Sai Yai*	
	Trang	- Trang	...	x	...	77	
	Songkhla	- Songkhla	
Total		20**	3	8	48	811	

Note: * The campus that does not offer EIC major

** The number of campuses offering EIC major



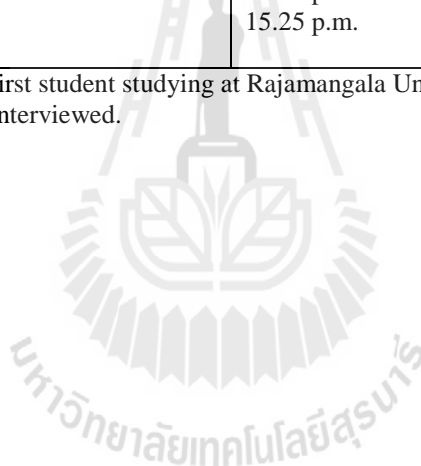
APPENDIX B

The Interview Timetable

Institute	Date	Time	Activity
RMUT Isan Nakhon Ratchasima	3 June 2009	10.30 - 11.00 a.m.	Discussing the request with EIC lecturer and making an arrangement
	4 June 2009	09.30 - 10.00 a.m.	Meeting with students
		10.05 a.m.	Interviewing RMUT1
		10.30 a.m.	Interviewing RMUT2
		10.55 a.m.	Interviewing RMUT3
		11.20 a.m.	Interviewing RMUT4
		13.30 p.m.	Interviewing RMUT5
		13.55 p.m.	Interviewing RMUT6
		14.20 p.m.	Interviewing RMUT7
	5 June 2009	14.45 p.m.	Interviewing RMUT8
		09.30 a.m.	Interviewing RMUT9
		10.00 a.m.	Interviewing RMUT10
		10.30 a.m.	Interviewing RMUT11
		11.00 a.m.	Interviewing RMUT12
		11.30 a.m.	Interviewing RMUT13
		13.30 p.m.	Interviewing RMUT14
14.00 p.m.		Interviewing RMUT15	
14.30 p.m.	Interviewing RMUT16		
RMUT Thanyaburi	9 June 2009	10.30 - 11.00 a.m.	Discussing the request with EIC lecturer and making an arrangement
	10 June 2009	10.00 - 10.30 a.m.	Meeting with students
		10.35 a.m.	Interviewing RMUT17
		11.00 a.m.	Interviewing RMUT18
		11.30 a.m.	Interviewing RMUT19
		13.00 p.m.	Interviewing RMUT20
		13.25 p.m.	Interviewing RMUT21
		13.50 p.m.	Interviewing RMUT22
		14.15 p.m.	Interviewing RMUT23
	11 June 2009	14.40 p.m.	Interviewing RMUT24
		13.30 p.m.	Interviewing RMUT25
		14.00 p.m.	Interviewing RMUT26
	12 June 2009	14.30 p.m.	Interviewing RMUT27
		15.00 p.m.	Interviewing RMUT28
		13.30 p.m.	Interviewing RMUT29
		14.00 p.m.	Interviewing RMUT30
	14.30 p.m.	Interviewing RMUT31	
	15.00 p.m.	Interviewing RMUT32	

Institute	Date	Time	Activity
RMUT Isan Sakon Nakhon	17 June 2009	10.30 - 11.00 a.m.	Discussing the request with EIC lecturer and making an arrangement
	18 June 2009	09.00 - 09.30 a.m.	Meeting with students
		09.35 a.m.	Interviewing RMUT33
		10.00 a.m.	Interviewing RMUT34
		10.25 a.m.	Interviewing RMUT35
		11.00 a.m.	Interviewing RMUT36
		11.30 a.m.	Interviewing RMUT37
		13.00 p.m.	Interviewing RMUT38
		13.25 p.m.	Interviewing RMUT39
	19 June 2009	13.50 p.m.	Interviewing RMUT40
		11.00 a.m.	Interviewing RMUT41
		11.20 a.m.	Interviewing RMUT42
		11.40 a.m.	Interviewing RMUT43
		13.30 p.m.	Interviewing RMUT44
		13.55 p.m.	Interviewing RMUT45
		14.30 p.m.	Interviewing RMUT46
		15.00 p.m.	Interviewing RMUT47
	15.25 p.m.	Interviewing RMUT48	

Note: RMUT1 means the first student studying at Rajamangala University of Technology (RMUT) majoring in EIC who was interviewed.



APPENDIX C

The Semi-structured Interview Guide on Communication Strategies

Part I:

- 1) What is your name?
- 2) Do you like studying English? Why?/Why not?
- 3) Do you use English with your teachers and friends at all? If yes, when do you use it?
- 4) According to questions No. 3, do you think they are enough to help you improve your spoken skill? Why?/ Why not?

Part II:

- 5) When communicating in English, could you get the intended messages across to your interlocutors? If not, what are the problems you encountered?
- 6) According to question 8 (in case the answer is 'No'), how did you solve a particular oral communication problem?
- 7) Whenever you want to have a conversation in English, could you express yourself in English right away? If not, what do you do before expressing yourself in English?
- 8) If someone does not understand what you are trying to say, do you try to make yourself understood? If so, how? If not, why not?
- 9) Have you ever made mistakes when communicating in English? If yes, what do you do to correct those mistakes?
- 10) Have you ever got struck when communicating in English? If yes, what do you do to make you conversation go smoothly?
- 11) Do you try to do anything to improve your oral communication in English in general? If yes, what do you normally do?
- 12) Do you have any comments about oral communication in English in your present English classrooms? If yes, what are they?

