

Speaking Strategies of Effective and Ineffective English
Language Learners in the Thai Context

Walaiporn Sasanapradit

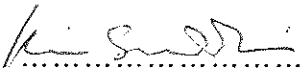
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เลขที่	PE 1068.T5	W35	2000
Order Key			C.2
Bib Key	20/478		
	21 ต.พ. 2543		

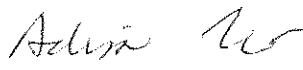
Master of Arts Thesis in Applied Linguistics
Prince of Songkla University
2000

Thesis Title Speaking Strategies of Effective and Ineffective
 English Language Learners in the Thai Context
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Major Program Applied Linguistics


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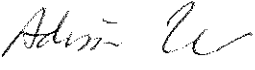
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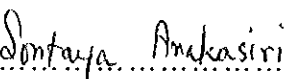
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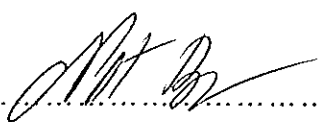
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ระดับความสัมพันธ์ระหว่างค่าเฉลี่ยของการใช้กลวิธีการพูดแต่ละชนิด กับความสามารถด้านการพูดของผู้เรียน

ผลการศึกษานี้ประกอบด้วยประเด็นที่น่าสนใจ 3 ประเด็นดังนี้

1. การศึกษาจำนวนชนิดของการใช้กลวิธีการพูดพบว่า กลุ่มอ่อนใช้กลวิธีการพูดชนิดต่างๆมากกว่ากลุ่มเก่ง แต่อย่างไรก็ตามกลุ่มเก่งใช้กลวิธีการพูดบ่อยครั้งกว่ากลุ่มอ่อน ผลการศึกษาแสดงว่าประชากรทั้ง 2 กลุ่มมีความสามารถถึงขั้นที่จะใช้กลวิธีการพูดได้ แต่ก็ยังจำเป็นที่จะต้องใช้กลวิธีการพูดเพื่อช่วยแก้ปัญหาการสื่อสาร

2. การเปรียบเทียบการใช้กลวิธีการพูดของทั้ง 2 กลุ่ม แสดงให้เห็นว่าโดยรวมแล้วทั้ง 2 กลุ่มมีแนวโน้มในการใช้แต่ละชนิดของกลวิธีการพูดที่เหมือนกัน ทั้งกลุ่มเก่งและกลุ่มอ่อนมีแนวโน้มที่จะใช้ กลวิธีที่อิงภาษาที่ 1 (L1-based strategies) ด้วยความถี่สูงสุด อย่างไรก็ตาม การศึกษาพบว่ามีความแตกต่างอย่างมีนัยสำคัญระหว่างกลุ่มเก่งและกลุ่มอ่อน กลุ่มเก่งใช้กลวิธีที่อิงภาษาที่ 2 (L2-based strategies) และใช้กลวิธีเพื่อให้เกิดความกระจ่าง (clarify function) บ่อยครั้งกว่ากลุ่มอ่อน นอกจากนี้ทั้ง 2 กลุ่ม ยังแตกต่างกันอย่างมีนัยสำคัญในแง่ของการใช้กลวิธีการพูดในระดับโครงสร้าง คือ ระดับประโยค และระดับคำ กลุ่มเก่งใช้โครงสร้างระดับประโยคมากกว่า ในขณะที่กลุ่มอ่อนใช้ระดับคำมากกว่า

3. การวิเคราะห์ค่าสัมประสิทธิ์สหสัมพันธ์ผนวกกับการวิเคราะห์เปรียบเทียบค่าเฉลี่ยของทั้ง 2 กลุ่ม แสดงให้เห็นว่าการใช้กลวิธีการพูดบางประเภทเกี่ยวข้องกับระดับความสามารถทางภาษาในระดับหนึ่ง เช่น กลวิธีที่อิงภาษาที่ 2 ในระดับโครงสร้างประโยค และการใช้กลวิธี เพื่อให้เกิดความกระจ่าง (clarify function) ช่วยให้เกิดประสิทธิภาพในการสื่อสารได้มากกว่ากลวิธีการพูดอื่นๆ

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Major Program	Applied Linguistics
Academic Year	2000

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is to investigate the use of speaking strategies of effective and ineffective English language learners in the Thai context. It was designed to determine whether there is any significant difference in the use of speaking strategies employed by the two groups of learners as well as to investigate the effectiveness of each speaking strategy.

The subjects in this study was thirty-three undergraduate students from the faculty of Science, Management Sciences and Engineering who have just finished the Conversation Course (335-103). All of them were then studying at Prince of Songkla University, Hat Yai Campus. The research required the 33 subjects to do two tasks: firstly, explaining eight individual lexical items comprising 4 concrete as well as 4 abstract concepts to the interlocutor who was the researcher herself; and secondly, describing two pictures. Data on the process and product of the experiment were collected and analyzed by using both quantitative and qualitative methods. The types of speaking strategies used by the Thai learners of English and the effectiveness of the use of each speaking strategy were analyzed. In order to find out whether there was any significant difference in the frequency of the use of each strategy between the two groups, t-test was used. In addition, the analysis of correlation was conducted to find

out the degree of association between the frequency of the use of each speaking strategy and speaking ability.

The major findings of this study consist of three main interesting points.

1. The investigation of the range of use of strategy types showed that the ineffective group used more types of strategy than did the effective group. However, the effective groups turned to strategies more often than did the ineffective. This suggested that the two groups reached minimum level of ability to make use of strategies. Still, they needed the strategies to help solve communication problems.

2. The comparison of the use of the two groups showed that on the whole, there was similar tendency of the use of each type of strategy in the two groups. Both effective and ineffective groups tended to use L1-based strategies most frequently. However, there were significant differences between the two groups. The effective groups were found to use L2-based strategies and the clarify function strategies more often than the ineffective. In addition, the two groups differed significantly in their use of strategies at different level of language structure: syntax and lexis. The effective group used more strategies at a sentence level whereas the ineffective group used more strategies at lexical level.

3. The results of the analysis of the correction coefficients combined with the analysis of the two group means suggest that the use of more strategies related, to a certain degree, to the level of proficiency. The strategy types such as those which are L2-based at syntactic level and the use of clarify function appeared to contribute to more effectiveness of communication.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I wish to express my gratitude to all the people who have helped and encouraged me to complete this thesis.

I am particularly grateful to Asst. Prof. Dr. Kritsri Samabuddhi, Asst. Prof. Dr. Monta Chatupute, and Asst. Prof. Dr. Adisa Teo for their supervision, guidance, encouragement, and invaluable comments in writing this thesis.

I am also indebted to all my instructors in the graduate courses who gave advice to me during this time and in different areas of study; Graduate School, Prince of Songkla University, Had Yai for its financial support of my study; Dr. Sakchai Kiripat for his contribution in statistical analysis of the data, Mr. Ben J. Worley and Mr. John Hamilton for their help in rating each learner in terms of their ability to communicate, and my friends in the Applied Linguistics program. I also would like to thank Tina Adam for her assistance with final revisions of this thesis.

I would like to sincerely thank those PSU undergraduate students who were willing to volunteer their time to be the subjects in this study.

Finally, I am very grateful to my parents and my younger sister who gave me encouragement and financial support.

Walaiporn Sasanapradit

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

This research was designed to study speaking strategies used by effective and ineffective Thai learners of English in a Thai context. This chapter is divided into six sections: rationale of the study, statement of the problem, purposes of the study, significance of the study, scope and limitations of the study, and finally definition of terms.

1. Rationale

Oral communication proficiency is an important skill language learners need to cultivate. It is the most difficult skill to develop because foreign/second language learners have little chance to be exposed to the language used in context. Moreover, they have to start learning it later in life, once another language has been well established. "This is even more true for learners of a foreign language whose exposure to the language is intermittent and mostly in the classroom setting, making the acquisition of that language more artificial" (Janicki, 1985; cited in Monta Chatupote, 1990). Foreign language learners often cannot make use of their knowledge, which has been learned in the classroom, in the real world. Or it may be possible that they do not have enough English background knowledge to express their ideas. As a result, when they graduate and enter their chosen careers such as English teachers, tour guides, or other jobs requiring the use of English, they often have difficulties in communication. In cases like these, many scholars agree that speaking

strategies could come to the rescue, and to bridge the gap between language supply and language demands.

Generally, the use of speaking strategies occurs naturally when learning one's first language, but learners of a second language may not necessarily be able to transfer these strategies to second language communication due to linguistic and affective constraints (Paribakht, 1985). Similarly, Thai learners who are in an EFL situation face many difficulties in their attempts to learn English in a non-English environment. There is the problem of a lack of natural input since English is not always present in the outside environment, and Thai learners may not feel entirely comfortable speaking English, even though they may have a strong background in grammar. In cases like these, more practice and opportunities to use the language can be helpful. In other cases where there is a lack of linguistic resources, whether it be the inability to retrieve the correct word or phrase at the moment of communication or a profound absence of vocabulary, but where the intention to communicate is strong, some researchers have suggested that there are ways to overcome these problems.

Some studies have been conducted to investigate the potential usefulness of specific training in the use of various communication strategies. Bialystok (1983) found that subjects who travel widely and speak more than two foreign languages are to be superior in their L2 strategy use. There is also some evidence that students in classroom settings, which offer more natural input, tend to develop a higher level of strategic competence (Tarone, 1984) than students in ordinary classrooms who generally use only a limited number of mostly unsophisticated communicative strategies (Willems, 1987).

In addition, Dornyei's research (1995) focuses on the training of three communicative strategies which offer both awareness and practice activities. Dornyei indicates that language classes do not generally prepare students to cope with performance problems, therefore, he assumes that an educational approach learners

might potentially benefit from is developing coping skills resulting from the direct teaching of communicative strategies. In Dornyei's study, subjects were divided into two groups: a treatment group and a control group. The treatment group showed an improvement in quality and quantity of strategy use (quality of circumlocutions and the frequency of fillers and circumlocutions). The research also found that students' attitudes towards such training were positive, indicating that training activities would be well received by students when used in the classroom.

Thai learners of English, as well as other foreign language learners, have to face problems in communicating and making themselves understood due to the lack of linguistic resources. The results of previous research seem to suggest that communication strategies can help solve communication problems resulting in success in delivering the message. However, when speaking strategies are used to solve problems in communication, there is no guarantee of their effectiveness because not all speaking strategies are equally effective in certain situations. Moreover, the same speaking strategies may not always be effective when used by different speakers or at different times.

Thus, it would be useful to study how Thai learners use communication strategies, as well as how these strategies relate to the effectiveness of communication. The insight gained from this study will be beneficial relating to pedagogical considerations, for example, whether communicative strategies should be taught in the classroom and to what extent each strategy contributes to the success of communication.

2. Statement of the Problems

Existing evidence shows that speaking strategies can help speakers cope with communication problems. However, there is little information about how effective and ineffective English language learners use speaking strategies; whether they use

similar or different types of communication strategies to help them succeed in their communication and also how effective each communication strategy is when used by different learners. For this reason, this study aims to investigate the choice of speaking strategies by different Thai learners of English and the degree to which each speaking strategy contributes to the success of communication.

3. Purpose of the Study

The main purpose of this study is to find answers to these questions.

1. How do effective and ineffective Thai learners of English differ in their choices of speaking strategies?
2. To what degree does each speaking strategy contribute to the effectiveness of communication?

4. Significance of the Study

This study should help to solve the problems Thai students experience in oral communication. The results of this study reveal the importance of using speaking strategies to manipulate linguistic resources in order to cope with the task of delivering the intended message. They indicate which speaking strategies are used by effective English learners to promote the effectiveness of communication. The differences in the choice of speaking strategies and how each strategy was used by effective and ineffective English learners could provide useful information for teaching speaking to English language learners. Furthermore, it would be helpful for teachers to know the relative effectiveness of various communication strategies, and to incorporate the teaching of these strategies into the language teaching.

5. Scope and Limitations of the Study

This study investigates the use of different speaking strategies by English learners in a Thai context.

Some limitations in this study are listed below.

1. Sample size

The sample size was limited because of the small number of students enrolled in conversation courses. Moreover, the selection of subjects was conducted on a voluntary basis. Thus, care should be taken in generalizing the findings of this study.

2. Data collection

To properly capture the subjects' speaking strategies, the data was recorded on a videotape which unfortunately created an unnatural setting. However, this limitation was rectified to a certain extent by establishing rapport between the interlocutor and the subjects. That is, the subjects and the interlocutor introduced themselves and engaged in conversation until the subjects seemed relaxed.

6. Definition of Terms

A. Speaking strategies

Speaking strategies, as part of communication strategies, may be defined as the conscious attempts either mutual or non-mutual between the user and the other interlocutor to bridge the gap between the language which the speaker has at his/her disposal and the language needed at the time of problematic oral communication.

B. Strategy types

According to Monta Chatupote's (1990) study, speaking strategies can be divided into two main categories: message achievement strategies and message avoidance strategies.

1. Message achievement strategies are strategies available for use when the learners decide to keep to their original message despite a lack of linguistic resources and/or knowledge about the content. They are of three main types: L1-based, L2 based, and other semiotic-based strategies.

1.1 L1-based strategies are the learners' attempts to use their mother tongue resources to communicate.

1.2 L2-based strategies are the learners' attempts to use their target language resources to communicate.

1.3 Other semiotic-based strategies are the attempts to use elements like facial expressions and gestures, shared knowledge, and concrete existence which have been taken into account as ones that help keep communication going.

2. Message avoidance strategies are strategies that learners can select when they wish to drop the intended but problematic message. Such a decision can be implemented in different ways at any stage of the interaction and in various degrees. They are divided into two groups: message avoidance with prior linguistic attempts and message avoidance without prior linguistic attempts.

C. Strategy functions

Strategy functions are the roles the attempts play in each situation. They are of three main types.

1. "Inform" is a strategy used to tell.

2. "Appeal" is a strategy that is used at "the time when the learner decides to signal to his/her interlocutor that s/he is experiencing a communicative problem and that s/he needs assistance" (Faerch and Kasper, 1983 : 51; cited in Monta Chatupote, 1990).

3. "Clarify" is a strategy used to make a fragment of communication clearer or easier to understand by giving more details or a simpler explanation. This strategy function is used whenever the speakers have already used "Inform" or "Appeal" but listeners cannot understand them or they feel that they have not made themselves understood.

Classification of strategy types and strategy functions will be dealt with in details in Chapter 3.

D. English language learners in this study refers to Thai learners who learn English as a foreign language. They were divided into two groups: ineffective and effective English language learners.

1. Ineffective English language learners, as adapted from Heaton's oral proficiency scales (1988) refers to three major levels of learners.

Level 1: Those who have extreme difficulties in communication in any subject. They fail to make themselves understood.

Level 2: Those whose language skills causes difficulty for native speakers unaccustomed to 'foreign' English. Communication on everyday topics is possible. There are a large number of errors in phonology, grammar and lexis.

Level 3: Those whose use of verbal communication is fairly satisfactory. The native speaker may occasionally experience some difficulty in understanding people at this level. Repetition, rephrasing and re-patterning are sometimes necessary. Ordinary, native speakers might find the conversation difficult to understand.

2. Effective English language learners, as adapted from Heaton's oral proficiency scales (1988) refer to three groups of learners at the following levels of ability:

Level 4: Learners who show satisfactory verbal communication causing little difficulty for native speakers in understanding them. They make a limited number of errors in grammar, lexis and pronunciation, and they are at ease in

communicating on everyday subjects. They may have to correct themselves and change their speech pattern on occasions, but the listener has little difficulty in understanding them.

Level 5: Those who are very proficient, although they may not be mistaken for a native speaker. They express themselves quite clearly.

Level 6: Those who are excellent; their ability to communicate in English is on par with an educated native speaker. They are completely at ease in their use of English on all topics.

E. Effectiveness of communication in this study can be defined as the level of success in making listeners understand the intended message, as rated by native speakers.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

EFL learners can be competent in linguistics but incompetent in actual communication because they cannot make use of their knowledge outside a classroom setting. This phenomenon is in concordance with Allwright's (1979 : 26) statement which claims: "English language learners failed to use what they got inside the classroom in the outside world". In a case like this, communication strategies can play a major role in helping EFL learners to achieve the target in communication. As such, these strategies might be considered a key to success in communication.

The notion of second language communication strategies was first raised during the early 1970s. This stemmed from the recognition of the mismatch between L2 speakers' linguistic resources and communicative intentions which resulted in a number of systematic language phenomena called communication strategies. They come into play to handle the difficulties or breakdowns in communication.

This chapter is divided into three sections: evolution of concepts of communication strategies, some experimental research in communication strategies, and factors involving the use of speaking strategies.

1. Evolution of Concepts of Communication Strategies

In 1972, the term “communication strategy” first appeared in the literature of language studies. Many researchers have sought to clarify its meaning by trying to provide a precise definition for it.

Selinker (1972) first coined the term “communication strategies” in his seminal paper on “interlanguage”, discussing “strategies of second language communication” as one of the five central processes involved in L2 learning. He gave a very vague definition of it as “an identifiable approach by the learner to communicate with native speakers”. His definition did not specify any particular type of approach or approaches nor did it indicate any specific conditions under which the learner’s approach could distinctly be classified as a communication strategy. Hence, there is confusion not only between strategies and processes but also types of strategies. However, Selinker was among the first to recognize that second language learners could express meaning with limited target knowledge by using communication strategies.

A year later, Varadi, 1973 (cited in Tarone, 1977; Galvan and Campbell, 1979) proposed a definition of communication strategies as “a conscious attempt to communicate the learner’s thought when the interlanguage (Target language) structures are inadequate to convey that thought”. He also stressed that a communication strategy was “a conscious attempt” on the part of the learner to modify his/her linguistic behavior in some way.

In 1976, with Cohen and Dumas, Tarone defined communication strategies as “a systematic attempt by the learners to express or decode meaning in the target language (TL) in situations where the appropriate systematic TL rules have not been formed.” (Tarone, 1981 : 287). A year later, she proposed a revised definition of communication strategies (Tarone, 1977 : 194) as “conscious communication strategies used by an individual to overcome a crisis which occurs when language

structures are inadequate to express the individual's thought." In this later definition, Tarone replaced the unsatisfactory term "systematic attempt" with the idea of a "conscious attempt" by the learners. She also focused on the learner's need to solve a problem (to overcome a crisis), but ignored the decoding of meaning.

Corder (1978) agreed that communication strategies were employed by all users of the language when there was a lack either in content or language or when faced with difficulties in expressing their meaning. According to Corder, when learners have an inadequate command of the language to cope with the demand to express themselves, they can either tone down the message they want to convey to the level that their linguistic resources can cope with, or try to keep to the target message and attempt to express it in any way they can.

Varadi (1980) introduced the idea of the need to cope with a problem in communication as a necessary feature of all communication strategies. He recognized two major types of communication strategies which he called "reduction" and "replacement" strategies. The former was used by a learner when s/he "deliberately sacrifices a part of the meaning s/he originally wanted to communicate" and the latter was used in the "manipulation of optimal meaning".

Tarone (1980 : 419) attempted again to define the concept of communication strategies. This time it was, "a mutual attempt of two interlocutors to agree on meaning in situations where requisite meaning structures do not seem to be shared." (Meaning structures here include both linguistic structures and sociolinguistic structures). This implies that "the negotiation of meaning as a joint effort between the interlocutors is central to the concept of communication strategies" (Faerch and Kasper, 1979 : 51). Tarone classified communication strategies into three groups: "avoidance", "paraphrase", and "borrowing" strategies. Under "avoidance", she subsumed topic avoidance and message abandonment. She classified paraphrase into approximation, word coinage, and circumlocution. As for the last group, borrowing strategies, literal translation, language switch, appeal and mime were listed.

According to Tarone (1980 : 419), to be considered as communication strategies, it is necessary for such a phenomenon to fulfill all of the following criteria:

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:
 - a. Avoid— not attempt to communicate meaning x or
 - b. Attempt alternative means to communicate meaning x. The speaker stops trying alternatives when it seems clear to the speaker that there is shared meaning.

Canale and Swain (1980; cited in Monta Chatupote, 1990 : 12) define strategic competence as “verbal and non-verbal communication strategies that may be called into action to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to performance variables or to insufficient competence”. These strategies were of two main types: those that relate primarily to grammatical competence and those that relate more to sociolinguistic competence. In other words, strategic competence referred to the ability to get one’s meaning across successfully to the other interlocutor, especially when problems arose in the communication process. Dornyei and Thurrell (1991) stated that strategic competence was relevant to both L1 and L2 since communication breakdowns occur and have to be overcome, not only in a foreign language, but in one’s mother tongue as well. These communication strategies can also be useful for foreign language learners when they have difficulties in communication. Moreover, Canale and Swain (1980) suggested that almost all learners’ utterances are produced with the help of communication strategies which involve many variables. Their definition of communication strategies was as follows:

the means through which attempt to keep communication going despite the insufficient availability of target language resources, either temporarily or as a result of the learner’s developmental stage and /or knowledge of the topic and /or of knowledge about the other interlocutor. (Canale and Swain, 1980; cited in Monta Chatupote, 1990 : 12)

Corder (1981) divides the communication strategies into two main types: message adjustment strategies and resource expansion strategies. Message adjustment strategies or risk avoidance strategies involve the adjustment of one's message. For resource expansion or achievement strategies (or risk-running strategies), the learners attempt to continue the conversation. These strategies consist of co-operative and non-cooperative types. The former involves the learner's appeal for help to his/her interlocutor as in the example "What do you call ...?" or using indirect form (e.g. by means of a pause, eye gaze, etc.) The latter deals with the learner's attempt to overcome the problem using his/her own methods by using paraphrase or circumlocution, approximation, non-linguistic means, and borrowed or invented words.