APPENDIX D

A Sample Interview Script (The Translated Version)

Interviewer: Surapa Somsai
 Interviewer: RMUT45
 Date: 19th June 2009
 Duration: 18 minutes
 Place: RMUT Isan, Sakon Nakhon Campus, Thailand
 Topic: CS use of learners

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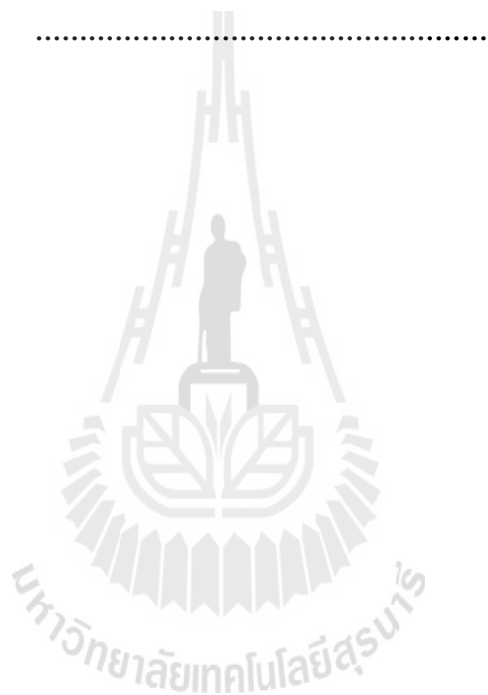
Interviewer: Good afternoon.
 Interviewee: Good afternoon.
 Interviewer: How are you doing?
 Interviewee: I'm fine, thank you. And you?
 Interviewer: I'm very well, thank you. I'm **Q1 What's your name?**
 Interviewee: My name is.....
 Interviewer: Can I have your nickname please?
 Interviewee: Of course. You can call me "Tum".
 Interviewer: What year are you in now, Tum?
 Interviewee: I'm in my fourth year.
 Interviewer: Um.. **Q2 Do you like studying English?**
 Interviewee: Yes, I like English the best.
 Interviewer: Why do you like really it?
 Interviewee: I think I can do it well. I mean I can top it when compared with other subjects. So, I'm quite motivated to study English. This may be a major reason of a better performance in my English language learning.
 Interviewer: That's good. **Q3 Do you use English with your teachers and friends at all?**
 Interviewee: Yes, especially when I attend English classes. I also have opportunities to communicate with foreigners when I was an apprentice student at a travel agent in Bangkok. That was a great experience for me to use English. I usually speak English with my friends as well because it is a deal among us that we have to talk in English.
 Interviewer: That's a good idea. **Q4 do you think they are enough to help you improve your spoken skill?**
 Interviewee: I think it can help somehow. I mean at least I have opportunities to communicate in English. However, it'd be better if I can use it in my daily life. The more English you communicate, the more fluent you became. In my free time, I sometimes go into a foreign teachers' room and chat with them.
 Interviewer: Fantastic! **Q5 When communicating in English, could you get the intended messages across to your interlocutors?**
 Interviewee: Yes. If we talk something about our daily issues, like where I have been?; I have eaten yet?; what I have for a meal?; or what I do in my free time?, I think I can express myself well. In fact, I couldn't respond to these kinds of questions in the first time I was asked. What I did was asking the interlocutor to tell me how to say what I want to say in English. Then, I know and I can respond to the questions later on.
 Interviewer: What about the issues that are not related to your daily life? Could you get the message across?