In 1983, Bialystok divided communication strategies into two types: L1-based strategies and L2-based strategies according to the source of the semiotic system upon which they are based.

Faerch and Kasper (1984) argue that Tarone's specification "a mutual attempt of two interlocutors" is not necessarily restricted to a face to face situation (e.g., conversation) where at least two interlocutors are present and both cooperate in trying to solve problems of mutual communication. The definition was an interactional one in which it necessarily implied not only that the listener was aware of the speaker's communication problem, but also that the listener actively engaged in helping the speaker to solve that problem. Faerch and Kasper summarize the characteristics of such an interactional definition of communication strategies as follows (1984 : 60):

1. The learner's problem is marked in performance either by an implicit/explicit signal of uncertainty or by a direct appeal.
2. The signal is interpreted by the interlocutor as an appeal.
3. The interlocutor acts in a cooperative manner and helps the learner communicate his or her intended message.

Faerch and Kasper (1984 : 47) define communication strategies as “potentially conscious plans for solving what to an individual presents itself as a problem in reaching a particular communicative goal.” This definition takes the psychological aspect of the learner into consideration which emphasizes the role of planning at every stage of communication. From their point of view, the plan which is utilized in the solving of the problem is the actual communication strategy. Faerch and Kasper (1984 : 48) divide the plans into two types according to the types of behavior that language users may adopt when faced with a communication problem; they can either adopt avoidance behavior-thereby renouncing their original communication goal; or they can rely on achievement behavior-attempting to maintain their original aim by developing an alternative plan. These two types of behavior correspond to two fundamentally different types of communication strategies: avoidance behavior (which manifests itself in reduction strategies), and achievement behavior (which underlies achievement strategies). In planning problematic communication, learners could use either achievement or reduction strategies.

Faerch and Kasper also identify two subcategories of reduction strategies, namely, formal reduction-affecting the forms and structures of an utterance, and functional reduction-affecting the semantic content or meaning of an utterance. In the planning process learners could avoid errors in the use of language by using formal reduction strategies, which keeps to the reduced system that they have already mastered, concentrating on only the rules and patterns already known. A second option would be choosing to avoid the goal if they became aware of the mismatch between their linguistic resources and their needs in that particular situation. In other words, they decide to use a functional reduction strategy. However, in such circumstance, they could also choose to achieve the goal by using achievement strategies.

Faerch and Kasper (1984 : 50) divide achievement strategies into two subcategories: non-cooperative and cooperative. Non-cooperative strategies can be defined as the expression of the communicative goal in an alternative way. These strategies are further subclassified into three types according to the communicative resources on which the individual draws to compensate for the unavailable or inaccessible linguistic means. The three types consist of L1/L3 based, IL-based, and nonlinguistic strategies.

L1/L3-based strategies involve the learner using features of either his/her native language, or a second or foreign language. This strategy is referred to as code switching, foreignization and literal translation.

IL-based strategies comprise various ways of problem solving based on the learner's IL (interlanguage) knowledge. They are of six types: substitution, generalization, description, exemplification, word coinage, and restructuring.

Nonlinguistic strategy may consist of mime including gestures and sound imitation.

Cooperative strategies are the reaching of a solution to a problem with the interlocutor's assistance. The cooperative problem solving activity is initiated by a direct or indirect appeal performed by one of the interlocutors.

In the second half of the 1980s, The Netherlands became the dominant center of the study of communication strategies. A group of researchers at Nijmegen University carried out a large-scale empirical project. Their results shed light on various aspects of communication strategies use, as well as challenging some parts of previous taxonomies (Bongaerts & Poullisse 1989; Bongaerts, Kellerman & Bentlage, 1987; Kellerman, 1991; Kellerman, Bongaerts & Poullisse, 1990; Poullisse, 1987; Poullisse & Schils, 1989; Poullisse, Bongaerts & Kellerman, 1987).

They criticize the existing classifications of communication strategies as being product-oriented. In existing taxonomies, different types of strategies can be distinguished on the basis of the resources, namely source language, target language

and gestures. They argue that focusing on the product would make it impossible to capture the cognitive process underlying communication strategies. Instead, they propose an alternative, a process-oriented approach which attempts to describe differences in the underlying process rather than the resulting products.

Currently, there is still a lack of consensus on a typology of communication strategies. Nevertheless, previous research based on different methods of typology appears to suggest that there is a relationship between the use of communication strategies and proficiency level, and there are some effects of task on the choice of strategy types.

2. Some Experimental Research in Communication Strategies

The majority of empirical studies on the use of communication strategies have investigated the process of strategy selection as well as the effectiveness of the communication strategies chosen. For example, Haastrup and Philipson (1983) examined the choice of communication strategy made by Danish students in general conversations with native speakers of English. They used L1-based strategies and IL-based strategies proposed by Faerch and Kasper (1983) as the criterion to work on achievement strategies. They found that the use of interlanguage-based communication strategies was more successful in communication than L1-based communication strategies because IL-based strategies often lead to full comprehension. The frequency of the use of L1-based communication strategies, however, was higher than interlanguage-based communication strategies.

Paribakht (1985 : 132-146) studied the nature of the relationship between speakers' proficiency level in the target language and their use of communication strategies. The results of the study revealed that "types of communication strategies used by the speakers varies according to their target language proficiency level" and "the relative frequency of the use of different types of communication strategies also

varies according to their proficiency level.” The study indicates that these speakers with different target language proficiency levels not only draw upon different communication strategies to solve their communication problems, but also use different proportions of these communication strategies to do so. This study also found that in solving communication problems at the earlier stages of L2 learning, learners draw more often on their other knowledge sources, such as world and paralinguistic knowledge. This approach compensates for the limitations of their target language knowledge. At more advanced stages of their L2 learning, this was not the case. Therefore, according to these findings, it can be concluded that the speakers’ selection and employment of communication strategies and their level of target language proficiency are closely related.

Poulisse and Schils (1989), using process-oriented taxonomy in conducting their research, found that there is an inverse relationship between proficiency level and the use of communication strategies—less proficient subjects produced more communication strategies than did the more proficient speakers. This effect was small, however, perhaps because even the speakers with the lowest ability were linguistically competent enough to use communication strategies. In addition, task related factors such as the presence or absence of an interlocutor and whether the task was timed, seems to have an effect on the selection of communication strategies. For example, circumlocution, the most informative and time-consuming communication strategies, was used most heavily in the item-naming task where there was no time limitation and no interlocutor present.

Although the lack of consensus on a typology of communication strategies has hampered the building of theory on the relationship between communication strategies use and second language acquisition, the research suggests that there is a relationship between communication strategies use and proficiency level continuum. Beginning level speakers tend to lack the vocabulary to employ communication strategies, while native speakers resort to them only rarely. Within those extremes,

communication strategy use declines as proficiency increases, and L2-based communication strategies increasingly become the strategy type of choice as linguistic competence improves.

Monta Chatupote's (1990) study titled, "Communicative Strategies: Their Potential in Communication and Learning," intended to illustrate how each strategy could be used in real time with reference to their occurrences in the corpus. The study also aimed to find out which types of strategies were used by learners of different sexes and levels of ability, and also any factors that might influence their choice. Monta Chatupote investigated how learners use the communication strategies both in a writing task and a speaking task. The results of the writing task revealed that there is no association between level of language ability or gender of the learner, and choice of strategy type or strategy function. This is because hedging or abandonment of a message cannot be seen. There were virtually no appeals and very few clarifications, common to a writing task. The results of the speaking task revealed that the choice of strategy type varies with language ability, but it did not vary with the gender of the learner. However, the choice of strategy function varied with gender of the learner, but not with language ability. The choice of message avoidance strategies varies neither with the level of language ability nor the gender of the learner. Therefore, according to the results of the speaking task, it can be concluded that there is an association between the level of language ability of learners and choice of strategy type.

Chen Si-Qing (1990) studied the nature of the relationship between L2 learners' target language proficiency and their strategic competence. Twelve Chinese EFL learners with both high and low proficiency in the target language employed 220 communication strategies in communication with native speakers. The results of the study indicate that the frequency, type, and effectiveness of communication strategy employed by the learners varies according to their proficiency level. Their strategic competence is another variable affecting the increase and decrease of the

effectiveness of communication, and the frequency and type of communication strategies used. This finding supports the hypothesis that learners' communicative competence could probably be increased by development of their strategic competence.

Poulisse and Schils (1994) studied the effect of foreign language learners' proficiency level on compensatory strategies used by these learners to solve lexical problems. The effect of task-related factors on compensatory strategies was examined at the same time. The study involved three groups of Dutch learners of English at three different proficiency levels. The subjects were tested on three different tasks: a picture naming/description task, a story retell task, and an oral interview with a native speaker of English. It appears that "proficiency level" is inversely related to the number of compensatory strategies used by the subjects: the most advanced subjects used fewer compensatory strategies than did the lesser proficient ones. The findings show that the further learners progressed in English, the less they use compensatory strategies because communication strategies are employed when learners are confronted with problems in communicating.

Judith E. Liskin-Gasparro (1996) studied the use of communication (i.e., lexical repair) strategies, particularly circumlocution, by speakers at high-intermediate and advanced levels of oral proficiency in Spanish. All of the instances of communication strategies used in oral proficiency interviews by 17 high-intermediate level speakers and 13 advanced speakers were analyzed to discover what strategies were favored by speakers at each level. The results of the study revealed that advanced speakers employ more L2-based strategies than do intermediate speakers, and this phenomenon is not limited to circumlocution.

The majority of the previous studies' findings clearly indicate that the learners' use of communication strategies vary according to their proficiency level. However, there is still no conclusive evidence as to the degree each speaking strategy

contributes to the overall effectiveness of communication because the findings vary according to the subjects' proficiency.

This study aims to investigate the speaking strategies used by students attending Prince of Songkhla University in an attempt to assess how effective and ineffective English language learners differ in their choice of speaking strategy, and to what degree each speaking strategy contributes to the effectiveness of communication.

3. Factors Involving the Use of Speaking Strategies

Speaking strategies are commonly used to combat problems in the production process. However, it is not easy to use them efficiently because there are many factors affecting the use of speaking strategies such as cultural differences, level of proficiency, the learners' personality type and learning style.

A major factor is cultural differences between speaker and listener. There have long been some doubts as to whether language controls culture or whether culture controls language. Lado (1957 : 7) stated that "no real learning of a language can be accomplished without understanding something of the patterns and values of the culture." This statement implies that effective language learners have to deeply understand both the language and culture of the language with which they are involved. Generally, people tend to carry their standard collection of behaviors and beliefs over to their communication in another culture. This carry over can lead to a mismatch of understanding between the speaker and the listener. For example, a subject in this study saw a picture of chopsticks in task B (See Appendix A-B), but at the time she could not retrieve that particular word in English. Fortunately, she possesses sufficient background knowledge about the cultures of Japan and China in which chopsticks are used as eating utensils. She could thus explain "chopsticks", as, "the tool of eating for Japanese and Chinese; the piece of couple long thin wood to

keep the food into the mouth.” Expressing herself in such a way enabled the communication to continue. Thus, it can be seen that the success in communication not only relies on learners’ selection of speaking strategies types but also on a profound understanding of the language and beliefs of the culture from which the language stems, and of course the ability to apply that knowledge in the different culture.

The second important element involved in the use of speaking strategies is the learners’ level of proficiency in English as a foreign language. Chomsky (1959) claims that all children are born with a language acquisition device (LAD)—a special innate mechanism allowing humans to learn and use a language with ease. However, people vary greatly in many important areas: physical, emotional, social, and mental. As mentioned before, many researchers such as Tarone (1977) and Ellis (1984) have found that the type and frequency of speaking strategies used varies according to the learners’ language proficiency. Ellis further suggests that there is a strong possibility that the use of mime declines with increased competence. Paribakht (1985) found that at the earlier stages of L2 learning, learners draw more often on other knowledge sources (such as paralinguistic knowledge) in order to compensate for the limitations of their knowledge of the target language than they do at more advanced stages of L2 learning. In addition, Monta Chatupote (1990) found that there is an association between levels of language competence and the choice of strategy type. A higher ability group is capable of employing L2-based strategies more frequently than L1-based ones, while other semiotic system-based strategies are very rarely used by any group. Therefore, the level of the target language proficiency of the learners is another factor influencing the use of speaking strategies.

The third factor affecting the use of speaking strategies is the personality type and learning style of the learner. Anxious learners who experience feelings of uneasiness, frustration, self-doubt or worry during the learning of English as a communication medium, cannot think, learn and speak as well as those who do not.

Thus, their use of speaking strategies may fail because they lack both the opportunity and the confidence to speak and express their thoughts. Reflective learners are people who are slow to communicate with their interlocutor because they take a long time to process their thoughts, and tend to make more calculated decisions. These speakers deliberate in selecting speaking strategies when communicating. Self-repair strategies are always used by this kind of learner (Brown, 1994). Impulsive learners, on the other hand, are quick to converse to their interlocutor because they generally do not take a long time to think before speaking. They like to make guesses regardless of the accuracy of their suppositions. It can be seen that this kind of learner tends to use speaking strategies more frequently than do reflective or anxious learners.

CHAPTER 3

SPEAKING STRATEGIES

Introduction

Communication can generally be both oral and written. Therefore, communication strategies are likely to refer to strategies used in both speaking and writing. However, the types of strategies used in speaking and writing may differ, and as a result, the term “communication strategies” is probably too broad for this study which will focus only on the use of strategies in oral interaction. This study will adopt the term ‘speaking strategies’ in order to narrow down the scope of the term “communication”. The term ‘speaking strategies’ has never been used in any research on the use of strategies in communication, despite the fact that most of the research has been done on oral communication. It may, then, be possible to assume that the term “communication strategies” in most studies is used to refer to “speaking strategies.” Thus, literature on communication strategies will be investigated for definition, taxonomies, and findings to be used as the foundation of this study.

This chapter includes three sections: definition of speaking strategies used in the study, review of inventories and classifications of communication strategies, and framework of taxonomies of speaking strategies used in this study.

1. Definition of Speaking Strategies Used in This Study

Communication strategies have been investigated for a long period of time and many definitions and taxonomies have been proposed by various researchers. Corder (1977 : 12) points out very clearly that "all speakers, native or otherwise, adopt communication strategies" as part of their tools in communication. However, one may expect that the types of strategies and the frequency of use vary in communication between native speakers and language learners, and also between that of different learners. According to Canale and Swain (1980), communication strategies can be called into action to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to performance variables or insufficient competence. These strategies are of two main types: those that relate primarily to grammatical competence and those that relate more to sociolinguistic competence. Tarone (1981 : 288) defines a communication strategy as "a mutual attempt of two interlocutors to agree on a meaning in situations where requisite meaning structures do not seem to be shared", while Faerch and Kasper (1983 : 36) define it as "potentially conscious plan for solving what to an individual presents itself as a problem in reaching a particular communication goal".

Three common elements are involved in these definitions: a problem in communication due to the shortage of language supply available for use at that time, mutuality in the production, and consciousness in the operation. This study views speaking strategies as tools or attempts to keep the communication going either when speakers lack the balance between language demands and language supply, or when speakers are unable to recall the language elements needed at that time. The shortage of supply can be a real shortage (i.e., the speaker has no knowledge of the language needed at that time), or it can be a temporary one (i.e., the language needed cannot be readily brought into use). The latter case usually occurs in oral communication when there is no time for the speaker to search for stored language which sometimes cannot

be retrieved immediately. Hence, speakers have to fall back upon speaking strategies in order to keep the communication going; they have to intentionally choose ways to deal with the message. Initially, a decision is made as to whether to drop or to keep the intended message. If the decision is to keep the message, the question then becomes how it will be kept. As a result, the plan must be conscious. The plan can be designed to be executed by the speaker alone, or to include the listeners as contributors to the success or failure of the communication. In short, the term "speaking strategies" in this study takes into account that problems exist in communication which require the speaker to use such a strategy. The plan to use speaking strategies must be conscious, and the person involved in solving the problem can either be the speaker alone or both the speaker and his/her interlocutor.

With these considerations, this study defines the term "speaking strategies" as **the conscious attempts, either mutual or non-mutual, between the user and the other interlocutor to bridge the gap between the language which the speaker has at his/her disposal and the language needed at the time of problematic oral communication.**

2. Review of Inventories and Classifications of Communication Strategies

Communication strategies have been defined and grouped in many different ways. The terminologies used and their levels of specificity tend to vary a great deal. Nevertheless, the corresponding parts of taxonomies by, for example, Tarone (1977); Bialystok, (1983); Paribakht, (1985); Faerch and Kasper, (1984); Willems, (1987); Bialystok, (1990); Poulisse, (1993); Dornyei and Scott, (1995a, 1995b); the Nijmegen Group; and Monta Chatupote, (1990) show many similarities. Bialystok (1990 : 61) observed this basic convergence around similar concepts as follows:

the variety of taxonomies proposed in the literature differs primarily in terminology and overall categorizing principal rather than in the substance of the specific strategies. If

we ignore differences in the structure of the taxonomies by abolishing the various overall categories, then a core group of specific strategies that appear consistently across the taxonomies clearly emerges.

Many attempts have been made to capture various types of communication strategies. Some researchers manage only to list observable communication strategies, some tried grouping them broadly, some based their grouping on a cognitive approach, while one based their grouping on a systemic approach.

Earlier work by Tarone (1977, 1981) can be seen as a mere listing. No attempts were made to group communication strategies into categories. The term "message achievement strategies" had not been coined before her study, and she listed only some subtypes of message achievement strategies: paraphrase, approximation, word coinage, circumlocution, borrowing, literal translation, and language switch along with message abandonment strategies.

Further attempts to group communication strategies resulted first in broad groupings. This can be seen in the work of Bialystok, 1983; Paribakht, 1985; Faerch and Kasper, (1984); Willems, (1987); and Dornyei and Scott, (1995a), (1995b), which concentrated on different aspects.

Bialystok's categories of communication strategies consist of three major groups: L1/L3-based strategies, L2-based strategies and paralinguistic-based strategies. Different terminologies were used for basically similar phenomena as those identified by Tarone. For example, "transliteration" is "literal translation" termed by Tarone (1977) and "descriptions" is "approximation or circumlocution". Bialystok's study listed achievement strategies in terms of the language they were based on (L1/L3, L2 and other semiotic-based strategies), but it did not include message avoidance strategies.

Paribakht, on the other hand, grouped communication strategies into four major classes based on the type of knowledge utilized by the speaker. They are: the linguistic approach, which exploits the semantic features of the target item reflecting the speaker's formal analysis of meaning, the contextual approach, which exploits

his/her knowledge of the content when the problem item occurred; the conceptual approach, which exploits his/her general knowledge of the world; and mime, which exploits his/her knowledge of meaningful gestures.

The taxonomy of communication strategies proposed by Faerch and Kasper (1984), and Willems, (1987) incorporates most of the significant features of earlier communication strategies taxonomies. They divide communication strategies into message achievement and message avoidance, which are two main ways of handling a message. Message achievement strategies are those available for use when the learners decide to keep their original message despite a lack of linguistic resources and/or knowledge about the content of the communication. Message avoidance strategies are strategies that the learners can select when they drop the intended, but problematic message.

Bialystok and Willems's taxonomy use two criteria for classifying the communication strategies: the handling of message (i.e. message achievement and message avoidance), and the language on which communication strategies are based.

Another group of broad categories can be seen in the work of Dornyei and Scott (1995a, 1995b). They first classified the strategies according to the manner of problem management; that is, how communication strategies contribute to resolving conflicts and achieving mutual understanding. They divided communication strategies into three basic categories: (a) direct strategies, which consist of providing an alternative, manageable, and self-contained methods of getting the (sometimes-modified) meaning across, like circumlocution compensating for the lack of a word; (b) interactional strategies, which are neither strictly problem-solving devices nor alternative meaning structures. What they do is rather to facilitate the conveyance of meaning indirectly by creating the same conditions for achieving mutual understanding: preventing breakdowns and keeping the communication channel open (e.g., using fillers or feigning understanding) or indicating less-than-perfect forms that require extra effort to understand (using strategy markers or hedges.); and (c) indirect

strategies which involve carrying out trouble-shooting exchanges cooperatively (e.g., appeal for and grant help or request for and provide clarification). Mutual understanding, therefore, is the key to the successful execution of the exchange.

The cognitive-based classification was the work of the Nijmegen Group, Bialystok (1990), and Poulisse (1993). In an attempt to place communication strategies into a parsimonious cognitive framework, the Nijmegen Group divided compensatory strategies into two principal categories, "conceptual" and "linguistic" strategies. Using the conceptual strategy, speakers "manipulate the concept so that it becomes expressible through their available linguistic resources" (Kellerman, 1991 : 149; cited in Dornyei and Scott 1997). According to their theory, two types of conceptual strategies are: analytic (spelling out characteristic features of the concept e.g., circumlocution) and holistic (using a substitute referent which shares characteristics with the target item e.g., approximation). Linguistic strategies involve manipulating the speaker's linguistic knowledge through either morphological creativity (e.g., grammatical word coinage) or transfer (code-switch, foreignizing, literal translation).