- Interviewee: No. I don't think I can do it well. For example, I was asked about news. I could not explain or give any information to my foreign teacher at all. I didn't know much of the news. The most important thing was that I didn't know much of vocabularies about the news. I think I need to read more news.
- Interviewer: You mean you have a problem with vocabulary knowledge?
- Interviewee: Yes. Knowing small vocabulary is the big problem for speaking English. Although, I have an idea to share, I can't share it because I don't know how to put it in English.
- Interviewer: Um., I see. **Q6 Can you tell me how you solve the problem of your small vocabularies while communicating?**
- Interviewee: The easiest way is to directly ask the interlocutor to tell me what I want to say in English by asking "What do you say in English?" Then, the interlocutor will tell me words or expressions that I want to say. I usually think of a message first. Then, I'll know what words which are necessary in the interaction but I don't know. In that case, I'll ask the interlocutor to tell me those words first. Then, I'll start expressing myself.
- Interviewer: Uh-huh. What else do you do to solve the problem?
- Interviewee: If there is a dictionary or online dictionary available, I don't hesitate to consult it. I often ask the interlocutor to look for a word via online dictionary with me, and then I ask him/her to explain the meaning of that word, so that I can use it correctly next time.
- Interviewer: Um... it's interesting. Is there anything else you do to deal with the communication problem?
- Interviewee: Yes. I often ask for help from my friends. If my friends and I are together, we often help one another to communicate with the interlocutor. If I cannot catch what the interlocutor's said, I actually ask my friend to clarify it to me.
- Interviewer: Can your friends always help you with that?
- Interviewee: No, not really. We often face the same problem (laugh). If none of us understands the message, I'll ask the interlocutor to repeat or clarify the message instead. Or I'll repeat the message that I've heard to the interlocutor to check if I get it right.
- Interviewer: Ah..., that's a way to check your understanding. OK, now I'd like to ask you that **Q7 whenever you want to have a conversation in English, could you express yourself in English right away?**
- Interviewee: Oh, no, I couldn't express myself right away as what I do in Thai language. I mean I have to think before saying out a meaning. If I speak without thinking, I'll make lots of mistakes.
- Interviewer: What kinds of mistakes that you make?
- Interviewee: Um...I'll make mistakes like mispronounce, do ungrammatical mistakes, and give unclear message.
- Interviewer: Uh..huh, I see. You said that you have to think first, then you put it, right?
- Interviewee: Yes.
- Interviewer: So, please tell me what do you think or do before expressing yourself in English?
- Interviewee: I think a message in Thai first. Then, I translate it into English in my mind and speak it out. However, I try to think the message in English because I'm not good at translation (laugh). In fact, I don't like to think the message in Thai before speaking but I have to do so. I can't think the message in English automatically. This may be because I lack daily-life communication in English.
- Interviewer: Uh...huh. What else do you do before expressing yourself?
- Interviewee: I try to put words as in a correct order as possible. If it is a short sentence, I can order the words correctly. If it is a long sentence, I often put only a subject and a verb in a correct order.
- Interviewer: OK. Do you think putting only a subject and a verb in a correct order can help you convey the meaning successfully?
- Interviewee: I think so. If I can start a sentence correctly, I can go on the expression. I don't care much of the word order after that.
- Interviewer: Why not?
- Interviewee: I think even though the sentence structure isn't completely correct, the interlocutor can understand the message somehow.

- Interviewer: Well. **Q8) If the interlocutor does not understand what you are trying to say, do you try to make yourself understood then?**
- Interviewee: Yes, of course. I don't like to keep quiet while communicating which actually leads to communication breakdown. If I couldn't make myself understood, I try my best to convey the message again.
- Interviewer: What do you think is a problem causing you unable to make yourself understood?
- Interviewee: This may be because I often use the empty or meaningless words, such as 'this', 'that', or 'it' for the intended words that cannot be recalled while speaking. The interlocutor might get a bit confused sometimes and can't follow me. Another main problem is that I have limited knowledge of vocabulary. To tell you the truth, I cannot remember large vocabulary. I really feel sorry about this (sigh deeply).
- Interviewer: That's all right. I know you can manage to improve your vocabulary knowledge after all. OK. Now I'd like you to tell me that how do you make yourself understood after the first failure?
- Interviewee: Well, I try to think of another word that has similar meaning or I may write down the word for the interlocutor. I cannot get the message across. This may be because I cannot pronounce the word clearly. I think writing down the word is a good way to solve this problem.
- Interviewer: Uh...huh.
- Interviewee: I used to ask the interlocutor to check for the intended word in an online dictionary with me because I couldn't pronounce that word clearly, so that the interlocutor couldn't understand the message. If I face this kind of problems, I often make use of the online dictionary or ordinary dictionary. I think dictionary is very useful for language learning and speaking as well.
- Interviewer: Is there anything else you do to cope with the problems?
- Interviewee: Yes. While speaking, I usually make use of non-verbal language such as mime, posture, and facial expression. I use non-verbal language to help convey the meaning and to get an attention from the interlocutor.
- Interviewer: That's interesting. Could you explain more about using non-verbal language to solve the communication problems?
- Interviewee: Well... for example, I told the interlocutor that I've saved some money by collecting coins in a piggy bank. At that time, I couldn't recall the words 'piggy bank' in English. So, I use my hands to make a shape of a piggy bank and put a coin in. Then, the interlocutor said the words 'piggy bank' out for me. Oh...I remember the words 'piggy bank' since then.
- Interviewer: And what about using non-verbal language to get an attention from the interlocutor?
- Interviewee: Umm.... That is my belief. I mean if I use body language alongside speaking, the interlocutor would be more interested in a message. He/She would pay attention to my gestures and he/she would feel that I'm eager to convey the meaning (laugh).
- Interviewer: Ah...ha. That's an interesting point.
- Interviewee: Yeah. I like using non-verbal language while communication. I think it is easy to act it and it's easy for the interlocutor to understand the message as well.
- Interviewer: Uh...huh. OK, I'd like to ask you another question. **9) Have you ever made mistakes when communicating in English?**
- Interviewee: Certainly! I've. I often make a mispronunciation, especially of French words and words that have more than two syllables.
- Interviewer: Could you give me an example please?
- Interviewee: Umm.... For example, I cannot pronounce a word, like 'fiancé' which is a French word and 'extraordinary' correctly.
- Interviewer: Uh...huh. What do you do to correct those mistakes while communicating then?
- Interviewee: I wrote down the word for the interlocutor to help me pronounce it. Then, I repeat that word one more time and go on a conversation.
- Interviewer: You do anything else?
- Interviewee: I sometimes haven't realised that I have made a mistake until the interlocutor tells me that he/she doesn't understand what I say. In this case, I repeat the whole sentence as clearly as possible. I often speak slowly, too.

- Interviewer: Uh...huh. That's good. Anything else?
- Interviewee: As I've said earlier, if there is a dictionary available, I don't hesitate to look up and check for both the pronunciation and meaning of the intended word. If an online dictionary is there, I go and listen to the pronunciation of the word. I like doing this because I can listen and practice pronouncing words correctly. Then, I start expressing myself again.
- Interviewer: I see. Now, **10) I'd like to know that have you ever got stuck when communicating in English?**
- Interviewee: Always! Ha ha. If I think a message while speaking, I often get stuck.
- Interviewer: So what do you do to make you conversation go smoothly?
- Interviewee: I have to pause and think for a moment. Then, I go on getting a message across.
- Interviewer: Uh...huh.
- Interviewee: If it is an informal talk like talking with foreign friends or foreign teachers outside a classroom, I'm not worried about getting stuck. In contrast, if it is a formal talk like talking with foreign teachers inside a classroom or in a meeting; before expressing myself, I have to think of a message first in order to avoid getting stuck while communicating.
- Interviewer: Right. What else do you do to make you conversation go smoothly?
- Interviewee: Um... If I enter a formal talk, I often guess a question that the interlocutor is likely to ask me and I prepare the answer in advance. I think this technique is quite useful.
- Interviewer: Yes. Anything else?
- Interviewee: If I get stuck, I usually use 'Umm' or 'Ur' to gain time to think a message.
- Interviewer: Does it help you to smooth your conversation?
- Interviewee: Sure, it does help. If I get stuck and then I stop...saying nothing, the interlocutor would understand that I cannot finish my expression and choose to stop it. But, if I make a sound 'Umm' or 'Ur' when I get stuck, the interlocutor would know that I'm thinking of a message and he/she would wait for the message.
- Interviewer: Right. Anything else?
- Interviewee: No. that's all.
- Interviewer: OK. I think I'll move to the next question. **11) Do you try to do anything to improve your oral communication in English in general?**
- Interviewee: Yes, I do.
- Interviewer: Please tell me what do you normally do?
- Interviewee: I try to practice speaking English as often as possible. In my free time, I sometimes chat with my foreign teachers. I like chatting with them because I can learn new vocabulary, learn to pronounce words correctly, and learn to listen to various English accents. I also try to study word family in order to use them variously and correctly. It makes me feel more confident when I use them.
- Interviewer: What else do you do to improve your oral communication in English?
- Interviewee: Well, I chat with my foreign friends on the Internet as well. However, most of the time, I type to convey a message.
- Interviewer: That's good. Anything else?
- Interviewee: I listen to English songs and try to sing along, so that I can remember words or phrases from the songs and use it in any conversation.
- Interviewer: Uh...huh. Well, can I ask you one more question?
- Interviewee: Yes, sure.
- Interviewer: **12) Do you have any comments about oral communication in English in your present English classrooms?**
- Interviewee: Yes, I do.
- Interviewer: What are your comments?
- Interviewee: I'd like to have more oral communication practical while studying. It'd be better if we have more courses, like English for tour guide, so that we can go visit different places of tourist destinations for foreigners and use English in real communication situations.

- Interviewer: Uh...huh. Any more comments?
Interviewee: Well, I'd like all teachers of English to speak English all period of teaching, and teachers and learners use English as a genuine communication as possible. The important thing is that I don't like rote-learning. So, I think if we have more oral communication in English in the classroom than that we have at the present time, we don't have to rely much on rote-learning. These are all my points of view.
- Interviewer: That's perfect. Thank you very much for your time and useful information of communication strategy use.
- Interviewee: You're more than welcome.
- Interviewer: Nice talking to you and have a good time.
- Interviewee: Nice talking to you, too.
- Interviewer: Bye-bye.
- Interviewee: Bye.



APPENDIX E

The Data Collection Timetable

Institute	Date	Time	Activity
RMUT Krungthep	26 August 2009	11.00-11.15 a.m.	Meeting with students
		11.10-11.20 a.m.	Students administer the questionnaire
RMUT Thanyaburi	31 August 2009	11.00-11.15 a.m.	Meeting with students
		11.10-11.20 a.m.	Students administer the questionnaire
RMUT Suwannaphumi, Hantra	1 September 2009	11.00-11.15 a.m.	Meeting with students
		11.10-11.20 a.m.	Students administer the questionnaire
RMUT Tawan-Ok, Bangphra	3 September 2009	11.00-11.15 a.m.	Meeting with students
		11.10-11.20 a.m.	Students administer the questionnaire
RMUT Lanna, Phitsanulok	7 September 2009	11.00-11.15 a.m.	Meeting with students
		11.10-11.20 a.m.	Students administer the questionnaire
RMUT Lanna, Tak	8 September 2009	11.00-11.15 a.m.	Meeting with students
		11.10-11.20 a.m.	Students administer the questionnaire
RMUT Sriwichai, Trang	14 September 2009	11.00-11.15 a.m.	Meeting with students
		11.10-11.20 a.m.	Students administer the questionnaire
RMUT Isan, Surin	18 September 2009	11.00-11.15 a.m.	Meeting with students
		11.10-11.20 a.m.	Students administer the questionnaire