Bialystok (1990 : 133-134) developed a psychologically plausible system of communication strategies which was similar to that of the Nijmegen Group, but contained different categories. In accordance with her cognitive theory of language processing, Bialystok conceptualized two main classes of communication strategies as "analysis-based" and "control-based" strategies. The analysis-based strategy involves attempts "to convey the structure of the intended concept by making explicit the relational defining features". The process of analysis makes these relations explicit by extracting them from contextualized domains of meanings and representing them as relational structures. The control-based strategy involves "choosing a representational system that is possible to convey and makes explicit information relevant to the identity of the intended concept", that is, holding the original content constant and manipulating the means of reference used to express the concept. In

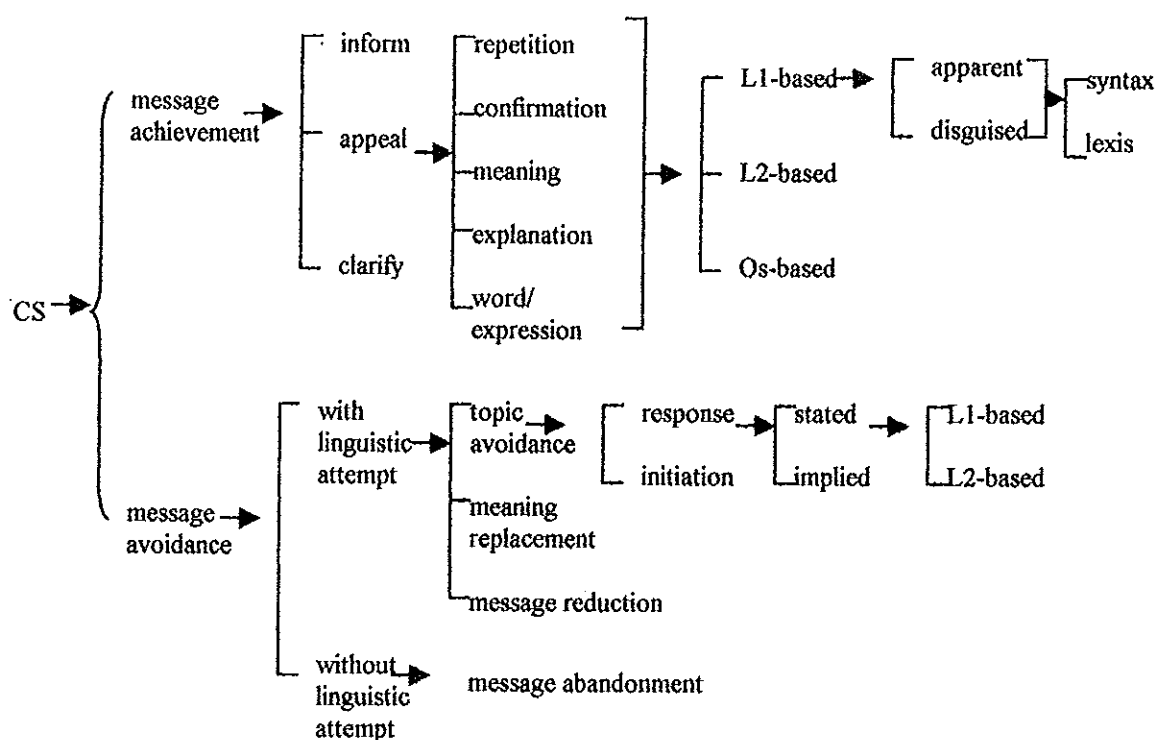
processing terms, the strategy consists of switching attention from the linguistic system being used, and focusing instead on some other symbolic reference systems that can accomplish the same communicative function.

Kellerman and Bialystok (in press) have made an important attempt to synthesize the Nijmegen taxonomy with Bialystok's (1990) framework by positing a 2-by-2 matrix in which conceptual and linguistic knowledge representations (meaning and form) intersect with language processing operations (analysis and control). Although the matrix suggests that analysis and control are exclusive categories, the authors emphasized that these two cognitive functions occur "simultaneously in language processing, although with varying significance, thus forming a continuum" (Dornyei and Scott, 1997).

The systemic approach was brought into the classification of communication strategies by Monta Chatupote, (1990) who claims that since communication strategies were tools which speakers could use when confronting problems in communication, their principal systems could be viewed as parallel to that of language, which was itself a tool for communication. The three meaning components in language proposed by Halliday--ideational, interpersonal and textual meaning--were to be realized by three systems of communication strategies which occur at the same time--message handling, speech acts, and semiotic systems on which communication strategies could be based. The realization of communication strategies has to go through a network which is a system of choices. Message avoidance and message achievement strategies (i.e. the handling of message) are the starting point of an operation. After the decision concerning the handling of the message is made, the next stage is to choose a speech act to perform. There are three main types of speech acts to choose from: to inform, to appeal or to clarify if the feature message achievement is chosen. In contrast, if the feature message avoidance is chosen, the speech acts will be to opt out. Avoidance of the problematic message may be done in two ways: to avoid it without any apparent attempt to express it

linguistically, or to avoid it after some unsuccessful attempts are made. The last criterion is related to the language that the communication strategies are based on, L1, L2 or other semiotic systems. If L1 is chosen, the L1-based strategies can either be apparent (that is, in original L1 form), or in disguise. If it is a disguised one, the production may look like strange L2 and, upon further investigation, may prove to be derived from an L1 in its formation. Then the operation moves on to the level of linguistic phenomena, syntax and lexis, and finally reaches the concluding realization. (Monta Chatupote, 1990).

The operation network in its most simplified form may be seen as follows:



3. Taxonomies of Speaking Strategies Used in This Study

This study adapted Monta Chatupote's (1990) taxonomies for use. It appears that systemic analysis of communication strategies contributes to a better

understanding of the complex process in using different types of strategies to assist in communication. Communication strategies can apparently be grouped into various types, and further sub-grouped into smaller units belonging to different ranks. The primary advantage of the system network is that it generates a finite set of communication strategies available for use which makes it possible to classify and organize all possible communication strategies into groups without problems of overlapping.

Monta Chatupote's operation network and her three criteria which are message handling, speech acts; and semiotic systems on which communication strategies can be based were used as a framework in analyzing speaking strategies with a few modifications. In the analysis of the corpus obtained from the pilot study, it was found that there were interesting features of some strategies which were not defined by Monta Chatupote's classification. For example, for the "clarify" function, it was found that the subjects used L1-based strategies, namely code switch, borrowing, L1 syntax, L2 lexis, direct translation of L1 word to elaborate, to give meaning, to give example and to add information. Thus, in order to capture all possible features of the strategies occurring in the corpus, Monta Chatupote's taxonomies have been modified as follows:

1. The clarify function of L1-based strategies has been adapted to include 16 types by including code switch, borrowing, L1 syntax, L2 lexis and direct translation of L1 word in elaborating, giving meaning, giving example, and adding information.

1.1 (message achievement: L1-based/apparent/syntax)→code switch-elaborating

1.2 (message achievement: L1-based/apparent/syntax)→code switch-giving meaning

1.3 (message achievement: L1-based/apparent/syntax)→code switch-adding information

- 1.4 (message achievement: L1-based/apparent/syntax)→code switch-giving example
- 1.5 (message achievement: L1-based/apparent/lexis)→borrowing-elaborating
- 1.6 (message achievement: L1-based/apparent/lexis)→borrowing-giving meaning
- 1.7 (message achievement: L1-based/apparent/lexis)→borrowing-adding information
- 1.8 (message achievement: L1-based/apparent/lexis)→borrowing-giving example
- 1.9 (message achievement: L1-based/disguised/syntax)→L1 syntax, L2 lexis-elaborating
- 1.10 (message achievement: L1-based/disguised/syntax)→L1 syntax, L2 lexis-giving meaning
- 1.11 (message achievement: L1-based/disguised/syntax)→L1 syntax, L2 lexis-adding information
- 1.12 (message achievement: L1-based/disguised/syntax)→L1 syntax, L2 lexis-giving example
- 1.13 (message achievement: L1-based/disguised/lexis)→direct translation of L1 word-elaborating
- 1.14 (message achievement: L1-based/disguised/lexis)→direct translation of L1 word-giving meaning
- 1.15 (message achievement: L1-based/disguised/lexis)→direct translation of L1 word-adding information
- 1.16 (message achievement: L1-based/disguised/lexis)→direct translation of L1 word-giving example

2. The strategy of 'self-repair' has been added into "inform" function of L2-based/syntax and L2-based/lexis. Hence, in the framework of this study, there were

two additional types of message achievement strategies as follows:

2.1 (message achievement: L2-based/syntax)→self-repair

2.2 (message achievement: L2-based/lexis)→self-repair

3. The strategy (message achievement: L2-based/lexis)→giving repetition was also added into “clarify” function.

Table3.1 presents the taxonomies of types of speaking strategies used in this study. Figure 3.1 shows the chart of classification of speaking strategies.

Table 3.1 Taxonomies of Types of Speaking Strategies Adapted from Monta Chatupote, 1990

1. Message Achievement Strategies

Strategy Functions	Strategy Types	Label
1.1 Inform (L1-based)	1.1.1 (message achievement: L1-based/apparent/syntax)→code switch	L1I1
	1.1.2 (message achievement: L1-based/apparent/lexis)→borrowing	L1I2
	1.1.3 (message achievement: L1-based/disguised/syntax)→L1 syntax, L2 lexis	L1I3
	1.1.4 (message achievement: L1-based/disguised/lexis)→direct translation of L1 word	L1I4
1.2 Clarify (L1-based)	1.2.1 (message achievement: L1-based/apparent/syntax)→code switch–elaborating	L1C1
	1.2.2 (message achievement: L1-based/apparent/syntax)→code switch–giving meaning	L1C2
	1.2.3 (message achievement: L1-based/apparent/syntax)→code switch–adding information	L1C3
	1.2.4 (message achievement: L1-based/apparent/syntax)→code switch–giving example	L1C4
	1.2.5 (message achievement: L1-based/apparent/lexis)→borrowing–elaborating	L1C5
	1.2.6 (message achievement: L1-based/apparent/lexis)→borrowing–giving meaning	L1C6
	1.2.7 (message achievement: L1-based/apparent/lexis)→borrowing–adding information	L1C7
	1.2.8 (message achievement: L1-based/apparent/lexis)→borrowing–giving example	L1C8
	1.2.9 (message achievement: L1-based/disguised/syntax)→L1 syntax, L2 lexis–elaborating	L1C9
	1.2.10 (message achievement: L1-based/disguised/syntax)→L1 syntax, L2 lexis–giving meaning	L1C10
	1.2.11 (message achievement: L1-based/disguised/syntax)→L1 syntax, L2 lexis–adding information	L1C11
	1.2.12 (message achievement: L1-based/disguised/syntax)→L1 syntax, L2 lexis–giving example	L1C12
	1.2.13 (message achievement: L1-based/disguised/lexis)→direct translation of L1 word–elaborating	L1C13
	1.2.14 (message achievement: L1-based/disguised/lexis)→direct translation of L1 word–giving meaning	L1C14
	1.2.15 (message achievement: L1-based/disguised/lexis)→direct translation of L1 word –adding information	L1C15
	1.2.16 (message achievement: L1-based/disguised/lexis)→direct translation of L1 word–giving example	L1C16

Message Achievement Strategies

Strategy Functions	Strategy Types	Label
1.3 Inform (L2-based)	1.3.1 (message achievement: L2-based/syntax)→L2 syntax, L1 meaning	L2I1
	1.3.2 (message achievement: L2-based/syntax)→analogy	L2I2
	1.3.3 (message achievement: L2-based/syntax)→paraphrase	L2I3
	1.3.4 (message achievement: L2-based/syntax)→simplification of patterns	L2I4
	1.3.5 (message achievement: L2-based/syntax)→self-repair	L2IR
	1.3.6 (message achievement: L2-based/lexis)→analogy	L2I5
	1.3.7 (message achievement: L2-based/lexis)→simplification of patterns	L2I6
	1.3.8 (message achievement: L2-based/lexis)→L2 lexis, L1 meaning	L2I7
	1.3.9 (message achievement: L2-based/lexis)→circumlocution	L2I8
	1.3.10 (message achievement: L2-based/lexis)→word substitution	L2I9
	1.3.11 (message achievement: L2-based/lexis)→general word	L2I10
	1.3.12 (message achievement: L2-based/lexis)→specific word	L2I11
	1.3.13 (message achievement: L2-based/lexis)→approximate word	L2I12
	1.3.14 (message achievement: L2-based/lexis)→invented word	L2I13
	1.3.15 (message achievement: L2-based/lexis)→self-repair	L2I14
1.4 Clarify (L2-based)	1.4.1 (message achievement: L2-based/syntax)→elaborating	L2C1
	1.4.2 (message achievement: L2-based/syntax)→giving meaning	L2C2
	1.4.3 (message achievement: L2-based/syntax)→adding information	L2C3
	1.4.4 (message achievement: L2-based/syntax)→giving example	L2C4
	1.4.5 (message achievement: L2-based/syntax)→giving form 1, form2	L2C5
	1.4.6 (message achievement: L2-based/lexis)→elaborating	L2C6
	1.4.7 (message achievement: L2-based/lexis)→giving meaning	L2C7
	1.4.8 (message achievement: L2-based/lexis)→adding information	L2C8
	1.4.9 (message achievement: L2-based/lexis)→giving example	L2C9
	1.4.10 (message achievement: L2-based/lexis)→giving synonym	L2C10
	1.4.11 (message achievement: L2-based/lexis)→giving hyponym	L2C11

	1.4.12 (message achievement: L2-based/lexis)→giving cohyponym	L2C12
	1.4.13 (message achievement: L2-based/lexis)→giving referent	L2C13
	1.4.14 (message achievement: L2-based/lexis)→giving repetition	L2C14
	1.4.15 (message achievement: L2-based/lexis)→giving opposition	L2C15

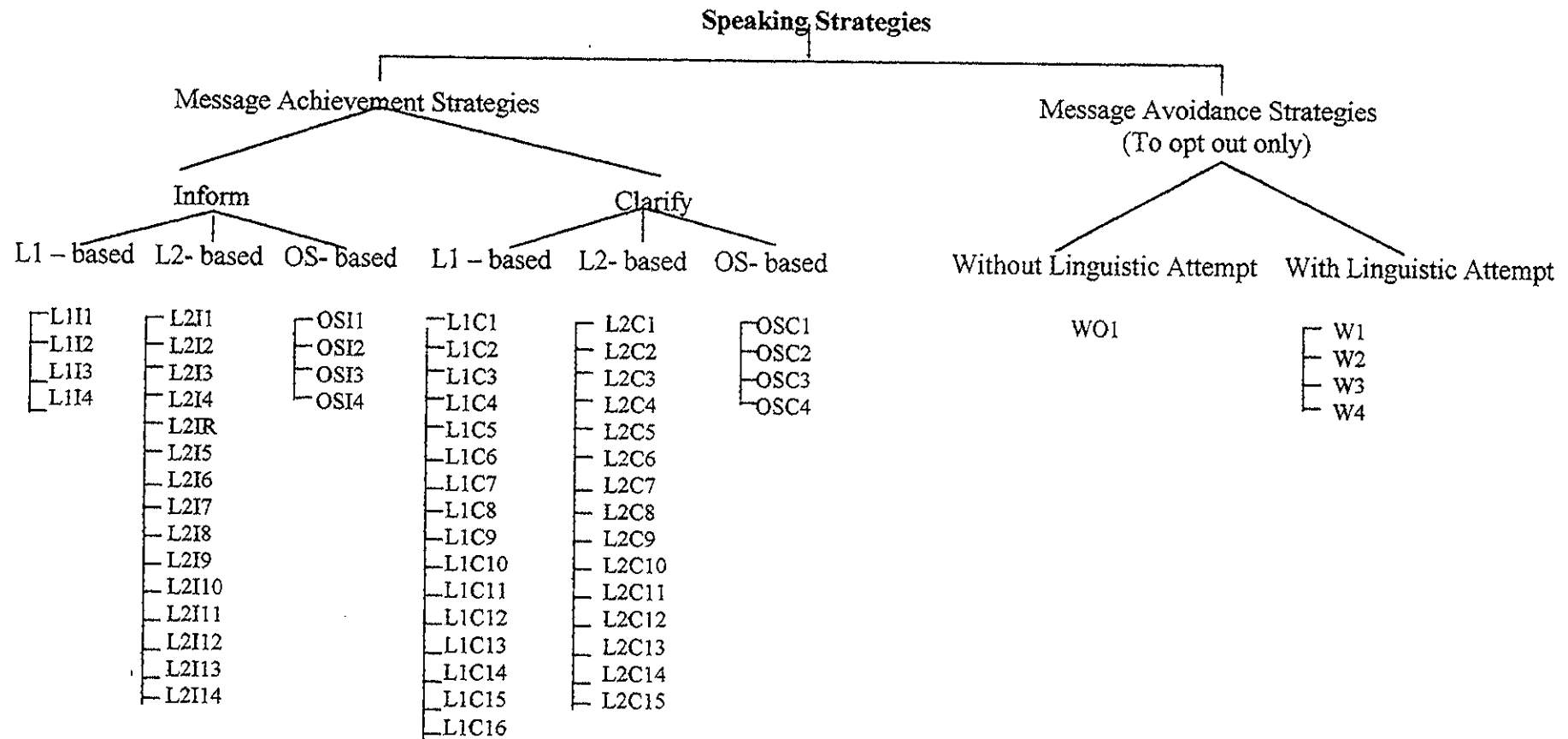
Message Achievement Strategies

Strategy Functions	Strategy Types	Label
1.5 Inform (Os-based)	1.5.1 (message achievement: os-based)→shared knowledge→facts	OSI1
	1.5.2 (message achievement: os-based)→shared knowledge →cultures	OSI2
	1.5.3 (message achievement: os-based)→concrete existence	OSI3
	1.5.4 (message achievement: os-based)→gestures and facial expression	OSI4
1.6 Clarify (Os-based)	1.6.1 (message achievement: os-based)→shared knowledge→facts	OSC1
	1.6.2 (message achievement: os-based)→shared knowledge →cultures	OSC2
	1.6.3 (message achievement: os-based)→concrete existence	OSC3
	1.6.4 (message achievement: os-based)→gestures and facial expression	OSC4

2. Message Avoidance Strategies

	Strategy Types	Lable
2.1 (message avoidance without linguistic attempt)	2.1.1. (message avoidance: without linguistic attempt: unfinished message)→message abandonment	WO1
2.2 (message avoidance with linguistic attempt)	2.2.1 (message avoidance: with linguistic attempt: stated)→topic avoidance	W1
	2.2.2 (message avoidance: with linguistic attempt: implied)→topic avoidance	W2
	2.2.3 (message avoidance: with linguistic attempt: similar message)→topic preservation–(meaning replacement)	W3
	2.2.4 (message avoidance: with linguistic attempt: reduced message)→topic preservation–(message reduction)	W4

Figure 3.1 Classification of Speaking Strategies



Definitions

All of the following definitions were summarized and adapted from Monta Chatupote's (1990).

1. Message Achievement Strategies

Message achievement strategies are those strategies used when learners decide to keep their original message despite a lack of linguistic resources and/or knowledge about the content. The following section will define each of speaking strategy as well as providing some examples to illustrate it.

1.1 Inform (L1-Based Strategies)

L1-based strategies are those strategies in which the learners rely on their native language both in original L1 form or in disguise to assist in solving communication problem. Examples of L1-based strategies will be presented with Thai equivalent.

1.1.1 (message achievement: L1-based/apparent/syntax)→code switch (L1II)

Code switch means a switching from one language to another for stretches of discourse in the middle of a conversation. It is labeled as such if the users employ it to compensate for the lack of knowledge of their target language. At least two interlocutors must share the same pair of languages.

Transcript	Thai equivalent	Target message
Attempt mean (pause) try to do something try to do something or work hard and not not (ไม่ท้อแท้และสิ้นหวัง)	พยายาม หมายถึง.... พยายามที่จะทำบางสิ่ง บางอย่าง พยายามที่จะ ทำบางสิ่งบางอย่าง หรือทำงานหนัก ไม่ ไม่ <u>ไม่ท้อแท้ และสิ้นหวัง</u>	Attempt means trying to do something or to work hard and non-dejected and disappointed.

1.1.2 (message achievement: L1-based/apparent/lexis)→borrowing

(L1I2)

Borrowing refers to the appearance of lexis from another language in the environment of the language being used. Borrowing is usually viewed as an attempt to remedy what is lacking while a switch is produced in a whole chunk of another language and it is rule-governed and depends on factors such as topic, code being used, situation and participants.