APPENDIX F

A Strategy Questionnaire (Thai Version)

แบบสอบถาม

คำชี้แจง แบบสอบถามนี้มีทั้งหมด 5 หน้า โดยแบ่งเป็น 2 ส่วน
 ส่วนที่ 1 ข้อมูลทั่วไปเกี่ยวกับผู้ตอบแบบสอบถาม (หน้าที่ 1)
 ส่วนที่ 2 แบบสอบถามเกี่ยวกับวิธีการแก้ปัญหาการสื่อสารภาษาอังกฤษ (หน้าที่ 2-5)

ส่วนที่ 1

ข้อมูลทั่วไปเกี่ยวกับผู้ตอบแบบสอบถาม

โปรดทำเครื่องหมาย (✓) หรือกรอกข้อความที่ตรงกับความเป็นจริงของนักศึกษา

- เพศ : ชาย หญิง
- นักศึกษากำลังศึกษาที่ มหาวิทยาลัยเทคโนโลยีราชมงคล _____
- นักศึกษากำลังศึกษา ชั้นปีที่ 1 ชั้นปีที่ 2 ชั้นปีที่ 3 ชั้นปีที่ 4
- ตามปกติ นักศึกษามีโอกาสใช้ภาษาอังกฤษในการพูดสนทนา..... (ตอบได้มากกว่า 1 ข้อ)
 ที่บ้าน ในชั้นเรียนตามปกติ ที่สถาบันสอนภาษาต่างๆ
 ขณะท่องเที่ยวอยู่ต่างประเทศ ที่สถานที่ท่องเที่ยว อื่นๆ (โปรดระบุ) _____
- นักศึกษาประเมินความสามารถในการพูดภาษาอังกฤษของตนเองในระดับ
 สูง กลาง ต่ำ
- ทำไมนักศึกษาจึงประเมินตนเองในระดับดังกล่าว _____

- นักศึกษาคิดว่าทักษะการพูดภาษาอังกฤษเป็นทักษะที่..... (ตอบได้มากกว่า 1 ข้อ)
 ง่าย ยาก น่าเบื่อ น่าสนุก
 จำเป็น ไม่จำเป็น อื่น ๆ (โปรดระบุ) _____

ส่วนที่ 2

แบบสอบถามเกี่ยวกับวิธีการแก้ปัญหาการสื่อสารภาษาอังกฤษ

คำชี้แจง: แบบสอบถามนี้สร้างขึ้นเพื่อรวบรวมข้อมูลเกี่ยวกับวิธีการแก้ปัญหาการสื่อสารภาษาอังกฤษของนักศึกษาวิชาเอกภาษาอังกฤษเพื่อการสื่อสารสากล มหาวิทยาลัยเทคโนโลยีราชมงคล นักศึกษาโปรดอ่านและพิจารณาว่า ในขณะที่นักศึกษาสนทนาภาษาอังกฤษกับคู่สนทนา ในกรณีที่นักศึกษาพบว่าเกิดปัญหาในการสนทนาขึ้น และนักศึกษาต้องการที่จะสื่อสารให้สำเร็จ นักศึกษาใช้วิธีการแก้ปัญหาการสื่อสารภาษาอังกฤษที่ปรากฏในแบบสอบถามนี้บ่อยเพียงใด โดยให้นักศึกษาเลือกคำตอบ เช่น “มี” หรือ “ไม่มี” “บางครั้ง” “บ่อยครั้ง” หรือ “ไม่ทุกครั้ง” ที่ปรากฏในแต่ละข้อ แล้วให้นักศึกษาปฏิบัติตามคำสั่งที่ระบุไว้ ให้นักศึกษาพิจารณาเลือกวิธีการแก้ปัญหาการสื่อสารภาษาอังกฤษที่กำหนด ให้สอดคล้องกับความเป็นจริงที่นักศึกษาใช้ โดยการทำเครื่องหมายถูก ลงในช่องว่างโดยพิจารณาตามเกณฑ์ต่อไปนี้

“ไม่เคย” หมายถึง ในขณะที่นักศึกษาสนทนาภาษาอังกฤษกับคู่สนทนา นักศึกษา ไม่เคยใช้ วิธีการแก้ปัญหาการสื่อสารภาษาอังกฤษนั้นๆ เลย

“บางครั้ง” หมายถึง ในขณะที่นักศึกษาสนทนาภาษาอังกฤษกับคู่สนทนา นักศึกษาใช้วิธีการแก้ปัญหาการสื่อสารภาษาอังกฤษนั้นๆ ประมาณหนึ่งในสี่ของวิธีการแก้ปัญหาการสื่อสารภาษาอังกฤษที่นักศึกษาใช้ทั้งหมด

“บ่อย” หมายถึง ในขณะที่นักศึกษาสนทนาภาษาอังกฤษกับคู่สนทนา นักศึกษาใช้วิธีการแก้ปัญหาการสื่อสารภาษาอังกฤษนั้นๆ ประมาณสองในสี่ของวิธีการแก้ปัญหาการสื่อสารภาษาอังกฤษที่นักศึกษาใช้ทั้งหมด

“สม่ำเสมอ หรือ เกือบสม่ำเสมอ” หมายถึง ในขณะที่นักศึกษาสนทนาภาษาอังกฤษกับคู่สนทนา นักศึกษาใช้วิธีการแก้ปัญหาการสื่อสารภาษาอังกฤษนั้นๆ มากกว่าสามในสี่ของวิธีการแก้ปัญหาการสื่อสารภาษาอังกฤษที่นักศึกษาใช้ทั้งหมด

ตัวอย่าง :

1. เมื่อนักศึกษาสนทนาภาษาอังกฤษ นักศึกษามีปัญหาการสื่อสารกับคู่สนทนาหรือไม่

มี ไม่มี

ถ้าไม่มี ให้หยุดตอบแบบสอบถาม

ถ้ามี ปัญหาในการสื่อสารนั้นเกิดขึ้นบ่อยเพียงใด

บางครั้ง บ่อยครั้ง ทุกครั้ง

และ โปรดตอบแบบสอบถามข้อ 2 - 4

2. นักศึกษาเคยมีปัญหาในการพูดเพื่อสื่อสารกับคู่สนทนาหรือไม่

เคย ไม่เคย

ถ้าเคย นักศึกษาใช้วิธีการต่อไปนี้บ่อยเพียงใดเพื่อแก้ปัญหาเหล่านั้น

วิธีการแก้ปัญหาการสื่อสารภาษาอังกฤษ	ความถี่ในการใช้			
	สม่ำเสมอ / เกือบสม่ำเสมอ	บ่อย	บางครั้ง	ไม่เคย
1. ใช้ภาษาไทยแทนคำ หรือวลีที่ไม่ทราบในภาษาอังกฤษ	✓			

1. เมื่อนักศึกษาสนทนาภาษาอังกฤษ นักศึกษามีปัญหาการสื่อสารกับคู่สนทนาหรือไม่

มี ไม่มี

ถ้าไม่มี ให้หยุดตอบแบบสอบถาม

ถ้ามี ปัญหาในการสื่อสารนั้นเกิดขึ้นบ่อยเพียงใด

บางครั้ง บ่อยครั้ง ทุกครั้ง

และโปรดตอบแบบสอบถามข้อ 2 - 4

2. นักศึกษาเคยมีปัญหาในการพูดเพื่อสื่อสารกับคู่สนทนาหรือไม่

เคย ไม่เคย

ถ้าเคย นักศึกษาใช้วิธีการต่อไปนี้บ่อยเพียงใดเพื่อแก้ปัญหาเหล่านั้น

วิธีการแก้ปัญหาการสื่อสารภาษาอังกฤษ	ความถี่ในการใช้			
	สม่ำเสมอ / เกือบ สม่ำเสมอ	บ่อย	บางครั้ง	ไม่เคย/ เกือบ ไม่เคย
1. ใช้ภาษาไทยแทนคำ หรือวลีที่ไม่ทราบในภาษาอังกฤษ				
2. เมื่อออกเสียงผิด หรือใช้คำ และประโยคผิด ไวยากรณ์ นักศึกษา แก้ไขให้ถูกต้องด้วยตนเอง				
3. ใช้คำ วลี หรือประโยคที่นักศึกษาค้นเคย				
4. ยกตัวอย่าง อธิบายรูปร่างลักษณะ หรือลักษณะการใช้งานของ คำศัพท์ หรือวลี เมื่อนักศึกษาไม่ทราบคำศัพท์ หรือวลีที่ต้องการ				
5. ใช้ท่าทาง หรือการแสดงออกทางสีหน้าเพื่อช่วยในการสื่อสาร				
6. ใช้วัตถุ หรืออุปกรณ์ต่างๆเพื่อช่วยในการแสดงความหมายที่ ต้องการสื่อสาร				
7. วาดภาพประกอบเพื่อช่วยในการสื่อสาร				
8. พูดคำ วลี หรือประโยคซ้ำอีก				
9. สะกดคำ หรือเขียนคำ วลี หรือประโยคเพื่อช่วยในการสื่อสาร				
10. ใช้คำที่แสดงความลังเลใจ เช่น um..., er..., well, actually เป็นต้น				
11. ขอให้คู่สนทนาช่วยในสิ่งที่นักศึกษาต้องการสื่อสาร				
12. ใช้คำ วลี หรือประโยคที่เคยเรียนมา				
13. ใช้คำ วลี หรือประโยคที่พบในสื่อต่างๆเช่น ภาพยนตร์ เพลง หรือรายการโทรทัศน์ เป็นต้น				
14. ใช้คำที่มีความหมายเหมือนกัน หรือตรงกันข้ามกันเพื่อช่วย อธิบายคำศัพท์ที่ต้องการสื่อสาร				
15. สร้างคำที่ไม่มีในภาษาอังกฤษขึ้นมาเอง				
16. พูดภาษาอังกฤษ โดยการแปลคำ วลี หรือสำนวนจากภาษาไทย				