Transcript	Thai equivalent	Target message
S: Success is the finish. The success brings to money, <u>ชื่อเสียง</u> .	ความสำเร็จคือการทำ <u>เสร็จ</u> ความสำเร็จ <u>นำมาซึ่งเงิน และ ชื่อ</u> <u>เสียง</u>	reputation
S: Japanese food use <u>ตะเกียบ</u> to pick the food into the mouth.	อาหารญี่ปุ่น ใช้ <u>ตะเกียบ</u> เพื่อหยิบ <u>อาหารเข้าปาก</u>	chopsticks

1.1.3 (message achievement: L1-based/disguised/syntax)→L1 syntax, L2 lexis (L1I3)

This process occurs when the L1 syntax is used as a skeleton covered by the flesh of target language words. However, this phenomenon can also be part of the learner's interlanguage system. It can be labeled as a speaking strategy only if the occurrence is non-systematic. In the following example, the subject is talking about the meaning of love.

Transcript	Thai equivalent	Target message
S: I think if someone <u>have love</u>	ฉันคิดว่าใครสักคนมีรัก	I think if someone loves someone or falls in love.....

1.1.4 (message achievement: L1-based/disguised/lexis)→direct translation of L1 word (L1I4)

At the lexical level, L1 words may be directly translated into L2 and consequently, curious terms appear. The words created may not be understandable because they are not constructed from the concept itself, but rather from what they are called in L1.

Transcript	Thai equivalent	Target message
S:... their eyes are <u>one class</u>	ตาชั้นเดียว	chinky eyes
S: I see everyone <u>same Japanese</u> and the food is <u>same Japanese</u> .	เหมือนญี่ปุ่น เหมือนญี่ปุ่น	I see everyone <u>looks</u> <u>Japanese</u> and the food <u>also looks</u> <u>Japanese</u> .

It is quite possible that the result of translation does not convey the intended message. Though this problematic message appears in L2 form, it is not considered the result of an L2-based strategy. The word “one class” was the direct translation of the Thai language “คาชั้นเดียว”. In this way, “one class” is transported to this subject’s English speech.

1.2 Clarify (L1-Based Strategies)

In case of a message that cannot be properly understood after it is produced at least one or two times because it was not delivered correctly, the speaker can try to clarify it by elaborating, giving meaning, giving examples or adding more information to the message. Again, the attempt may be made at both levels syntactic and lexical and in two different fashions, that is, in apparent or disguised L1. Hence, code switch, borrowing, L1 syntax, L2 lexis and direct translation of L1 word can also be used to clarify.

1.2.1 (message achievement: L1-based/apparent/syntax)→code switch–elaborating (L1C1)

This strategy is the use of L1 structure in the form of code switch to elaborate. Elaborating can be defined as making the message clear by repeating or spelling the problem word clearly (so as to make sure that the speech is possible to process). This speaking strategy can also be used when the speakers are not able to make their message clearer by expressing it in another way.

Transcript	Thai equivalent	Target message
S: The two people on the bottom of left hand side don't want to buy fruits. They are er..... I think they want to buy other goods (นอกเหนือ) นอกเหนือ um....I think they want to buy um.... other does not in this picture... <u>เขาอยากซื้อของที่ไม่มีในภาพ</u>	ฉันคิดว่าพวกเขาทั้ง หลายต้องการที่จะซื้อ สินค้าอื่นๆ นอกเหนือ นอกเหนือ เออะ ฉัน คิดว่า เขาต้องการที่จะ ซื้อ เออะ สินค้าอื่นๆ ที่ ไม่มีในภาพ <u>เขาอยาก จะซื้อของที่ไม่มีอยู่ใน ภาพ</u>	I think that they want to buy other goods which aren't in this picture.

1.2.2 (message achievement: L1-based/apparent/syntax)→code switch–giving meaning (L1C2)

This strategy is the use of L1- structure in the form of code switch to give meaning. Giving meaning is a speaking strategy that operates by giving the definition of a word or an utterance already delivered, but which failed to achieve the goal of communication.

Transcript	Thai equivalent	Target message
S: Salary it is..er... We can receive the salary when we working the job for ..er <u>It is the er ค่าตอบแทนที่คนได้รับ</u>	เงินเดือน..มันคือ.... เออะ เราสามารถได้ รับเงินเดือนเมื่อเรา ทำงาน ทำงาน สำหรับ....เออะ มันเป็น <u>ค่าตอบแทนที่ได้รับ</u>	It is the payment for regular employment.

1.2.3 (message achievement: L1-based/apparent/syntax)→code

switch–adding information (L1C3)

This strategy is the use of L1-structure in the form of code switch to add information. Adding information is quite similar to giving examples, as both add more information to the communication. However, information added can be more varied. It can be an explanation, an illustration and so on.

Transcript

Thai equivalent

Target message

S: Success it mean someone do everything er.....It mean everything finish..... er if we finish mean we get success.

ความสำเร็จ มันหมายถึง คนบางคนทำทุกอย่าง ทุกอย่าง เออะ มัน หมายถึง ทุกสิ่งทุกอย่าง เสร็จสิ้น ..ถ้าเราทำ เสร็จ จบการศึกษา มัน หมายถึงเราได้รับความ สำเร็จ

If we graduate it means we will get success.

1.2.4 (message achievement: L1-based/apparent/syntax)→code

switch–giving example (L1C4)

This strategy is the use of L1 structure in the form of code switch to give an example. Giving an example means bringing in more concrete support to what is being talked about. Examples given may be relevant to the participants' experience and so may make the message easier to understand. It is not the product of the first attempt but introduced after the initial attempt has been made and has failed.

Transcript	Thai equivalent	Target message
S: Rose is er..... It means er.....flower. It have many many color <u>อย่างเช่น สีแดง ขาว และเหลือง</u>	กุหลาบ คือ เออะ มัน หมายถึง ดอกไม้ <u>อย่าง เช่น แดง ขาว และ เหลือง</u>	There are many colors <u>such as red, white, and yellow.</u>

1.2.5 (message achievement: L1-based/apparent/lexis)→borrowing–elaborating (L1C5)

This strategy is the use of a word or words in L1 form to elaborate the message. It is similar to 1.1.2 except that it is used to clarify by elaborating.

Transcript	Thai equivalent	Target message
S: ...And such as this food I think it maybe make um.. it make <u>many days</u> (หลายวันแล้ว)	และเช่นอาหารนี้ ฉันคิดว่ามันอาจจะ ทำ ...อัน..มันทำ หลายวัน (หลายวันแล้ว)	several days

1.2.6 (message achievement: L1-based/apparent/lexis)→borrowing–giving meaning (L1C6)

This strategy is the use of L1 word or words to give meaning. It is similar to 1.1.2 except that it is used to clarify by giving meaning.

Transcript	Thai equivalent	Target message
S: ... for the tool of eating different such as Thai people use spoon and fork but Japanese people use er...sticks er...er...(smile).....er.. <u>ตะเกียบ</u> when they eat.	... สำหรับอุปกรณ์การกินแตกต่างกัน คนไทยใช้ช้อนและช้อนม แต่คนญี่ปุ่นใช้ เออะ...ไม้เขาทั้งหลาย เออะ.....เออะ.....(ยิ้ม) ...เออะ <u>ตะเกียบ</u> เมื่อเขากิน	chopsticks

1.2.7 (message achievement: L1-based/apparent/lexis)→borrowing-adding information (L1C7)

This strategy is the use of L1 word or words to add information.

It is similar to 1.1.2 except that it is used to clarify by adding information.

Transcript	Thai equivalent	Target message
S: ...The style of eating between Thai and Japanese different. Thai food have dish for rice and dish for er...er.. <u>ก๋วยจั๊ว</u> er...er.. <u>ก๋วยจั๊ว</u> something er...eat with rice. But Japanese.....	อาหารไทยมีจานสำหรับข้าว และมีจานสำหรับ เออะ...เออะก๋วยจั๊ว เออะ...เออะก๋วยจั๊วบางอย่าง เออะ..กินก๋วยจั๊ว ...แต่ญี่ปุ่น....	dishes

1.2.8 (message achievement: L1-based/apparent/lexis)→borrowing-giving example (L1C8)

This strategy is the use of L1 word or words to give an example. It is similar to 1.1.2 except that it is used to clarify by giving an example.

Transcript	Thai equivalent	Target message
S: Freedom um....it's a (pause).....it's a ...you can do everything you want such as you want to go to.... er....to.....er (<u>ต่างประเทศ</u>) such as Chinese and England.	อิสระภาพ ...อัม..มัน ก็คือ..คุณสามารถทำทุก อย่างที่คุณต้องการ เช่น คุณต้องการไป..... เออะ.....เออะ...ต่าง <u>ประเทศ</u> เช่น ประเทศ จีน และ ประเทศ อังกฤษ	abroad

1.2.9 (message achievement: L1-based/disguised/syntax)→L1
syntax, L2 lexis–elaborating (L1C9)

This strategy is the use of L2 words but in the L1 structure to elaborate. It is similar to 1.1.3 except that it is used to clarify by elaborating the message.

Transcript	Thai equivalent	Target message
S: Salary is a money that boss pay for employee in company um.....er.....(long pause) period of time such er month er... <u>per every months</u>	เงินเดือนคือ เงินซึ่งเจ้านายจ่าย สำหรับลูกจ้างในบริษัท อัม....เออะ...ช่วงเวลาเช่น เออะ..เดือน.....เออะ <u>ต่อทุก</u> <u>เดือน</u>	monthly

1.2.10 (message achievement: L1-based/disguised/syntax)→L1
syntax, L2 lexis–giving meaning (L1C10)

This strategy is the use of L2-words but in the L1 structure to give meaning. It is similar to 1.1.3 except that it is used to clarify by giving meaning.

Transcript	Thai equivalent	Target message
Interlocutor: Could you explain to me what the word brother-in-law means?		
S: Brother-in-law ah.... mean....(pause) a man who marry with a woman ur.....		
brother-in-law is.. when sister they marry with man. <u>That man</u> I'm call it brother- in- law.	เมื่อน้อง/พี่สาวแต่งงานกับผู้ชาย ผู้ชายคนนั้น ฉันเรียกว่า น้องเขย/พี่เขย	husband of my sister

1.2.11 (message achievement: L1-based/disguised/syntax)→L1 syntax, L2 lexis–adding information (L1C11)

This strategy is the use of L2 words but in the L1 structure to add information. It is similar to 1.1.3 except that it is used to clarify by adding information.

Transcript	Thai equivalent	Target message
S: Rose is the beautiful. They have many colors red, yellow and white. <u>They use in the jug.</u>	กุหลาบคือ สวย มันทั้งหลายมีหลายสี แดง เหลือง และขาว มันใช้ใส่น้ำ	There are many colors such as red, yellow, and white. <u>They are put in a vase.</u>

1.2.12 (message achievement: L1-based/disguised/syntax)→L1 syntax, L2 lexis–giving example (L1C12)

This strategy is the use of L2 words but in the L1 structure to give an example. It is similar to 1.1.3 except that it is used to clarify by giving an

example.

Transcript	Thai equivalent	Target message
S: Success is...(long pause) pass the test er... <u>For example for success um... in next year I success for education.</u>	ความสำเร็จ คือ.....ผ่านการทดสอบ เออะ.... ตัวอย่าง <u>สำหรับความสำเร็จ.....อืม...ในปีหน้า</u> <u>ฉันสำเร็จการศึกษา</u>	I will finish my education next year.

1.2.13 (message achievement: L1-based/disguised/lexis)→direct translation of L1 word–elaborating (L1C13)

This strategy is the use of L2 word/ words which is/ are directly translated from L1-word/ words to elaborate. It is similar to 1.1.4 except that it is used to clarify by elaborating the message.

Transcript	Thai equivalent	Target message
S: Attempt is a think of to make your work finish. Attempt mean er..... er.....for me I hope graduate four year <u>graduate for four year.</u>	สำหรับฉันหวังจบการศึกษาสี่ปี จบ <u>การศึกษาสำหรับสี่ปี</u>	I hope to graduate in four years.

1.2.14 (message achievement: L1-based/disguised/lexis)→direct translation of L1 word–giving meaning (L1C14)

This strategy is the use of L2 word/ words which is/ are directly translated from L1 word/ words to give meaning. It is similar to 1.1.4 except that it is used to clarify by giving meaning.

Transcript	Thai equivalent	Target message
S: ...the man and the woman want to go to er..... ตลาดนัด er... <u>the meeting market</u> to buy something.	ตลาดนัด ตลาดนัด	Sunday market

1.2.15 (message achievement: L1-based/disguised/lexis)→direct translation of L1 word –adding information (L1C15)

This strategy is the use of L2 word/ words which is/ are directly translated from L1 word/ words to add information. It is similar to 1.1.4 except that it is used to clarify by adding information.

Transcript	Thai equivalent	Target message
S: Love ah.... I think love is a er... when we was born, I know I love my father and my mother and when we grow I know I love with ah...my friend and <u>everybody is near close me.</u>	ทุกคนที่อยู่ใกล้ชิดฉัน	I love everybody who is close to me.

1.2.16 (message achievement: L1-based/disguised/lexis)→direct translation of L1 word–giving example (L1C16)

This strategy is the use of L2 word/ words which is/ are directly translated from L1 word/ words to give an example. It is similar to 1.1.4 except that it is used to clarify by giving example.

Transcript	Thai equivalent	Target message
S:Success is um..... finish. For example, I <u>end my study.</u>	<u>จบการศึกษาของฉัน</u>	<u>I finish my study.</u>

1.3 Inform (L2-Based Strategies)

Speaking strategies which possess the L2-based features are likely to be greater in variability and frequency of use because it is “the language of communication.”

1.3.1 (message achievement: L2-based/syntax)→L2 syntax, L1 meaning (L2I1)

The use of L2 syntax to mean other things in L1 is probably not detectable solely by looking at the utterances themselves because their surface structures can be quite a perfect L2.

Transcript	Target message
S: ..I think Chinese food is a <u>hot food.</u>	The food is eaten when it is very hot.
S: ... because she <u>like er.. a rich woman.</u>	She looks like a rich woman.

This sentence is, in fact, the translation of the learner’s L1 “เธอเหมือนคนรวย” which when translated, the pattern is accidentally correct in L2 but the meaning is not what was intended.

1.3.2 (message achievement: L2-based/syntax)→analogy (L2I2)

Analogy is a strategy that can probably be equated to errors in interlanguage called “overgeneralization” (Richards, 1975; cited in Monta Chatupote, 1990). With overgeneralization, the learners make mistakes as a result of applying

rules where they are not applicable under a particular circumstance (Brooks, 1960; cited in Monta Chatupote, 1990) despite the similarity of the situation.

Transcript

Target message

S: I can go everywhere which I want to go.

I can go everywhere I want to go.

S: The more easier to eat than Thai food.

Chinese food is easier to eat than Thai food.

1.3.3 (message achievement: L2-based/syntax)→paraphrase (L2I3)

When learners cannot find a direct way to express their message, they may try a longer, more indirect route that leads to the same destination. This description and the explanation of any message that could otherwise be expressed in a more direct fashion is called “paraphrase”. It is defined by Tarone, Cohen and Dumas, (1976; cited in Faerch and Kasper 1983 : 10) as the “rewording of the message in an alternative, acceptable target language construction in order to avoid a more difficult form or construction.”

Transcript

Target message

NS: How do you get on with girls?

L: (giggles) I'm very oh—what do you

Call it—you know (laughs) I get red in my head—(giggles)

I am shy.

NS: Yes shy

L: shy yer (giggles)

Taken from Faerch and Kasper, 1983b : 233; cited in Monta Chatupote, 1990.

1.3.4 (message achievement: L2-based/syntax)→simplification of patterns (L2I4)

Simplification of patterns is the strategy which, for the sake of an uninterrupted interaction, avoids the use of complicated syntactic patterns which are more appropriate to the context and would probably be produced correctly if given enough time. Simplification of patterns can be justified as such only when there is evidence that such patterns have already been known.

Transcript

Because you gave us play game. This game is very difficult to play. We play with a headache/confusion.

Taken from Monta Chatupote, 1990.

Target message

You made us play game that caused headache.

1.3.5 (message achievement: L2-based/syntax)→self-repair (L2IR)

Self-repair is making self-initiated corrections in one's own speech at the syntactic level.

Transcript

S: I don't know I think it use short time to do to make it.

S: Sometimes in the market is dangerous because there is the thief to carry your bag, to steal your bag.

Target message

to make it

to steal your bag

1.3.6 (message achievement: L2-based/lexis)→analogy (L2I5)

Analogy is a strategy which occurs when the learners make a mistake as a result of applying words form from L2 language where they are not applicable under a particular circumstance.

Transcript	Target message
S: And if you want to comment me <u>anythings</u> , you can write to me <u>any times</u> .	anything, anytime
S: Thai <u>cooker</u> (pause)...cooks Thai food by many law.	Thai cook

1.3.7 (message achievement: L2-based/lexis)→simplification of patterns (L2I6)

This strategy is similar to 1.3.4 except that it is done at the lexical level.

Transcript	Target message
Here, in this university, it has freshy' day <u>and anything else</u> .	There are a lot of activities to do -freshmen welcoming ceremony, singing practice <u>and many more activities</u> .

Taken from Monta Chatupote, 1990.

1.3.8 (message achievement: L2-based/lexis)→L2 lexis, L1 meaning (L2I7)

This strategy is similar to L2 syntax, L1 meaning only that this one operates at lexical level. Perdue (1984 : 194; cited in Monta Chatupote, 1990)

put forward the assumption that there was a process in the development of vocabulary in which learners use target language lexical items systematically to express a meaning different from that of the target language.

Transcript	Target message
S: In the eating they are <u>funny</u> and happy.	have fun and are happy
S: .but I think you can <u>pay</u> everything at the supermarket.	buy (จ่าย in Thai)

1.3.9 (message achievement: L2-based/lexis)→circumlocution (L2I8)

This strategy is comparable to paraphrasing except that it is done at the lexical level. It is “a description of the desired lexical items or a definition of it in other words”. (Tarone, Cohen and Dumas, 1976; cited in Monta Chatupote, 1990)

Transcript	Target message
S: Tool for eating, Thai people use a spoon but Chinese people use a <u>couple long thin wood.</u>	chopsticks
S: I think they are Chinese or Japanese because I see they <u>use the piece of</u> <u>wood to keep the food.</u>	chopsticks (because I see they use wooden sticks to pick up the food.)

1.3.10 (message achievement: L2-based/lexis)→word substitution

(L2I9)

Word substitution is the phenomenon whereby language users substitute a word that is needed but impossible to retrieve. The substituted word directs the message a little further away from the original intended message.

Transcript	Target message
S: At the market I have to um.. <u>negotiate</u> sometime.	bargain
S: They went to the market to <u>take</u> some food for cooking.	buy

1.3.11 (message achievement: L2-based/lexis)→general word (L2I10)

This strategy involves using words that have a wider range of meaning to express a more specific concept. The use of this strategy usually results in vague communication because the word selected may represent a whole class or category of the words needed.

Transcript	Target message
S: Love I think love is <u>something</u> make me feel good.	feeling (I think love is a feeling that makes me feel good.)

1.3.12 (message achievement: L2-based/lexis)→specific word (L2I11)

Instead of going for a word with a wider range of meaning, the speakers may turn to ones with more specific or narrower meaning.

Transcript

Computer is er..... calculator.

Target message

Computer is an electronic machine which is used for storing, organizing and finding words, numbers and pictures, for doing calculations and for controlling other machines.

1.3.13 (message achievement: L2-based/lexis)→approximate word (L2I12)

Approximate word is the use of words that have a meaning along the same lines, but is not quite the word which is needed. The production may be different from the intended one, but it is still in a similar direction.

Transcript

S: Success is the finish.

Target message

To achieve something that you have been aiming for.

S: Every generation goes to the market. People of all ages go to the market.

1.3.14 (message achievement: L2-based/lexis)→invented word (L2I13)

Invented word (or expression) (cf. word coinage by Varadi, 1983), covers words/expressions that are invented by the speaker to represent a concept for which s/he does not have the accepted L2 words/expressions.

Transcript

S: Japanese has a twin stick to keep the food for eating.

Target message

chopsticks

1.3.15 (message achievement: L2-based/lexis)→self-repair (L2I14)

Self-repair is correcting one's own speech at the lexical level.

Transcript	Target message
S: ...you can not reduce <u>discount</u> .	discount
S: ...if you want a shoe <u>no! no! shoes</u> you can buy shoes.	shoes

1.4 Clarify (L2-based)

There are many ways to clarify an utterance for better understanding when speakers feel that there is a need, i.e, when they have not made themselves clear. Clarification can be done in the following ways.

L2-based/syntax

The first five speaking strategies in this section—elaborating, giving meaning, adding information, giving examples, and form1, form2—operate the same way as those already presented in the section “L1-based clarify” except that they are done in L2.

1.4.1 (message achievement: L2-based/syntax)→elaborating (L2C1)

Elaborating can be defined as making the message clear by repeating or spelling the problem sentence clearly (so as to make sure that the speech is possible to process). This speaking strategy can also be used when the speakers are not able to make their message clearer by expressing it in another way.

Transcript	Target message
S: Brother-in-law is....suppose I have a sister and my sister have a husband and husband is a brother- in- law and <u>brother-in- law is a man.</u>	Brother- in- law is the husband of one's sister.

In this example, the subject had difficulty in forming the utterance so after completing it, she decided to repeat the whole utterance in order to ascertain that understanding of the message was attained.

1.4.2. (message achievement: L2-based/syntax)→giving meaning (L2C2)

This strategy is the use of L2 at the syntactic level to give meaning.

Transcript	Target message
S1: Love is the good wishness_ur...(long pause) ความรู้สึก <u>It is the good wishness to every people.</u>	Love is a good feeling for everyone.

1.4.3 (message achievement: L2-based/syntax)→adding information (L2C3)

Adding information is quite similar to giving examples as both add more information to the communication. However, information added can be more varied. It can be an explanation, an illustration and so on. The information is added at the syntactic level.

Transcript**Target message**

S: Love er...(pause) er.... Love is feeling er.... This mean you want to (pause) You want to live with someone you love (pause) er... er..when you live with someone you love, you will happy.

When you love somebody you want to live with that person. This will make you happy.

1.4.4 (message achievement: L2-based/syntax)→giving example

(L2C4)

This strategy is the use of L2 at the syntactic level to give an example.

Transcript**Target message**

S: Brother-in-law is....a man ur....
Suppose I have a sister and my sister have a husband and husband is a brother-in- law and brother- in- law is a man.

Brother- in- law is the husband of my sister.

1.4.5 (message achievement: L2-based/syntax)→giving form1, form2

(L2C5)

The product of this clarification strategy is somewhat like a paraphrase in that it is another way of saying the same thing. The difference is that in form1, form2, the speaker needs to produce an utterance that is problematic, and then produce another version of the same message in order to make it clear. In paraphrasing, the speakers are not able to produce what they want and therefore, they must say it in a less direct way. Compared to paraphrasing, it may be an even better way to increase the learner' s linguistic repertoires due to the fact that they have to

endeavor themselves to express twice, and will likely learn more in doing so. Hence, this speaking strategy may become a learning strategy as well.

Transcript	Target message
S: ...style of eating I think it's not different. I think <u>it the same</u> .	Eating styles are the same.
S: ... they should go somewhere <u>not go to market</u> .	They should not go to the market.

1.4.6 (message achievement: L2-based/lexis)→elaborating (L2C6)

At the lexical level, words can be elaborated by repeating and/or spelling to make sure that pronunciation is not the cause of the problem.

Transcript	Target message
L: What faculty (pronounced with the primary stress on the second syllable) do you teach?	
NS: What coun... what?	
L: <u>What faculty do you teach?</u>	
NS: Me? What country? I'm	
L: <u>Faculty</u> . (still with the same pronunciation)	Faculty (stressed on the first syllable)
NS: Ah, faculty.	

Taken from Monta Chatupote, 1990.

1.4.7 (message achievement: L2-based/lexis)→giving meaning

(L2C7)

Giving meaning is a speaking strategy that operates by giving the definition of a word or an utterance already delivered, but one which failed to achieve the communication goal.

Transcript

S: When I study in prathom... primary school and mattayom.... junior high school, English is my first favorite subject.

Target message

primary school
junior high school

Taken from Monta Chatupote, 1990.

1.4.8 (message achievement: L2-based/lexis)→adding information

(L2C8)

This strategy is the use of L2 at the lexical level to clarify by adding information.

Transcript

(about cigarette advertisement)

S: Um.....and don't you think that sometimes it's it's bad, bad repetition (=reputation). It's very bad for for young people um...not good.

Target message

The advertisement is bad for young people.

Taken from Monta Chatupote, 1990.

The learner here wrongly used the word "repetition" to mean "reputation" and then added information to clarify the word.

1.4.9 (message achievement: L2-based/lexis)→giving example

(L2C9)

This strategy is the use of L2 at the lexical level to clarify by giving an example.

Transcript**Target message**

S: Don't forget bring a gift kangaroo and koala to us. Please don't forget to bring kangaroos or koalas for us as souvenirs.

Taken from Monta Chatupote, 1990.

The speaker seemed not to be able to retrieve the word "souvenir" and so employed an approximate word of "gift", and then further tailored the message to suit the target by giving examples of the gifts she wanted.

1.4.10 (message achievement: L2-based/lexis)→giving synonym

(L2C10)

Synonym is the giving of another word that has roughly the same meaning as the one already delivered. Synonym can also be used for emphasis in order to make certain that the message is transmitted. This strategy is equivalent to form1, form2 at syntactic level, since it requires the subjects to produce the message twice.

Transcript**Target message**

S: Attempt is er....work hard er... or it is
a try to do something.

Attempt is to try to do
something.

S: Freedom is free er....everyone can go
everywhere can eat everything (pause)
...it mean liberty.

Freedom means liberty.

1.4.11 (message achievement: L2-based/lexis)→giving hyponym

(L2C12)

Hyponym is the use of words that belong to a category and its subcategory, for example limbs and legs. That is to say, a hyponym is produced after a problem word has already been delivered and the speaker tries to remedy it by giving another word from a different rank, hoping that it will help deliver the intended message. In this study, this type of speaking strategy was not used by either of the two groups.

Transcript**Target message**

S1: Do you believe that plastic surgery
(with difficulties in pronunciation)

S2: surgery

S1: surgery..ah.. surgeon.. doctor *uɛ* (*uɛ*= a
particle showing an emphasis)

a surgeon

S2: (nod)

Taken from Monta Chatupote, 1990.

By giving the hyponym “doctor”, which is more commonly known to Thai learners, the speaker was able to bring about a better understanding of the topic being pursued.

1.4.12 (message achievement: L2-based/lexis)→giving cohyponym
(L2C12)

Cohyponyms are members of the same word family and belong to the same level, for example, legs and arms (cohyponyms under limbs), etc. Cohyponym can possibly help clarify a word by tracing it back to the members of that class and helping to rearrange the pattern of thought of the speaker in order to arrive at the meaning intended. In this study, this type of speaking strategy was not used by either of the two groups.

Transcript	Target message
S1: Do you understand the word tertiary... education?	Tertiary education is education at the university or college level.
S2: (shake head) I don't understand.	
S1: Pri... <u>primary school</u> .	
S2: (nod) primary school.	
S1: <u>primary school</u> , <u>Secondary school</u> .	
S2: (nod)	
S1: and <u>tertiary school</u> ... tertiary school (point to the floor)	
S2: It is a high school.	
S1: No.. no..in the university.	

Taken from Monta Chatupote, 1990.

1.4.13 (message achievement: L2-based/lexis)→giving referent
(L2C13)

In a casual conversation, speech production is continuous and improvised. It is sometimes possible to use a pronoun instead of a noun that cannot

be retrieved at the time of production. If the referent can be retrieved later, it may be given to clarify the pronoun previously used.

Transcript

Target message

S1: If your friend is having a party on Wednesday night, do you think you will go?

S2: Yes, I think I will go.

S1: Why?

S2: Ah... it may.. the ..the meeting may
may give me ..ah.. happy

I will enjoy the party.

S1: Ur... a lot of

S2: happiness.

Taken from Monta Chatupote, 1990.

1.4.14 (message achievement: L2-based/lexis)→giving repetition

(L2C14)

Giving repetition here is the term used to refer to the attempt to clarify by giving the derivations of a word. When the production of a word is made with uncertainty as to whether or not it is grammatically correct, other derivations from the same root may be introduced.

Transcript

Target message

S: Salary is a money the employer pay
for employee when employee work work.

work

1.4.15 (message achievement: L2-based/lexis)→giving opposition
(L2C15)

Opposition is a word of opposite meaning provided to show contrast in order to clarify the message.

Transcript

S: : No, no, no... I, I just just wanna...
just wanna tell you ah.. that why you
think that
advertisement has only only only only the
... advantage... not
disadvantage... advantage.

Target message

Advertisement has an advantage.

Taken from Monta Chatupote, 1990.

1.5 Other Semiotic System-Based Strategies

This group of speaking strategies is comparable to those labelled called “non-linguistic strategies” by Faerch and Kasper (1983), and Ellis (1985). Other semiotic systems that can be drawn upon are roughly divided into three groups, each of which can be used to achieve all three functions. They are: shared knowledge, concrete existence, and gestures and facial expressions. The Os-based strategy using shared knowledge would enhance the understanding of the message being communicated if the interlocutors have common background knowledge.

The knowledge people can share may be divided into two main types: facts and cultural knowledge.

The strategies from 1.5.1 to 1.5.4 are Os-based strategies used to inform.

1.5.1 (message achievement: os-based)→shared knowledge→facts
(OSII)

“Facts” here suggests a certain degree of similarity and acceptance among the interlocutors between (two people) or among (three or more). “Facts” are usually culture-free, although they can be situation-bound in the case of facts known among specific groups of people.

Transcript

S1: ... their eyes are one class.....

Target message

chinky eyes

The subject made a decision that people in the picture were Chinese because they have background knowledge about most Chinese people’s eyes, that being Chinese people’s eyes are “chinky”. It can be seen that this information is considered from the fact in general.

1.5.2 (message achievement: os-based)→shared knowledge →
cultures (OSI2)

This kind of shared knowledge is specific and needs to be learnt if the speaker was not born into or has not lived in that culture. Since culture dictates the way people act and possibly the way they think, it plays a vital role in the understanding of the message.

Transcript

S1: I think Chinese people because they eat food with chopsticks.

Target message

(As it is already known among Thai people, Chinese eat with chopsticks). Therefore, I think that they are Chinese people.

Information about cultural knowledge affects the subject's choice of words because s/he knows that chopsticks are normally the tool that Chinese people use when they eat. Thus, this information is attained from general knowledge of that culture.

1.5.3 (message achievement: os-based)→concrete existence (OSI3)

The context in which the communication is taking place can be used to help deliver the message. Movable objects are termed "realia", and the non-movable ones are labelled "physical settings." Realia are things that become available for use when the speaker cannot retrieve the words needed. If the object is there within reach, it can be very easy for the speaker to get the message across by showing the object to his/her interactant instead of having to find a way to make it understood with words. This also includes the body parts of the interlocutors and what they are wearing. As for physical settings, the speaker can just point to or refer to them in order to form a picture to clarify the concept.

Transcript

Target message

At lunch time

S: I think they are Japanese because I see something on this (pointed to the name of a shop) and I think it's Japanese language.

I think they are Japanese because the name of the shop was written in Japanese.

S: Japanese food they use like the (pointed to chopsticks in the picture).

Japanese uses chopsticks.

1.5.4 (message achievement: os-based)→gestures and facial expression (OSI4)

Gestures and facial expressions belong to a semiotic system inherited by most animals, and contain specific patterns which hold meaning. The gestures and facial expressions humans can make may be universal, but the same movement may carry different meanings in one culture or another and, as a result, can cause misunderstanding when communication is attempted across cultures.

Transcript

Target message

S: ..but I think they usually use this tool
(using body language to refer to chopsticks for eating.

chopsticks

The strategies from 1.6.1 to 1.6.4 are Os-based strategies which are used to clarify.

1.6.1 (message achievement: os-based)→shared knowledge→facts (OSC1)

This strategy is similar to 1.5.1 except that it is used to clarify.

Transcript

Target message

S: Their eyes are small....er...they look like Chinese eyes.

Their eyes are chinky.

1.6.2 (message achievement: os-based)→shared knowledge → cultures (OSC2)

This strategy is similar to 1.5.2 except that it is used to clarify.

Transcript

S: Rose is a kind of flower which er.. it er.. represent love. If someone give the rose for someone mean they have love for other each other.

Target message

(In our culture, it is known that rose is the symbol of love.)

1.6.3 (message achievement: os-based)→concrete existence (OSC3)

This strategy is similar to 1.5.3 except that it is used to clarify.

Transcript

A. Bad...you ...you have ever drink...and do...not..do not...have a thinking (point head)

Target message

got drunk

Taken from Monta Chatupote, 1990.

1.6.4 (message achievement: os-based)→gestures and facial expression (OSC4)

This strategy is similar to 1.5.4 except that it is used to clarify.

Transcript

S: Rose is a kind of flower which er.. it er.. represent love. If someone give the rose for someone mean they have love for other each other (ชี้กันและกัน) (move her hand to show the meaning of each other)

Target message

each other

2. Message Avoidance Strategies

Message avoidance strategies are strategies that the learners can select when they wish to drop the intended, but problematic message. Such a decision can be implemented in different ways, at any stage of the interaction, and in various degrees.

They are divided into two main groups: those with prior linguistic attempt(s) to deliver the message, and those without prior linguistic attempt (s).

2.1 *Message avoidance without prior linguistic attempt(s)*

2.1.1 (message avoidance: without linguistic attempt: unfinished message)→message abandonment (WO1)

Abandonment of a message is the cancellation of an attempt to deliver the message before it is completed. In communication, it is natural that messages are abandoned after an attempt or even after a series of attempts to deliver them fails linguistically. Many language learners find it too difficult to persevere until the goal has been reached.

Transcript

Interlocutor: Can you explain to me what the word freedom means?

S: Everyone want freedom er.....

Target message

Freedom means the state of being able or allowed to do what you

want to do.

2.2 *Message avoidance with prior linguistic attempts*

Another main type of message avoidance strategy is used when prior linguistic attempts to deliver the original message have failed. Sometimes this group of strategies is detectable from clues such as a long, unusual pause, a curious repetition of certain parts of the utterance without moving ahead, or a frown. (but the meaning of these semiotic systems may not be obvious or explicit.) Speaking

strategies in this category are divided into three groups. All of them are avoidance of one degree or another.

Presented below are all strategies possessing the features of (message avoidance/with prior linguistic attempts) arranged according to the degree of intensity of avoidance from the highest to the lowest.

2.2.1 (message avoidance: with linguistic attempt: stated)→topic avoidance (W1)

This strategy is an absolute avoidance because speakers do not attempt to carry the message across at all. Or if they do try, the operation is carried out and aborted before the attempt is noticeable to the audience. Topic avoidance [stated] in this category operates in the same way as language-based strategies that are used to inform, except that the information here is the declaration that the speaker does not wish further conversation on that particular topic. This can be done in a manner parallel to those already mentioned in the section on speaking strategies used to inform.

Transcript

S: Attempt (pause)...er...(pause).... To
work and work for ...(pause) um....
People er.. something that you work hard
to get something that they want...ไม่
(laugh)

Target message

Attempt means to try to do or
achieve something.

In the example, the speaker faced considerable difficulty in delivering the message as shown by the repetition and pause. Finally, he gave up as indicated by a laugh and switch to Thai “ไม่” (I cannot explain it).

2.2.2 (message avoidance: with linguistic attempt: implied)→topic avoidance (W2)

Topic avoidance is a responsive move that possesses the feature [implied] in which the learner simply switches to another topic or pause for a long time. This shows an inability to persevere.

Transcript	Target message
a. Ns: Oh..um..have some (laugh)	Note: In this excerpt, a native speaker (Ns) was talking to three students. S1 and S2 could participate in the talk about Thai desserts but S3 could not join in so he finally introduced a new topic of rainy season, hence avoiding the topic of Thai desserts that he could not talk about.
S1: Thank you	
Ns : It's delicious. Have some... um..	
I love Thai sweets. (laugh)	
S2: Have you ever tried.. Thai sweets	
as ข้าวเหนียวทุเรียน (=sticky rice cooked in	
coconut milk with topping made	
from a typical Thai fruit-durian)	
Ns: Yes... but I prefer ข้าวเหนียว um...	
มะม่วง (=mango) not ทุเรียน (=durian)	
(laugh) [keeps on listing names of	
sweets she likes] (laugh)	
S3: <u>Do you like rainy season?</u>	
Ns: Rainy season? Yes I do because	
[...]	

Taken from Monta Chatupote, 1990.

2.2.3 (message avoidance: with linguistic attempt: similar message)→ topic preservation– meaning replacement (W3)

Meaning replacement is the speaking strategy that is termed semantic avoidance by Corder (1978). Instead of attempting the target message, the

communicator may try forming a new one which is not the same, but “related and may presuppose the desired result” (Tarone, Cohen and Dumas, 1976 : 10; cited in Monta Chatupote, 1990). It is an attempt to keep to the original goal, although the target message may not survive the process.

Transcript

Target message

S: And the price in the market maybe

below er... (is not expensive).

cheaper

2.2.4 (message avoidance: with linguistic attempt: reduce message)→

topic preservation –message reduction (W4)

Message reduction strategy is the way in which communicators reduce the message to the level compatible with the limited language resources they possess. As a result, the message becomes vague and general, lacking the details contained in the original message.

Transcript

Target message

S: The difference is that (I) don't know what errors I make when using the language that I am not familiar with.

[That is English]

But she didn't get stressed about grammar.

Taken from Monta Chatupote, 1990.

It was apparent that a lengthy description was reduced and the target message was restructured. This indicates that the strategy of meaning replacement operates on the same item as does the strategy of message reduction. Hence, the message becomes vague and general.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH METHOD

Introduction

This chapter presents three sections: (1) method consisting of description of subjects, instruments, pilot study, and description of tasks; (2) data collection and procedure; (3) and data analysis. Illustration of analysis of speaking strategies is also included.

1. Method

The experiment was designed so that Thai subjects were put to communicate in English with an interlocutor under controlled conditions, which would maximize the potential use of speaking strategies. These controlled conditions would make it possible to find out how effective and ineffective English language learners differ in their choices of speaking strategies; and to what degree each speaking strategy contributes to the effectiveness of communication.

1.1 Subjects

The subjects are students at Prince of Songkla University, Hat Yai Campus who volunteered to participate in this research. The subjects consist of 33 undergraduate students from the Faculties of Science, Management Sciences, and Engineering who have recently finished a conversation course (335-103) (an elective

course for students who have completed Foundation English I and II.) The level of language proficiency of most subjects is generally low to moderate.

1.2 Instruments

In designing tasks to elicit speaking strategies, it was assumed that when L2 learners have problems in communicating their ideas due to the lack of linguistic competence, they will resort to speaking strategies in order to get the intended message across. Hence, the task of explaining known concrete or abstract concepts was selected to intentionally create problems for the subjects in trying to explain or to describe the two sets of words, eventually forcing them to use speaking strategies. However, only one task alone might not be sufficient to elicit all or most of the speaking strategies used. Another speaking task was, therefore, designed to complement it. Task B required the subjects to use different language functions such as describing (people and their activities), and comparing pictures. Thus, two types of task-explaining concrete and abstract concepts and describing pictures-were used in the experiment. Language Task Specification was established covering eight issues: description of subjects, events and activities, modes, channel, topic areas, suitable tasks formats, language functions, and skills (see Appendix A-A, A-B).

1.3 Pilot study

A pilot study was conducted in order to try out the oral interaction procedure and to select the most effective lexical items and pictures for eliciting speaking strategies. The study used seven effective and seven ineffective English language learners stated earlier. The subjects were rated by two native speakers as effective and ineffective according to their performance on the two tasks. For the first of the pilot study, the subjects were asked to explain eighteen individual lexical items

comprising nine concrete and nine abstract concepts. The second task consisted of describing five pictures. Only eight lexical items and two pictures were selected for use in the actual experiment. The others were not included because most subjects did not know the meaning of those lexical items, or they were too difficult to explain. Three pictures were left out because they did not elicit sufficient speaking strategies.

1.4 Description of the tasks

Task A (see Appendix B) The subjects were required to explain eight individual lexical items comprising an equal number of concrete and abstract concepts:

Concrete concepts	Abstract concepts
salary	love
rose	attempt
brother-in-law	freedom
computer	success

The words were chosen on the basis of their common use in everyday life.

Task B (see Appendix C) The subjects were required to explain and describe people, places, and activities in two pictures. To complete the task, the subjects would have to express themselves common language used in real-life communication, for example, giving opinions, exchanging experience and knowledge, and comparing and contrasting.

2. Data Collection and Procedure

The 33 subjects were required to do two tasks: firstly, explaining eight individual lexical items comprising four concrete as well as four abstract concepts to the interlocutor who was the researcher herself and secondly, describing two pictures. The oral interaction time for each student was 20-25 minutes. A rapport between the interlocutor and the subjects was established before doing the two sets of tasks. That is, the subjects and interlocutor introduced themselves and talked about themselves and things in general. All of the transactions were recorded on videotapes and transcribed. Every detail of the data, including the paralinguistic information and pausing, was transcribed. This detailed transcription was investigated to locate where the employment of speaking strategies could have occurred. These could even occur during unusually long pauses or at the time when there were repetitions.

An evaluation form (see Appendix D) was used by the native speaker raters in rating the subjects' effectiveness in completion of the two tasks. The subjects were put into two groups: effective and ineffective English subjects by using a global impression marking scheme a 6-point scale of designed to test one's ability to communicate orally (see Appendix E). Eleven of the subjects were rated as effective with a score of 4 to 5. None of them received a score of 6 which is the highest. The ineffective group included twelve subjects who were put at levels 1, 2, and 3. Indicating that the majority of subjects clustered more around lower levels of ability. (see Appendix F for the distribution of subjects in the rating scale). The reliability of the rating of subjects' ability to communicate was found to be 0.86, reflecting high inter-rater reliability.