วิธีการแก้ปัญหาการสื่อสารภาษาอังกฤษ	ความถี่ในการใช้			
	สม่ำเสมอ / เกือบ สม่ำเสมอ	บ่อย	บางครั้ง	ไม่เคย/ เกือบ ไม่เคย
เป็นภาษาอังกฤษแบบคำต่อคำ				
17. เจียบสั๊กพักเพื่อให้มีเวลาในการคิดเกี่ยวกับสิ่งที่ต้องการสื่อสารแล้วค่อยเริ่มสนทนาใหม่				
18. พุดให้ช้าลงเพื่อให้มีเวลาในการคิดเกี่ยวกับสิ่งที่ต้องการสื่อสาร				
19. พุดเรื่องอื่นเพื่อให้มีเวลาในการคิดเกี่ยวกับสิ่งที่ต้องการสื่อสาร				
20. ขอให้คนรอบข้างช่วยในสิ่งที่นักศึกษาต้องการสื่อสาร				
21. โทรศัฟท์หาคนอื่นเพื่อขอให้ช่วยในสิ่งที่นักศึกษาต้องการสื่อสาร				
22. ค้นหาคำศัพท์ วลี หรือประโยคที่จะสื่อสารในพจนานุกรม หนังสือ หรือเอกสารต่างๆ				
23. คิดเป็นภาษาไทยก่อนพุดภาษาอังกฤษออกไป				
24. อื่นๆ (โปรดระบุ)				

3. นักศึกษาเคยมีปัญหาในการเข้าใจสารที่ได้รับจากคู่สนทนาหรือไม่

เคย

ไม่เคย

ถ้าเคย นักศึกษาใช้วิธีการต่อไปนี้บ่อยเพียงใดเพื่อแก้ปัญหาเหล่านั้น

วิธีการแก้ปัญหาการสื่อสารภาษาอังกฤษ	ความถี่ในการใช้			
	สม่ำเสมอ / เกือบ สม่ำเสมอ	บ่อย	บางครั้ง	ไม่เคย/ เกือบ ไม่เคย
1. พยายามจับใจความสำคัญของคู่สนทนาที่สื่อออกมา				
2. สังเกตท่าทาง และการแสดงออกทางสีหน้าของคู่สนทนา				
3. ขอให้คู่สนทนาพุดซ้ำอีก				
4. ขอให้คู่สนทนาพุดช้าลง				
5. ขอให้คนรอบข้างช่วยอธิบายในสิ่งที่คู่สนทนาพุดให้กระจ่างมากขึ้นเพื่อให้นักศึกษาเข้าใจ				
6. ขอให้คู่สนทนาใช้คำ วลี หรือประโยคที่ง่ายขึ้น				
7. พุดซึ่งบ่งส่วนที่ยังไม่เข้าใจให้คู่สนทนาอธิบายโดยตรง				
8. ใส่ใจเป็นพิเศษในส่วนต้นของประโยค				

วิธีการแก้ปัญหาการสื่อสารภาษาอังกฤษ	ความถี่ในการใช้			
	สม่ำเสมอ / เกือบ สม่ำเสมอ	บ่อย	บางครั้ง	ไม่เคย/ เกือบ ไม่เคย
9. ใส่ใจการออกเสียงสูงต่ำในประโยค (Intonation) ของคู่สนทนา				
10. ขอให้คู่สนทนาพูดตัวอย่างเพิ่มเติมเพื่อให้นักศึกษาเข้าใจ				
11. พูดเบาๆซ้ำคำ วลี หรือประโยคที่คู่สนทนาพูด แล้วแปลเป็นภาษาไทย				
12. เคารพความหมายของคำ วลี หรือประโยคที่คู่สนทนาพูด				
13. อื่นๆ (โปรดระบุ)				

4. นักศึกษาเคยพยายามให้การสนทนาดำเนินต่อไปตามที่ตั้งใจหรือไม่

เคย

ไม่เคย

ถ้าเคย นักศึกษาใช้วิธีการต่อไปนี้บ่อยเพียงใดเพื่อช่วยให้การสนทนาดำเนินต่อไปตามที่ตั้งใจ

วิธีการแก้ปัญหาการสื่อสารภาษาอังกฤษ	ความถี่ในการใช้			
	สม่ำเสมอ / เกือบ สม่ำเสมอ	บ่อย	บางครั้ง	ไม่เคย/ เกือบ ไม่เคย
1. เมื่อสนทนาภาษาอังกฤษ นักศึกษาไม่รู้สึกกังวลถ้าออกเสียงคำศัพท์ผิด				
2. พยายามสนุกกับการสนทนา				
3. กล้าลองผิดลองถูกในขณะที่พูด				
4. เมื่อสนทนาภาษาอังกฤษ นักศึกษาไม่ใส่ใจโครงสร้างประโยคและไวยากรณ์มากเกินไป				
5. นักศึกษาไม่รู้สึกกังวลแม้ว่าจะพูดติดขัดและยังคงพยายามสนทนาต่อไป				
6. เตรียมคำพูดล่วงหน้าโดยพยายามคาดเดาสิ่งที่คู่สนทนาจะพูดจากบริบท				
7. พยายามพูดซ้ำๆ เพื่อให้การสนทนาดำเนินไปอย่างราบรื่น				
8. พูดโต้ตอบคู่สนทนาถึงแม้ว่านักศึกษายังไม่เข้าใจสิ่งที่ฟังเป็นอย่างดี				
9. พยายามทำตนเองให้ผ่อนคลายเมื่อรู้สึกว่าคุณเองกำลังวิตกกังวล				
10. อื่นๆ (โปรดระบุ)				