The subjects' speaking performances were then analyzed for their use of speaking strategies by the researcher using an observation form (see Appendix G) Then, the results of the analysis were checked by another observer who is an expert in the analysis of speaking strategies. The corpora from video tapes were analyzed to

identify what speaking strategies were used by effective and ineffective English subjects following the frame work of definitions, and taxonomies of speaking strategies adapted from Monta Chatupote's (1990) (see Chapter 3). Then, the frequency of occurrences of each type of speaking strategies used by each subject was counted. In doing this, the explanation of each item in Task A by each subject was analyzed. However, only certain parts of the subjects' speaking performance in Task B were analyzed. The subjects expressed their idea about things which appear in the pictures, relating their knowledge of the world through the use of a variety of language functions such as predicting, explaining, describing, as well as the expression of concepts of probability, possibility, comparison and contrast, and condition. To be more precise, for the first picture, –“At the market”–subject's reactions to questions 6 and 7 were analyzed. The two questions were aimed to elicit the subjects' opinion in many areas: “In your opinion, do the two people at the bottom of your left-hand side want to buy any goods here?” and “Can you compare buying things from the market and from the department store? You can talk about either their good points or bad points.” (see Appendix B). For the second picture – “At Lunchtime” –, the subjects' reactions to questions 4, 5, 6, 7, and 8 were analyzed. All of these questions were aimed to elicit the subjects' opinion, so that their performance in using speaking strategies to solve problems in communication could be seen. They were asked, for example, to tell the differences between particular kind of food and Thai food in terms of the cooking time, eating styles, and tools for eating (see Appendix C). Questions which did not prompt any use of strategies were omitted.

3. Procedures for Data Analysis

The analysis of the data was divided into two main parts according to the purposes of the study:

1. To compare the strategies used by the effective and ineffective groups,
2. To find the degree of relationship between each speaking strategy and the effectiveness of communication.

In comparing the use of strategies by the effective and ineffective groups, two variables were included.

1. Independent variable: level of speaking ability of effective and ineffective groups
2. Dependent variable: types of speaking strategies used by the subjects

The data were analyzed using both quantitative and qualitative methods. The speaking strategies used by the subjects were analyzed and identified. After the speaking strategies used by each subject were analyzed and identified, the occurrence of each type of strategies was then counted for frequency. The frequencies of all types of strategies were added up to obtain the total frequency used by each subject. After that, the proportion of the use of each strategy was calculated in terms of a percentage. Then, in order to find the mean of the use of each strategy by each group of subjects, the weighted average method was used. In this calculation, the average was weighted by the proportion of the total frequency of the use of strategy by each subject to the grand total frequency (the total number of strategies used by all subjects). The mean of the use of each strategy and all strategies by the effective and ineffective groups were then compared by using a T-test to ascertain whether there were significant differences.

In addition to the comparison by means of the T-test, an analysis of correlation was conducted to determine the relationship between the use of each speaking strategy and oral communication ability. The results of these analyses will be presented and discussed in Chapter 5.

4. Illustration of the Analysis of Speaking Strategies

The definitions and taxonomies in Chapter 3 were used as a framework for identifying each type of speaking strategy. The following are examples of the analysis of the employment of speaking strategies.

Example 1

Transcript	Target message	Strategy used
Interlocutor: Could you explain the meaning of computer?		
Subject: [computer is er...er.....a new <u>technology</u> very useful very famous for now.]	electronic machine	(inform) (L2-based/lexis) →general word [L2I10]
[Computer is er... (pause)..]		(message abandonment) [WO1]
[you can use the computer to do your work or homework. <u>It's easy to get the answer.</u>]		(clarify) (L2-based/syntax) →adding information [L2C3]
[because there are many program in the computer that set up to help people do their job <u>like in accounting subject.</u>]		(clarify) (L2-based/syntax) →giving example [L2C4]
[You have the software for accountant to <u>make the table.</u>]	construct	(inform) (L2-based/lexis) →L2 lexis, L1 meaning [L2I7]

In the first portion of the example, the word "technology" which covers a wider range of meaning than required here was used instead of the more direct but difficult to retrieve "electronic machine." Hence, this particular example is considered a response using a general word.

In the second segment, it is obvious that the speaker is experiencing difficulties in retrieving a term to explain the concept of "computer". Thus, message abandonment is employed. In the context of defining the word of "computer", the subject continuously adds information and gives examples to carry the message across by basing his production on L2. Finally, L2 lexis, L1 meaning was used. "Make" is translated into Thai as "ทำ" which was less suitable than "construct", which was not retrievable by the subject at the time.

Example 2

Transcript	Target message	Strategy used
Interlocutor: Can you explain to me what the word freedom means?		
Subject: [Er.... Freedom (pause)....]		(message abandonment) [WO1]
Freedom is free...(pause) [Freedom is free er... You can make decision with your own opinion.]		(clarify) (L2-based/syntax) →adding information [L2C3]
[He can work no one er... <u>มันก็มี</u> (pause)...	force	(clarify) (L1-based/lexis) → borrowing- adding information [L1C7]

The communication seems to break down at the beginning of the excerpt when the subject encounters a difficulty in retrieving the word needed to explain the meaning of “freedom”. As a result, message abandonment is employed. In addition, it appears that whenever the subject could not give a direct meaning of the target word because of a lack in linguistic, sociolinguistic knowledge, or vocabulary, the strategy function “clarify” is selected instead of “inform”. After the delivered message could not be understood, second attempt was made by adding information

(L2-based/syntax)→adding information. Doing this makes the meaning of “freedom” clearer. In the final attempt, to add more data, the subject has to face the problem in retrieving the word needed and has to be rescued by his L1 word (borrowing). This strategy would work only if the interlocutor could understand the L1.

CHAPTER 5

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Introduction

This chapter presents and discusses the results of the analysis in the following respects:

1. Overview of the use of speaking strategies by the subjects in the two groups
2. Comparison of the use of speaking strategies between the effective and ineffective groups in terms of:
 - 2.1. Strategy types
 - 2.2. Strategy functions
 - 2.3. Level of the language involved in the use of speaking strategies
3. Relationship between oral communication ability and the use of different types of strategies.

1. Overview of the Use of Speaking Strategies by the Subjects of the Two Groups

The data in Table 5.1 presents the overall picture of the use of speaking strategies by the effective and ineffective groups. It shows the absolute number of times the subjects used each type of strategy and the average of the use by each group.

Table 5.1 Frequencies of Use of Speaking Strategies by the Subjects

		Ability group				Total	
		Effective		Ineffective		Total	Average
		Total	Average	Total	Average		
		11		22		33	
Message achievement	L1-based strategies	297	27	516	23.45	813	24.63
	L2-based strategies	222	20.18	244	11.09	466	14.12
	Os-based strategies	3	0.27	10	0.45	13	6.39
Message avoidance		59	5.36	200	9.09	259	7.84
Totals		581	52.8	970	44.09	1551	47

The total number of speaking strategies used in the corpus was 1551. The average of the total use of speaking strategies by the effective group was 52.8, whereas that of the ineffective group was 44.09. From Table 5.1, we can see a similar pattern of using strategies by the two groups. As a whole, L1-based strategies were called upon most frequently. It is apparent that both the effective and ineffective subjects preferred to employ L1-based strategies. Particularly, L1-based/disguised/syntax→L1 syntax, L2 lexis (inform) [L1I3] was found to be used most frequently by the two groups. However, the mean of the use of L2-based strategies by the effective group was significantly higher than that of the ineffective one (20.18 and 11.09 respectively). On the other hand, message avoidance strategies were employed more often by the ineffective group (the mean of the use by the ineffective group = 9.09, and of the effective group = 5.36) (see Table 5.1).

2. Comparison of the Use of Speaking Strategies by the Effective and Ineffective Groups

2.1 Strategy types

2.1.1 Range of strategy types used by the two groups

It is interesting to investigate the range of types of strategies used by subjects in the two groups. The number of strategy types was counted in terms of (1) those used by both groups, (2) by only the effective group, a (3) by only the ineffective group. It was found that the ineffective group used a wider

range of speaking strategies than did the effective one. The ineffective group used 35 different types, while the effective group used only 29 types (see Table 5.2). It may seem that we have contradictory findings. While the effective group used strategies more frequently than did the ineffective one, they used fewer types of strategies. The plausible explanation is that there is a minimum level of ability required to make use of strategies; all subjects in the study seemed to reach this level. However, proficiency level of the subjects was not so high that there would be no need to resort to use speaking strategies. The subjects of higher ability appeared to have greater language resources at their disposal which enabled them to communicate more and as a result, to enable them to use strategies more often and more effectively. They could concentrate on the use of strategies they found effective so the range of types of strategies they used could be limited intentionally. On the other hand, it makes sense that the lower ability subjects tried to use as many types of strategies as they could to overcome their problems. However, the amount of communication was still smaller than that of effective ones because of their lower ability, resulting in lower frequency of use of strategies.

Another point worth indicating is that the ineffective group was found to use more types of L1-based strategies. They used 10 L1-based types, whereas the effective group used only 7 types. In addition, the ineffective group used two more types of L2-based strategies (see Table 5.2). Details of the use of strategies by the subjects are shown in Table 5.3, 5.4 and 5.5. From Table 5.5, we can see that the two L2-based strategies (L2-based/lexis)→analogy [L2I5] and (L2-based/lexis)→specific word [L2I11] used only by the ineffective group, were both at the lexical level. It is observed that the two strategies used only by the effective group were both of the “clarify” function. They were (L1-based/syntax)→ code switch–elaborating [L1C1] and (L2-based/lexis)→giving repetition [L2C14].

Table 5.2 Number of Strategy Types Used by the Subjects

Strategy types	No. of strategy types used by both groups	No. of strategy types used by only effective subjects	No. of strategy types used by only ineffective subjects
L1-based	6	1	4
L2-based	17	1	2
Os-based	2	-	1
Message abandonment	1	-	-
Topic preservation (meaning replacement)	1	-	-
Topic avoidance	-	-	1
Total	27	2	8

Table 5.3 Strategy Types Used by the Two Groups

Strategy types	Effective (N=11)		Ineffective (N=22)		df	T-value	P< .05
	Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D			
(L1-based/lexis)→ direct translation of L1 word [L1I4]	3.0981	7.546	1.5464	2.345	647.77	4.82	.000
(L1-based/syntax)→ L1 syntax, L2 lexis (adding information) [L1C11]	16.0069	16.502	13.0928	14.423	1094.95	3.53	.000
(L2-based/syntax)→ L2 syntax, L1 meaning [L2I11]	1.7212	2.903	0.8247	2.380	1040.22	6.29	.000
(L2-based/syntax)→ simplification of patterns [L2I4]	0.5164	1.359	0.3093	1.232	1128.34	3.01	.003
(L2-based/lexis)→L2 lexis, L1 meaning [L2I7]	6.7126	7.725	5.5670	6.306	1036.61	3.02	.003
(L2-based/syntax)→self repair [L2IR]	1.5491	2.976	1.1340	2.354	1010.97	2.87	.004
(L2-based/syntax)→ giving meaning [L2C2]	1.5491	3.606	0.3093	1.171	654.01	8.04	.000
(L2-based/syntax)→adding information [L2C3]	16.5232	18.072	7.3196	8.607	740.15	11.52	.000
(L2-based/syntax)→ giving example [L2C4]	1.8933	2.913	1.2371	2.745	1163.70	4.39	.000
(L2-based/syntax)→ giving form1, form2 [L2C5]	1.7212	3.015	0.8247	2.034	899.29	6.35	.000
(L1-based/lexis)→ borrowing [L1I2]	1.2048	2.292	2.6804	5.514	1412.37	-7.34	.000
(L1-based/syntax)→ L1syntax, L2 lexis (giving meaning) [L1C10]	1.0327	3.282	1.6495	4.528	1493.97	-3.10	.002
(L1-based/syntax)→ L1syntax, L2 lexis (giving example) [L1C12]	1.5491	2.445	2.7835	4.274	1546.07	-7.23	.000
(L2-based/lexis)→ circumlocution [L2I8]	.1721	.587	.9278	2.659	1120.92	-8.51	.000

(L2-based/syntax)→ analogy [L2I2]	.6885	1.355	1.0309	1.998	1525.67	-4.01	.000
(L2-based/lexis)→ approximate word [L2I12]	.1721	.937	1.0309	2.184	1430.44	-10.71	.000
(L2-based/lexis)→ self repair [L2I14]	.3442	1.322	.5155	1.598	1398.82	-2.28	.023
(L2-based/syntax)→ elaborating [L2C1]	.1721	.868	.6186	1.817	1487.61	-6.51	.000
(Os-based)→gestures and facial expression [OSI4]	.3442	1.984	.7216	2.065	1259.46	-3.57	.000
Message abandonment [WO1]	9.9828	7.758	19.6907	12.221	1543.93	-19.13	.000
Topic preservation (meaning Replacement) [W3]	.1721	.568	.6186	1.608	1318.63	-7.87	.000
(L1-based/disguised/syntax)→ L1 syntax, L2 lexis [L1I3]	27.8830	24.893	30.2062	25.369	1549	-1.76	.729
(L2-based/lexis)→ word substitution [L2I9]	1.3769	1.951	1.1340	2.812	1549	1.83	.093
(L2-based/lexis)→ general word [L2I10]	2.0654	2.836	1.5464	2.330	1549	3.91	.072
(L2-based/lexis)→ invented word [L2I13]	.1721	.680	.2062	.914	1549	-.78	.080
(L2-based/syntax)→ giving synonym [L2C10]	.3442	1.274	.3093	1.143	1549	.56	.219
(Os-based)→concrete existence [OSI3]	.1721	.661	.2062	.956	1549	-.76	.081

Table 5.4 Strategy Types Used Only by the Effective Group

Strategy types	Effective (N=11)		Ineffective (N=22)		df	T- value	P< .05
	Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D			
(L1-based/syntax)→code switch-elaborating [L1C1]	0.3442	1.361	0.0000	0.000	580.00	6.10	.000
(L2-based/lexis)→giving repetition [L2C14]	0.5164	1.086	0.0000	0.000	580.00	10.49	.000

Table 5.5 Strategy Types Used Only by the Ineffective Group

Strategy types	Effective (N=11)		Ineffective (N=22)		df	T- value	P<.05
	Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D			
(L1-based/syntax)→code switch [L1I1]	.0000	.000	.5155	1.545	969.00	-10.39	.000
(L1-based/lexis) →borrowing – adding information [L1C7]	.0000	.000	.3093	1.205	969.00	-7.99	.000
(L1-based/syntax)→ L1 syntax, L2 lexis –elaborating [L1C9]	.0000	.000	.2062	.907	969.00	-7.08	.000

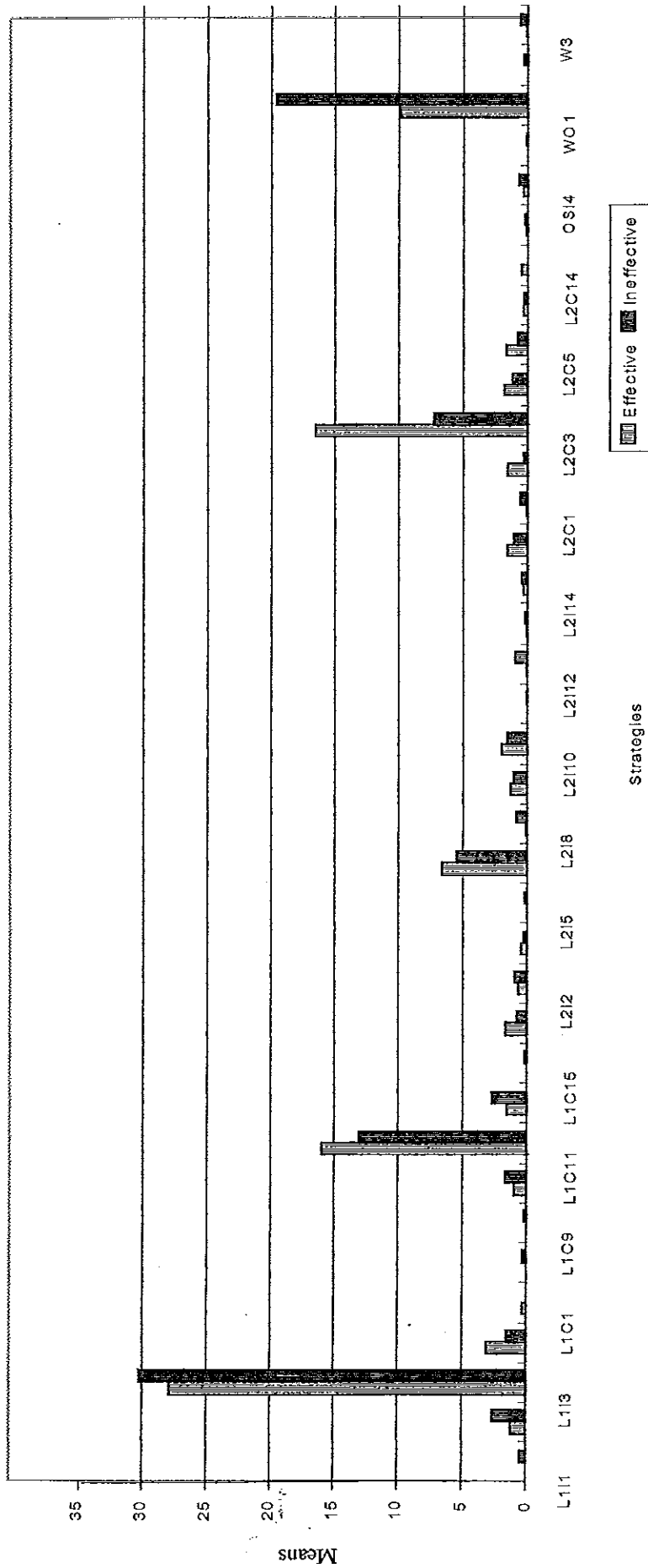
(L1-based/lexis)→ direct translation of L1 word –adding information [L1C15]	.0000	.000	.2062	.823	969.00	-7.80	.000
(L2-based/lexis)→ analogy [L2I5]	.0000	.000	.2062	1.008	969.00	-6.37	.000
(L2-based/lexis)→ specific word [L2I11]	.0000	.000	.1031	.598	969.00	-5.37	.000
(Os-based)→gestures and facial expression [OSC4]	.0000	.000	.1031	.598	969.00	-5.37	.000
Topic avoidance (stated) [W1]	.0000	.000	.3093	1.219	969.00	-7.90	.000

2.1.2 Significant differences in the use of speaking strategies by the effective and ineffective groups

In the comparison of the use of strategies by the two groups, the number of occurrences of each strategy was calculated to find the proportion of use in terms of a percentage. In the analysis of the corpus, it was found that each subject used strategies differently both in terms of the number of uses and the number of types of strategies. Therefore, in order to obtain the mean of the use of each strategy by each group, the weighted average method was used. Then, a T-test was used to compare the mean of the use of each strategy and all strategies used by the effective and ineffective groups.

Figure 5.1 shows an overall picture of the strategies used by the two groups. On the whole, we can see the similar tendency of the use of each type of speaking strategy in the two groups. For example, both the effective and ineffective groups tended to use (L1-based/syntax)→ L1 syntax, L2 lexis–adding information [L1C11] more often than other types of strategies. The effective group mean was 16.01, while that of ineffective group was 13.09 (see Table 5.6 and Figure 5.2). On the other hand, the statistical analysis showed that there were significant differences between the two group means in using certain speaking strategies. We can observe the tendency to use different types of speaking strategies in the two groups. For example, the effective group used much more of (L2-based/syntax)→adding information [L2C3] (mean = 16.52), whereas the ineffective group used this strategy much less frequently (mean = 7.31).

Figure 5.1 Overall Picture of the Use of Strategies by the Two Groups



Note: Some labels of strategy types are not included due to space constraints.

2.1.2.a. Speaking strategies used significantly more frequently by the effective group

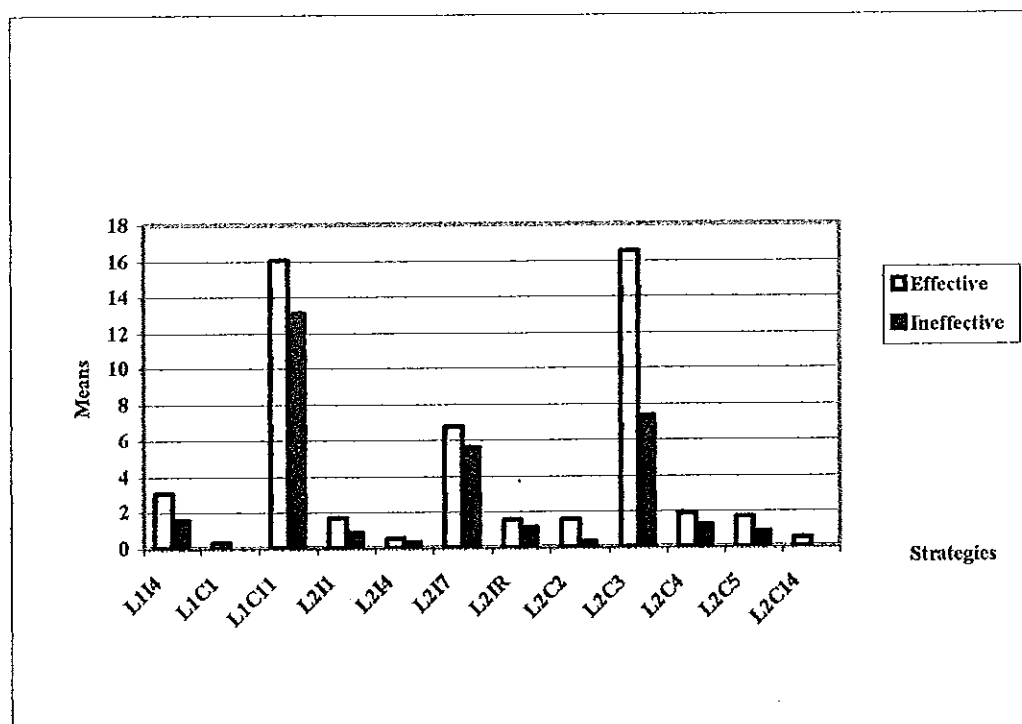
Table 5.6 shows details of the speaking strategy types used significantly more often by the effective group. In general, the effective subjects were found to employ more L2-based strategies, especially at the syntactic level. Moreover, they used more types of clarifying function than did the ineffective group. This finding is in accordance with Paribakht's research (1985 : 132-146) which states that "type of communication strategies used by the speakers varies according to their target language proficiency level" and "the relative frequency of the use of different types of communication strategies also varies according to their proficiency level." Judith E. Liskin-Gasparro (1996) also reveals that advanced speakers employ more L2-based strategies than do intermediate speakers. In addition, the use of strategies to clarify means that the user needs to produce his/her message in two stages. First, s/he needs to produce the problem message and then tries to clarify it, hence, prompting the use of more language. In this way, more proficient speakers are certainly better equipped to cope with the use of strategy to clarify.

Table 5.6 Speaking Strategies Used More Frequently by the Effective Group

Strategy type	Effective (N=11)		Ineffective (N=22)		df	T-value	P< .05
	Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D			
(L1-based/lexis)→direct translation of L1 word [L1I4]	3.0981	7.546	1.5464	2.345	647.77	4.82	.000
(L1-based/syntax)→ code switch-elaborating [L1C1]	0.3442	1.361	0.0000	0.000	580.00	6.10	.000
(L1-based/syntax)→ L1 syntax, L2 lexis-adding information [L1C11]	16.0069	16.502	13.0928	14.423	1094.95	3.53	.000
(L2-based/syntax)→ L2 syntax, L1 meaning [L2I1]	1.7212	2.903	0.8247	2.380	1040.22	6.29	.000
(L2-based/syntax)→ simplification of patterns [L2I4]	0.5164	1.359	0.3093	1.232	1128.34	3.01	.003
(L2-based/lexis)→L2 lexis, L1 meaning [L2I7]	6.7126	7.725	5.5670	6.306	1036.61	3.02	.003

(L2-based/syntax)→self repair [L2IR]	1.5491	2.976	1.1340	2.354	1010.97	2.87	.004
(L2-based/syntax)→giving meaning [L2C2]	1.5491	3.606	0.3093	1.171	654.01	8.04	.000
(L2-based/syntax)→adding information [L2C3]	16.5232	18.072	7.3196	8.607	740.15	11.52	.000
(L2-based/syntax)→giving example [L2C4]	1.8933	2.913	1.2371	2.745	1163.70	4.39	.000
(L2-based/syntax)→giving form1, form2 [L2C5]	1.7212	3.015	0.8247	2.034	899.29	6.35	.000
(L2-based/lexis)→giving repetition [L2C14]	0.5164	1.086	0.0000	0.000	580.00	10.49	.000

Figure 5.2 Speaking Strategies Used Significantly More Frequently by the Effective Group



The following example shows how one of the effective subjects used some speaking strategies.

Transcript	Target message	Strategy used
Interlocutor: Will you explain to me what the word “attempt” means?		
Subject: [Attempt is er.....something people er....]		(message abandonment) [WO1]
[Attempt another for attempt is <u>try</u> .]		(inform) (L2-based/lexis) →giving synonym [L2C10]
[and it’s like <u>when you try hard to get something</u> . It is attempt.]		(clarify) (L2-based/syntax) →giving meaning [L2C2]
[when you want something and you try to take it and find many methods to get it.]		(clarify) (L2-based/syntax) →adding information [L2C3]
[So you <u>have attempt</u>]	Attempt is to try to do something to achieve it.	(clarify) (L1-based/syntax) →L1 syntax, L2 lexis-adding information [L1C11]

In this example, the subject encountered a problem in giving the meaning of the word “attempt”. One way to define the word given is to give its “synonym”. In the first attempt, the subject gave the synonym of the attempt (try). This speaking strategy could work when the interlocutor had known the meaning of the word given as the synonym. In this case, to make sure that the intended message was carried across, giving meaning (L2-based/syntax) and adding information (L2-based/syntax) were used. Then, at the end of the subject’s endeavor to define the meaning of “attempt”, she added more information by simply switching to an L1-based (L1 syntax, L2 lexis) (“So you attempt→So you have attempt”-- ดั้งนั้นคุณมีความพยายาม). It is interesting to note that this subject used mostly L2-based strategies, and used clarifying function to give meaning and add information until she was sure that the intended message was understood.

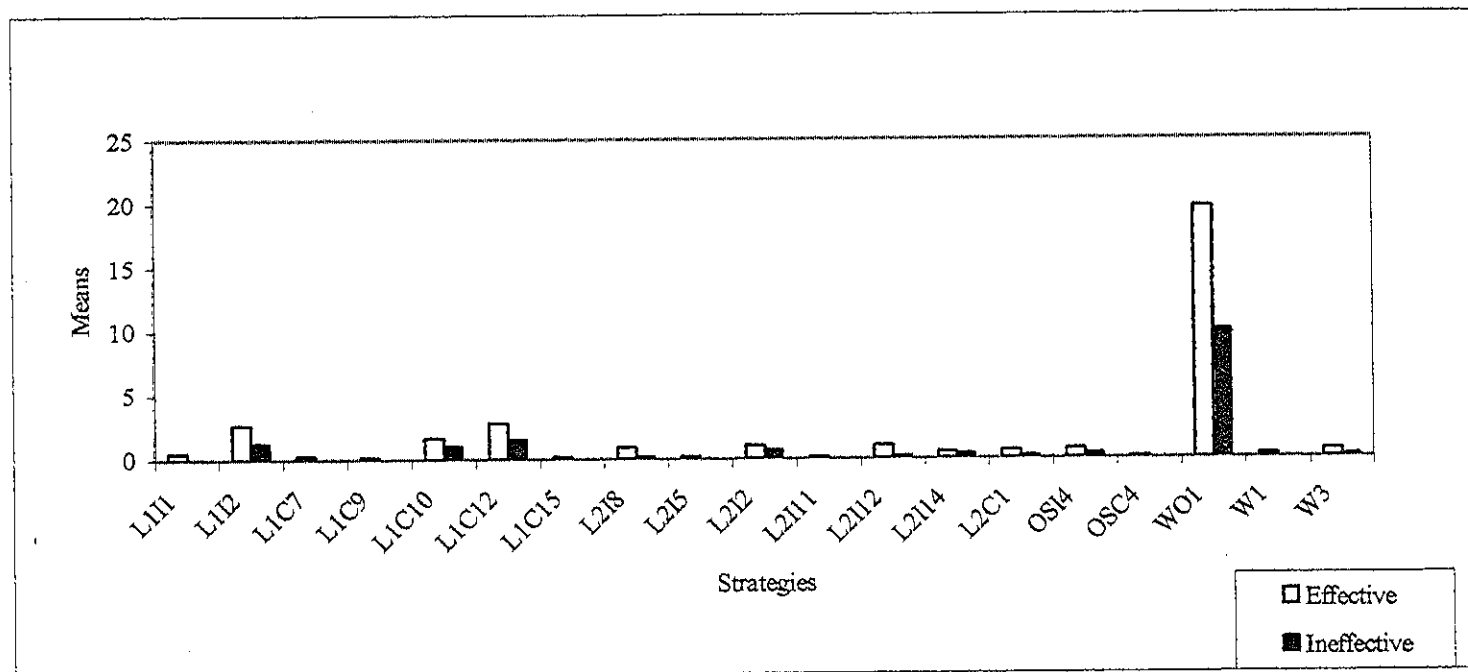
2.1.2.b. Speaking strategies used significantly more frequently by the ineffective group

Table 5.7 and Figure 5.3 show the strategies used significantly more often by the ineffective group. The ineffective group appeared to use some speaking strategies significantly more often than did the effective group. For example, the ineffective group used significantly more of (L2-based/lexis)→approximate word (mean = 1.03), whereas the effective group used them much less frequently (mean = 0.17). This revealed that the lower ability group had smaller size of vocabulary to call upon so they need to make use of whatever available. Also, as expected, the ineffective group used much more message abandonment much more often (mean = 19.69), whereas the effective group used it much less frequently (mean = 9.98). As it can be seen, attempt to communicate could not go on as language was severely lacking. The results of the analysis also reveal that the ineffective group used significantly more strategies using gestures and facial expressions. These strategies require no use of language.

Table 5.7 Speaking Strategies Used Significantly More Frequently by the Ineffective Group

Strategy types	Effective (N=11)		Ineffective (N=22)		df	T- value	P <.05
	Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D			
(L1-based/syntax)→code switch [L1I1]	.0000	.000	.5155	1.545	969.00	-10.39	.000
(L1-based/lexis)→ borrowing [L1I2]	1.2048	2.292	2.6804	5.514	1412.37	-7.34	.000
(L1-based/lexis) → borrowing –adding information [L1C7]	.0000	.000	.3093	1.205	969.00	-7.99	.000
(L1-based/syntax)→ L1syntax, L2 lexis–elaborating [L1C9]	.0000	.000	.2062	.907	969.00	-7.08	.000
(L1-based/syntax)→ L1syntax, L2 lexis–giving meaning [L1C10]	1.0327	3.282	1.6495	4.528	1493.97	-3.10	.002
(L1-based/syntax)→ L1syntax, L2 lexis–giving example [L1C12]	1.5491	2.445	2.7835	4.274	1546.07	-7.23	.000
(L1-based/lexis)→ direct translation of L1 word–adding information [L1C15]	.0000	.000	.2062	.823	969.00	-7.80	.000
(L2-based/lexis)→ circumlocution [L1I8]	.1721	.587	.9278	2.659	1120.92	-8.51	.000
(L2-based/lexis)→ analogy [L2I5]	.0000	.000	.2062	1.008	969.00	-6.37	.000
(L2-based/syntax)→ analogy [L2I2]	.6885	1.355	1.0309	1.998	1525.67	-4.01	.000
(L2-based/lexis)→ specific word L2I11]	.0000	.000	.1031	.598	969.00	-5.37	.000
(L2-based/lexis)→ approximate word [L2I12]	.1721	.937	1.0309	2.184	1430.44	-10.71	.000
(L2-based/lexis)→self repair [L2I14]	.3442	1.322	.5155	1.598	1398.82	-2.28	.023
(L2-based/syntax)→ elaborating [L2C1]	.1721	.868	.6186	1.817	1487.61	-6.51	.000
(Os-based)→gestures and facial expression [OSI4]	.3442	1.984	.7216	2.065	1259.46	-3.57	.000
(Os-based)→gestures and facial expression [OSC4]	.0000	.000	.1031	.598	969.00	-5.37	.000
Message abandonment [WO1]	9.9828	7.758	19.6907	12.221	1543.93	-19.13	.000
Topic avoidance (stated) [W1]	.0000	.000	.3093	1.219	969.00	-7.90	.000
Topic preservation (meaning replacement) [W3]	.1721	.568	.6186	1.608	1318.63	-7.87	.000

Figure 5.3 Speaking Strategies Used Significantly More Frequently by the Ineffective Group



The following example shows how one of the ineffective subjects used those speaking strategies.

Transcript	Target message	Strategy used
Interlocutor: Can you explain the meaning of brother-in-law?		
Subject: [Brother-in-law...ur.. the people.....er.....		(message abandonment) [WO1]
[Brother-in-law is the man who <u>married with our sister.</u>]	Brother-in-law is the man who is married to my sister.	(inform) (L1-based/syntax) →L1syntax, L2 lexis [L1I3]
[He er...he is our brother too, <u>but he is brother by the law is not real brother.</u>]	He is not a brother by blood but a brother by law.	(clarify) (L1-based/syntax) →L1 syntax, L2 lexis--adding information [L1C11]
[<u>and not the brother who er... birth with the same mother or father.</u>]	He is not a brother by birth.	(clarify) (L1-based/syntax) →L1 syntax, L2 lexis--adding information [L1C11]

The problem that the subject confronted was explaining the meaning of the word "brother-in-law". First, he dropped the message (message abandonment). In the second attempt, he employed L1 syntax, L2 lexis to explain the word: "brother-in-law is the man who married with our sister" (brother-in-law is the man who is married to my sister.) It can be seen that the structure of the sentences was based on L1 syntax but using the words in the target language. Thus, it was possible that the intended message could not be 100 percent conveyed. Hence, he again continuously attempted to give the meaning of the target word by using the strategy function "clarify" to add information, trying to make his speech clearer to the interlocutor. As it may be seen, his use of speaking strategies was more L1 based, particularly of L1 syntax, L2 lexis.

With respect to the use of strategies by the two groups, it should be remarked that only a few strategies were popular among the subjects. They are: (L1-based/syntax)→L1 syntax, L2 lexis--adding information [L1C11], (L2-based/lexis)→L2 lexis, L1 meaning [L2I7], and (L2-based/syntax)→ adding information [L2C3]. The most popular was (L1-based/disguised/syntax)→ L1-syntax, L2 lexis. (The mean of the effective group = 27, and that of the ineffective group= 30). This again reflects the proficiency level of the subjects, which was rather low. They appear not to have sufficient linguistic knowledge to rely solely on the target language and to make use of sophisticated strategies, such as paraphrasing or circumlocution which demand a higher level of language ability. However, they tried to make use of their limited resources of the target language by producing the message which occasionally turned out to be in the form of L1 syntax, L2 lexis. Another possible explanation of this phenomenon is that the presence of the interlocutor might have imposed some time constraints. The subjects had to force themselves to produce the message under time pressure which may have forced them to choose strategies that are easier to use.

2.1.2.c Speaking strategies used by neither group

Nine types of L1-based strategies (clarify function), and eight types of L2-based strategies (clarify function) were not used by either groups. It is interesting to note that the strategies used least often by both groups were of "clarify function". Regarding L1-based strategies, it seems that the subjects used them when they tried to inform, and hence, there would be no need to use them in clarifying. As for L2-based strategies (clarify function), they appear to be more demanding on the subjects' ability to use the language. Message achievement L2-based syntax→simplification of patterns, for example, appears to require a high ability of English in using.

The analysis also reveals that message avoidance strategies of topic avoidance and topic preservation were not used by the two groups. This finding may be the result of the demand the task placed on the subject to go through the obstacles in getting the message across. They could not drop any message, although they may have wished to.

Table 5.8 Strategy Types Used by Neither Group

1. Message Achievement Strategies

Strategy Functions	Strategy Types
1.1 Clarify (L1-based)	<p>1.1.1. (message achievement: L1-based/apparent/syntax)→ code switch– giving meaning</p> <p>1.1.2. (message achievement: L1-based/apparent/syntax)→ code switch– adding information</p> <p>1.1.3. (message achievement: L1-based/apparent/syntax)→ code switch – giving example</p> <p>1.1.4. (message achievement: L1-based/apparent/lexis)→ borrowing – giving meaning</p> <p>1.1.5. (message achievement: L1-based/apparent/lexis)→ borrowing– elaborating</p> <p>1.1.6. (message achievement: L1-based/apparent/lexis)→ borrowing – giving example</p> <p>1.1.7. (message achievement: L1-based/disguised/lexis)→ direct translation of L2 word – giving meaning</p> <p>1.1.8. (message achievement: L1-based/disguised/lexis) → direct translation of L2 word elaborating</p> <p>1.1.9. (message achievement: L1-based/disguised/lexis) → direct translation of L2 word – giving example</p>
1.2 Inform (L2-based)	1.2.1. (message achievement: L2-based /lexis)→L2 lexis, L1 meaning

1.3 Clarify (L2-based)	1.3.1 (message achievement: L2-based/lexis)→elaborating
	1.3.2 (message achievement: L2-based/lexis)→giving meaning
	1.3.3 (message achievement: L2-based/lexis)→adding information
	1.3.4 (message achievement: L2-based/lexis)→giving example
	1.3.5 (message achievement: L2-based/lexis)→giving hyponym
	1.3.6. (message achievement: L2-based/lexis)→giving cohyponym
	1.3.7 (message achievement: L2-based/lexis)→giving referent
	1.3.8 (message achievement: L2-based/lexis)→giving opposition

Strategy Functions	Strategy Types
1.4 Inform (Os-based)	1.4.1 (message achievement: os-based)→shared knowledge→facts
	1.4.2 (message achievement: os-based)→shared knowledge →cultures
1.5. Clarify (Os-based)	1.5.1 (message achievement: os-based)→shared knowledge→facts

2. Message Avoidance Strategies

Strategy Types
2.1. (message avoidance: with linguistic attempt: implied)→topic avoidance
2.2. (message avoidance: with linguistic attempt: reduce message →topic preservation

2.2 Strategy functions

Apart from the differences in frequency of use of different types of strategies, it is interesting to examine how the two groups actually used them. The analysis shows that both effective and ineffective groups were also different in their choice of strategy functions.

The effective group was found to use significantly more of the “clarifying” functions listed below:

- L1-based/ syntax→code switch–elaborating
- L1-based/ syntax→L1 syntax, L2 lexis–adding information
- L2-based/ syntax→giving meaning
- L2-based/ syntax→adding information
- L2-based/ syntax→giving example
- L2-based/ syntax→ giving form1, form2
- L2-based/ lexis→ giving repetition

(see Table 5.6)

On the other hand, the ineffective group turned to more of the “inform” function shown below:

- L1-based/syntax→code switch
- L1-based/lexis→borrowing
- L2-based/lexis→circumlocution
- L2-based/lexis→analogy
- L2-based/syntax→analogy
- L2-based/lexis→specific word
- L2-based/lexis→approximate word
- L2-based/lexis→ self repair
- Os-based→gestures and facial expression.

(see Table 5.7)

This suggests that there is a difference between the two groups in the handling of the problematic message. The ineffective group generally used more of the

“inform” function and stopped there, while the effective group went on to use the “clarify” function in an attempt to get the message across, resulting in more effective communication.

The following example shows the employment of speaking strategies (L2-based/syntax) → adding information to clarify by one of the effective subjects.

Transcript	Target message	Strategy used
Interlocutor: Could you please explain to me what the word “love” means?		
Subject: [love is.... (long pause).. emotion.]	Love is a strong feeling of attraction towards and affection for another adult, or great affection for a friend or family member.	(inform) (L2-based/lexis) → approximate word [L2112]
[This mean er...er... you want to live you want to live with someone you love.]		(clarify) (L2-based/syntax) → adding information [L2C3]
[er.... When you live with someone you love, you will happy.]		(clarify) (L2-based/syntax) → adding information [L2C3]

The subject first defined 'love' as 'emotion'. This new word is an approximate word, as the meaning is in the same general area as the required word. However, the definition of love was not quite precise. Thus, she tried again to explain the meaning of love. In an attempt to get rid of the difficulties in delivering the message, she switched to the strategy function "clarify" to add more information so that the interlocutor could understand. It is noted that the speaking strategies used were based on L2. Eventually, the message was conveyed towards the end of the interaction.

2.3 Levels of the language the involved in the use of speaking strategies

The detailed analysis of the data also reveals clearly that the effective group used significantly more L2-based strategies at the syntactic level, whereas the ineffective group was found to use more at the lexical level. This finding suggests that differences in language ability has a marked effect on the choice of strategy used. The ineffective group used the L2-based at the level of syntax less frequently than did the effective group. For example, the mean of the use of (L2-based/syntax)→adding information [L2C3] by the ineffective group was 16.52, whereas the mean of the effective one was 7.31. It is apparent that the use of L2-based strategies at the syntactic level is more efficient in getting the message across. To be able to use these strategies, the subjects have to rely on sufficient linguistic knowledge. Thus, this phenomenon may be explained by the fact that the ineffective group might have difficulties in adding information or clarifying at the level of syntax. As a result, they turned to strategies at the lexical level which is less demanding and the resulting products were only strings of words.

3. Relationship Between Ability in Oral Communication and the Use of Different Types of Strategies

This study also asked the question: to what degree does each speaking strategy contribute to the effectiveness of communication. In order to find the answer to this question, correlation coefficients were computed to assess the degree of relationship between oral communication scores and the frequency of use of each type of speaking strategy. The result of the analysis reveals that the relationship between oral communication scores and the frequency of the use of each type of speaking strategy by all subjects was generally low, both positively and negatively (see Table 5.9). Some of the strategies were used more often by the subjects who scored high in the oral communication and some were used more often by those with low scores.

However, the correlation coefficients of the oral communication scores and the use of some strategies such as (message achievement: L2-based/syntax)→adding information [L2C3] and (message achievement: L2-based/syntax)→giving form1, form2 [L2C5] were moderately high ($r_{SL2C3}=.332$ and $r_{SL2C5}=.238$ respectively). In addition, the correlation coefficients of the use of (message avoidance: with linguistic attempt: stated)→topic avoidance [W1] and message avoidance: without linguistic attempt: unfinished message)→message abandonment [WO1] and the oral communication score were moderately high ($-.475$ and $-.246$ respectively). This indicates that the ineffective group resorted to message avoidance and the use of facial expression and gestures more often than did the effective group. The finding suggests that there is, to a certain extent, a relationship between the oral communication ability and the use of some strategies. This result corresponds with the statistical analysis of the comparison of two group means which shows that the effective group tended to use strategies at the syntactic level, whereas the ineffective

group tended to use more strategies at the lexical level. Moreover, the effective group was found to use more “clarify” function than the ineffective one.