ขอขอบคุณในความร่วมมือ

APPENDIX G

A Strategy Questionnaire (The Translated Version)

A Strategy Questionnaire

Instructions: There are two main parts of this questionnaire:

Part 1: Personal Background of Students

Part 2: Communication Strategies for Coping with Oral Communication Problems

Part 1

Personal Background of students

Please provide the information about yourself by putting a tick (✓) in the box of the choices given or write the response where necessary.

1. Gender : Male Female
2. I'm studying at RMUT _____
3. I'm in my 1st year 2nd year 3rd year 4th year
4. In general, I have an opportunity to communicate in English: (you can choose more than one)
 - at home in the classrooms at tutoring institutes
 - while traveling abroad at tourist spots others (please specify) _____
5. My English ability is:
 - good/very good moderate poor/weak
6. Why do you rate your English ability in that level?

7. I think speaking skill is: (you can choose more than one)
 - easy difficult boring interesting
 - useful useless others (please specify) _____

Part 2
Communication Strategies for Coping with Oral Communication Problems

Instructions: The Communication Strategy Questionnaire (CSQ) is designed to gather information about how you cope 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 *one forth 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 *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 solve the problems?

Communication Strategy	Frequency of Your Own Communication Strategy Use			
	Always/ Almost always	Often	Sometimes	Never/ Almost never
1. Switching some unknown words or phrases into Thai	✓			

1. Have you got any oral communication problems while interacting in English?

Yes

No

If no, stop responding the questionnaire.

If yes, how often do the problems occur?

sometimes

often

always

And please respond to 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 solve the problems?

Communication Strategy	Frequency of Your Own Communication Strategy Use			
	Always/ Almost always	Often	Sometimes	Never/ Almost never
1. Switching some unknown words or phrases into Thai				
2. Correcting one's own pronunciation, grammar and lexical mistakes				
3. Using familiar words, phrases, or sentences				
4. Using circumlocution				
5. Using non-verbal expressions such as mime, gestures, and facial expressions				
6. Referring to objects or materials				
7. Drawing a picture				
8. Repeating words, phrases, or sentences a few times				
9. Spelling or writing out the intended words, phrases, or sentences				
10. Using fillers				
11. Appealing for assistance from the interlocutor				
12. Making use of expressions which have been previously learnt				
13. Making use of expressions found in some sources of media (e.g. movies, songs, or T.V.)				
14. Using synonym or antonym				
15. Making up a new word in order to communicate a desired concept (Word-coinage)				
16. Translating literally from Thai into English				
17. Keeping quiet while thinking about how to get a message across to the interlocutor				
18. Speaking more slowly to gain time to think				

Communication Strategy	Frequency of Your Own Communication Strategy Use			
	Always/ Almost always	Often	Sometimes	Never/ Almost never
19. Talking about something else to gain time to think				
20. Appealing for assistance from other people around				
21. Making a phone call to another person for assistance				
22. Referring to a dictionary, a book, or another type of document				
23. Thinking in Thai before speaking				
24. Others (please specify)				

3. Have you got any problems understanding the interlocutor's message?

Yes

No

If 'Yes', how often do you employ the following strategies to solve the problems?

Communication Strategy	Frequency of Your Own Communication Strategy Use			
	Always/ Almost always	Often	Sometimes	Never/ Almost never
1. Trying to catch the interlocutor's main point				
2. Noticing the interlocutor's gestures and facial expression				
3. Asking the interlocutor for a repetition				
4. Asking the interlocutor to slow down				
5. Appealing for assistance from other people around to clarify the interlocutor's message				
6. Asking the interlocutor to simplify the language				
7. Making clear to the interlocutor when one cannot perfectly catch the message				
8. Paying attention to the first part of the sentence				
9. Paying attention to the interlocutor's intonation				
10. Asking the interlocutor to give an example				
11. Repeating what the interlocutor has said softly and trying to translate into Thai				
12. Guessing the meaning of what the interlocutor has said				
13. Others (please specify)				

4. Have you tried to carry on the conversation as intended?

Yes

No

If 'Yes', how often do you employ the following strategies to help you carry on the conversation as intended?

Communication Strategy	Frequency of Your Own Communication Strategy Use			
	Always/ Almost always	Often	Sometimes	Never/ Almost never
1. Feeling all right for making wrong pronunciation				
2. Trying to enjoy the conversation				
3. Feeling all right for taking risks while speaking				
4. Paying little attention to grammar and structure				
5. Feeling all right if the conversation does not go smoothly by keeping speaking				
6. Preparing the message by trying to anticipate what the interlocutor is going to say based on the context				
7. Speaking slowly to keep the conversation going smoothly				
8. Responding to the interlocutor despite an imperfect understanding of the message				
9. Trying to relax when one feels anxious				
10. Others (please specify)				

Thank you very much for your co-operation

CURRICULUM VITAE

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