From this finding, we may conclude that some strategy types, such as those which are L2-based at syntactic level and the use of clarify functions communication such as L2-based/ syntax→adding information [L2C3], L2-based/ syntax→ giving form1, form2 [L2C5], and L2-based/lexis)→giving repetition [L2C14] contribute to more effectiveness of communication.

L1C9	L111	L112	L113	L114	L2C10	L2C11	L2C12	L2C13	L2C14	L2C15	L2C1	L2C2	L2C3	L2C4	L2C5	L2C6
-013	-.097**	-.180**	-.033	.193**	.034				.317**		-.022	.186**	.332**	.121**		.238**
.006	.011	-.077**	-.303**	-.103**	.098**				-.087**		.108**	.044	.176**	-.117**		-.111**
.134**	-.110**	-.353**	-.734**	-.281**	.173**				.030		.154**	.062**	.435**	.302**		.023
.214**	.043	-.240**	-.513**	-.166**	.170**				-.045		.210**	.175**	.118**	.307**		-.013
-.035	-.051*	-.090**	-.126**	-.032	-.053*				-.049		-.057*	-.061*	.008	.139**		-.091**
-.027	-.039	-.070**	-.022	.885**	-.041				-.038		-.044	-.048	-.119**	-.080**		-.071**
-.036	.140**	-.092**	.022	-.007	-.054*				-.051*		-.059*	-.063*	.020	.064*		.002
1.000	-.046	-.082**	-.148**	-.075**	.345**				-.045		✓.251**	-.056*	.030	-.093**		-.083**
-.046	1.000	.375**	-.058*	.001	-.070**				-.065*		.058*	-.081**	-.134**	-.005		-.046
-.082**	.375**	1.000	.246**	.036	-.124**				-.029		-.026	-.144**	-.333**	-.241**		-.139**
-.148**	-.058*	.246**	1.000	.177**	-.226**				-.132**		-.281**	-.229**	-.652**	-.418**		-.114**
-.075**	.001	.036	.177**	1.000	-.114**				-.027		-.123**	-.115**	-.235**	-.165**		-.085**
.345**	-.070**	-.124**	-.226**	-.114**	1.000				-.068**		.264**	.490**	.188**	-.142**		-.126**
						1.000										
							1.000									
								1.000								
-.045	-.065*	-.029	-.132**	-.027	-.068**				1.000		-.074**	-.079**	.217**	.309**		.264**
.251**	.058*	-.026	-.281**	-.123**	.264**				-.074**	1.000	1.000	-.015	.094**	-.035		.285**
-.056*	-.081**	-.144**	-.229**	-.115**	.490**				-.079**		-.015	1.000	.383**	.161**		-.111**
.030	-.134**	-.333**	-.652**	-.235**	.188**				.217**		.094**	.383**	1.000	.352**		.156**
-.093**	-.005	-.241**	-.418**	-.165**	-.142**				.309**		-.035	.161**	.352**	1.000		.187**
-.083**	-.046	-.139**	-.114**	-.085**	-.126**				.264**		.285**	-.111**	.156**	.187**	1.000	1.000
.172**	.126**	-.062*	-.384**	-.189**	.238**				.057*		.394**	.276**	.336**	.068**		.109**
-.024	.353**	-.062*	-.139**	-.057*	-.037				-.034		-.040	-.043	.035	.272**		.132**
-.068**	.013	-.037	.158**	-.095**	-.006				-.096**		.157**	-.119**	-.160**	-.151**		.023
-.041	-.060*	-.037	-.037	.513**	-.063*				-.058*		-.068**	-.073**	-.157**	-.122**		-.108**
-.054*	-.078**	.094**	.231**	-.080**	-.081**				-.076**		-.088**	-.094**	-.236**	-.085**		.134**
.027	-.114**	-.036	.161**	.458**	-.017				.352**		-.129**	-.089**	-.180**	-.103**		.115**
-.090**	-.130**	.036	.188**	-.070**	-.136**				.003		.039	-.158**	-.253**	.065*		.074**
-.054*	-.078**	-.080**	.081**	-.100**	-.081**				-.076**		.103**	-.013	.055*	-.087**		-.086**
-.029	.216**	.568**	-.075**	-.068**	-.043				-.040		.161**	-.050*	-.103**	-.084**		-.075**
-.074**	-.039	.115**	.312**	.186**	-.173**				-.053*		-.123**	-.162**	-.272**	-.174**		-.037
-.053*	-.077**	-.063*	.204**	.020	-.081**				.009		-.087**	-.094**	-.132**	-.063*		.006
-.086**	-.125**	.157**	.205**	.231**	-.131**				.129**		-.142**	-.055*	-.266**	-.053*		.004
.019	.166**	.121**	.225**	-.020	-.133**				-.125**		-.144**	.038	-.175**	-.053*		-.083**
-.024	.353**	-.062*	-.139**	-.057*	-.037				-.034		-.040	-.043	.035	.272**		.132**
-.040	.389**	.345**	.142**	.083**	-.061*				-.057*		-.066**	-.071**	-.177**	-.119**		-.024
-.051*	-.073**	.124**	.192**	.090**	-.077**				-.072**		-.083**	-.089**	-.223**	-.149**		.017
.129**	.170**	-.062*	-.459**	-.251**	.083**				-.072**		.134**	-.061*	-.003	.109**		-.096**
-.035	-.051*	-.091**	-.133**	-.084**	-.054*				-.050*		-.058*	-.062*	.024	-.104**		-.093**
-.060*	.199**	.230**	.146**	-.027	-.091**				-.085**		-.099**	-.106**	-.221**	-.073**		-.158**

CHAPTER 6

SUMMARY OF THE RESULTS AND THEIR IMPLICATIONS

1. Summary

This chapter presents a summary of the main results of the study and their implications. Further studies are also recommended.

The findings of this study consist of three main points.

1.1 The investigation of the range of use of strategy types shows that the ineffective group used more types of strategy than did the effective group. However, the effective group resorted to the use of strategies more often than did the ineffective group. This suggests that the two groups had the minimum level of ability in order to make use of strategies and still needed the strategies to help solve communication problems. The less proficient group produced smaller amount of language in communication and so used strategies less frequently. However, they might have to try every possible strategies to communicate. The more proficient group, on the other hand, used only the types of strategies they found effective and used them more often.

1.2 The comparison of the strategy use of the two groups shows four notable points:

1.2.1 The result indicates that each group tended to use similar types of strategies. Both the effective and ineffective groups tended to use L1-based strategies most frequently. This indicates that the English language proficiency level of most of the subjects was still not high enough to rely on solely L2-based strategies which require considerably high level of linguistic proficiency to produce.

1.2.2 There was a significant difference between the effective and ineffective groups in terms of the use of strategy types. The effective group used L2-based strategies more frequently. It was also found that the ineffective group used message abandonment and strategies using gestures and facial expressions more often than the effective group.

1.2.3 The two groups differed significantly in their use of strategies at different levels of language structure: syntax and lexis. The effective group used more strategies at sentence level whereas the ineffective group used more strategies at lexical level. This may also be seen as a result of the difference in language ability which is fundamental to communication. The better group had more language resources to use in communication which meant that they were more able to produce language at sentence level whereas the lower ability group could probably manage to produce only strings of words.

1.2.4 There were significant differences between the two groups in using strategy functions. The effective group went on to use the "clarify" function in an attempt to get the message across, resulting in more effective communication. On the other hand, the ineffective group did not use several kinds of strategies involving clarification because the use of "clarify" relies on a higher level of proficiency in English.

1.3 The analysis of the correlation between oral communication scores and the use of each type of strategy reveals that many of the coefficients are rather low but some are moderately high. Confirmed by the analysis of the two group means, we may conclude that the use of some strategies are related, to a certain degree, to oral ability. Certain strategy types, such as those which are L2-based at syntactic level and the use of "clarify" function, appear to contribute to a greater effectiveness in communication.

2. Pedagogical Implications

The results of this study have some implications for the teaching and learning of English as a foreign language. They reveal that the effective and ineffective groups used speaking strategies differently in handling a problematic message. For example, the effective group used the “clarify” function more often to make their message clearer. In addition, the results suggest that some strategies, the L2-based strategies and “clarify” function, contributed to a greater effectiveness in communication. It can also be observed that the ineffective group tended to use message abandonment more frequently than did the effective group.

It is obvious that Thai learners of English have to confront with oral communication problems due to their lack of linguistic resources. Hence, one important task that English teachers should be actively involved in is to try to raise learners’ awareness of the usefulness of speaking strategies. Learners should be encouraged to communicate despite their lack of English language proficiency, and to take risks in communication and use speaking strategies to bridge the gap between language supply and language demand. Moreover, they should be encouraged to try to persevere with the conversation rather than giving up their message. It is thus recommended that learners be trained in using effective speaking strategies. In addition, the teacher should provide learners with opportunities to practice using English to communicate in everyday life. According to Dornyei (1995), there was evidence that learners who had been exposed to certain L2 input improved their strategic competence.

This study also found that the choice of language-based strategies is closely tied to the level of language ability. The learners may have limited L2 vocabulary and resources at their disposal. Hence, it would be necessary to also equip them with sufficient language resources to enable them to make use of strategies effectively.

3. Further Studies

This study reveals that L1-based strategies were employed most frequently by both the effective and ineffective subjects. This indicates that the level of language proficiency of most subjects was still not high enough to enable them to make use of L2-based strategies. Hence, further research in the area of speaking strategies should be done with two groups of learners with significantly different level of language proficiency in order to ascertain whether similar results will be obtained. In addition, it would be interesting to compare the effectiveness of communication of a group of learners who were taught how to use a variety of speaking strategies to communicate with the groups of learners who were not taught these strategies. Thus, further studies are needed to answer these questions:

1. Do learners who are taught and trained to use speaking strategies communicate more effectively than those who are not?
2. How do speaking strategies help promote the learners' effectiveness in communication?

This research limited the scope of study to focus on two types of task which consisted of explaining individual lexical items and describing pictures in terms of people, places, and activities. It would be interesting to further investigate the use of strategies in different types of task so that they entail differences in terms of task demands, the presence or absence of an interlocutor, and the contextualization of the task. The findings obtained from those studies would add to the understanding of the effect of task on the selection of the strategies by the two groups.

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APPENDIX A-A

Language Task Specification for Task A

Description of testees: Thirty-three PSU undergraduate students from the Faculties of Science, Management Sciences, and Engineering who have recently finished a conversation course.

Description of the task:

Task A The subjects were required to explain eight individual lexical items comprising an equal number of concrete and abstract concepts:

Concrete concepts	Abstract concepts
salary	love
rose	attempt
brother-in-law	freedom
computer	success

The words were chosen on the basis of their common use in everyday life.

A. Events and activities

- a. Introducing themselves
- b. Giving information
- c. Explaining eight individual lexical items comprising concrete and abstract concepts

B. Modes

- a. Listening + Speaking
- b. Listening + Speaking

c. Listening + Speaking
C. Channel Face-to-face
D. Topic Areas Daily life (concrete and abstract concepts)
E. Suitable Task Format Face-to-face oral interaction
F. Language Functions To: greet, predict, explain, describe Also the concepts: probability, possibility, comparison and condition
G. Language skills Using appropriate grammatical cohesive devices Using appropriate lexical cohesive devices (synonyms, antonyms, etc.) Understanding and expressing conceptual meaning Understanding and expressing explicit language

APPENDIX A-B

Language Task Specification for Task B

Description of testees: Thirty-three PSU undergraduate students from the Faculties of Science, Management Sciences, and Engineering who have recently finished a conversation course.

Description of the task:

Task B The subjects were required to explain and describe the people, places, and activities in two pictures. In the task, the subjects would have to use everyday language common in real-life communication, for example, giving opinions, exchanging experience and knowledge, and comparing and contrasting.

<p>A. Event and activities</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Giving information b. Explaining and describing, as well as, expressing opinion about the events in the two pictures as related to their knowledge of the world
<p>B. Modes</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Listening + Speaking b. Listening + Speaking
<p>C. Channel</p> <p>Face-to-face</p>
<p>D. Topic Areas</p> <p>Daily life</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - at the market - at lunchtime

E. Suitable Tasks Format Face-to-face oral interaction
F. Language Functions To: greet, predict, explain, describe Also the concepts: probability, possibility, comparison and contrast, condition
G. Language skills Using appropriate grammatical cohesive devices Using appropriate lexical cohesive devices (synonyms, antonyms, etc.) Understanding and expressing conceptual meaning Understanding and expressing explicit language

APPENDIX B

Task A.

The subjects have to explain eight individual lexical items comprising four concrete and four abstract concepts.

Interlocutor Frame

Interlocutor: Hello. My name is Walaiporn Sasanapradit. I'm a graduate student in the field of applied linguistics in the Faculty of Liberal Arts. What's your name?

Subject: -----.

Interlocutor: Nice to meet you.

Subject: -----.

Interlocutor: How are you today?

Subject: ----- And you?

Interlocutor: Very well. Thank you. Could you tell me something about yourself?

Subject: -----.

Interlocutor: What do you think of English? Please tell me your real feeling/opinion.

Don't worry about things you say, I will not mention your name in my study. So you can say anything. My objective for oral interaction is to identify what techniques you use when communicating with me.

Therefore, I really hope that you will try to explain words and describe pictures as thoroughly as you can.

Subject: -----.

Interlocutor: Do you like to study it? Why do you think that?

Subject: -----.

Interlocutor: Are you ready to start now?

Subject: -----.

Interlocutor: Could you explain to me what the word salary means?

(Show the word card to subject)

Subject: -----.

Interlocutor: Will you please explain to me what the word rose means?

Subject: -----.

Interlocutor: Can you explain the meaning of brother-in-law?

Subject: -----.

Interlocutor: Could you explain the meaning of computer?

Subject: -----.

Interlocutor: Could you please explain to me what the word love means?

Subject: -----.

Interlocutor: Will you explain to me what the word attempt means?

Subject: -----.

Interlocutor: Can you explain to me what the word freedom means?

Subject: -----.

Interlocutor: Could you explain to me what the word success means?

Subject: -----.

APPENDIX C

Task B. (For all subjects)

First Picture

Instruction: Look at this picture and describe it in terms of activities, people, and places using these questions as a guideline and also comment (วิจารณ์) on any aspects you like.

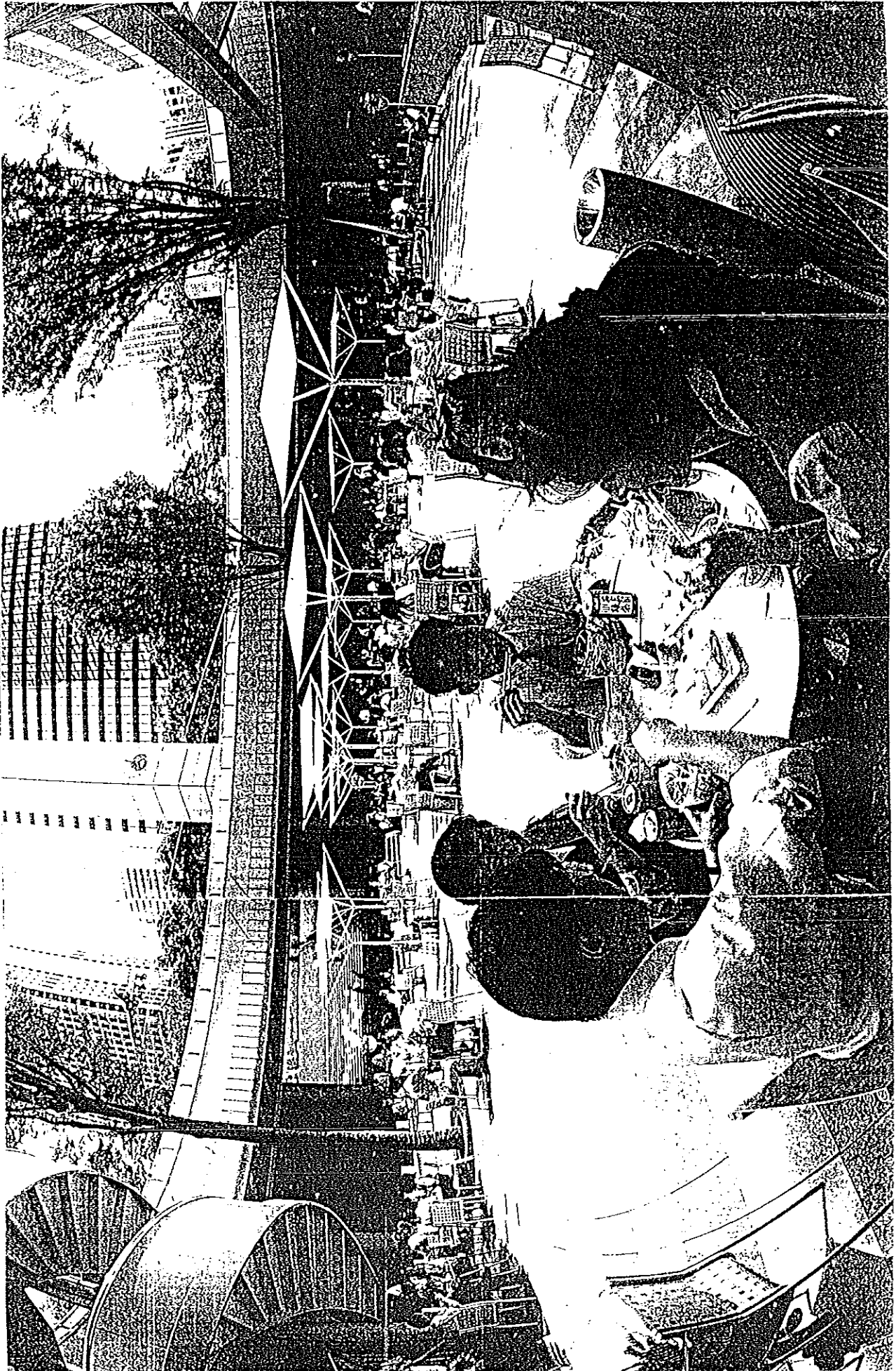
1. Where is this situation likely to take place?
2. What is happening in this picture?
3. What day is it today? Why do you think so?
4. What is the weather like today?
5. What do you think of the atmosphere of this place?
6. In your opinion, do the two people on the bottom of your left-hand side want to buy any goods here?
7. Can you compare between buying things from the market and from the department store? (You can talk about both their good points and bad points.)



Second Picture

Instruction: Look at this picture and describe it in terms of activities, people, and places using these questions as a guideline and also comment (วิจารณ์) on any aspects you like.

1. Where does this event take place?
2. Who are these people? (businessman/ businesswomen, students, workers)
3. What are they doing?
4. Can you guess what their nationality is?
5. What makes you think that?
6. What kind of food are they eating?
7. In your opinion, how do they feel while eating?
8. What are the differences between this kind of food and Thai food in terms of
 - the length of time for cooking,
 - style of eating,
 - tools for eating?



APPENDIX D

Rater's name:

Videotape Code:

Evaluation Form for Raters

Student's name	Level of effectiveness of communication	Describing dominant features of the student' speech relating with his/her level of effectiveness of communication	Comments (Can he/she achieve the goal? Can you understand his/her speech?)

APPENDIX E

Rating Point	Ability to Communicate Orally	Status of Ability
6 (Excellent)	Excellent: on a par with an educated native speaker. Completely at ease in his use of English on all topics discussed.	Highly Effective
5 (Good)	Very good: although he cannot be mistaken for a native speaker, he expresses himself quite clearly.	Effective
4 (Quite Good)	Satisfactory verbal communication causing little difficulty for native speakers. He makes a limited number of errors of grammar, lexis and pronunciation, but he is still at ease in communicating on everyday subjects. He may have to correct himself and re-pattern his utterance on occasions, but there is little difficulty in understanding him.	Fairly Effective
3 (Quite Poor)	Although verbal communication is usually fairly satisfactory, the native speaker may occasionally experience some difficulty in understanding. Repetition, re-phrasing and re-patterning are sometimes necessary. Ordinary native speakers might find it difficult to understand.	Fairly Ineffective
2 (Poor)	Much difficulty experienced by native speakers unaccustomed to 'foreign' English.	Ineffective

	Communication on everyday topics is possible. Large number of errors of phonology, grammar and lexis.	
1 (Fail)	Extreme difficulty in communication on any subject. Failure to make himself understood.	Extremely Ineffective

(Adapted from Heaton, J.B. (1988) Writing English Tests.)

APPENDIX F**The Distribution of Subjects in the Rating Scale**

Level of Ability		Number of Subjects
Ineffective	1	2
	2	15
	3	5
Effective	4	6
	5	5
	6	0

APPENDIX G**Observation Form for Observers**

Name:.....

Transcript	Speaking strategies Used
1. salary	
2. rose	
3. brother-in-law	
4. computer	
5. love	
6. attempt	
7. freedom	

8. success	
A. at the market	
B. at lunchtime	

VITAE

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Birth Date January 31, 1971

Educational Attainment

Degree	Name of Institution	Year of Graduation
Bachelor of Education(B.Ed.) (English) the Second Class Honours	Silpakorn University, Nakornpratom	1994
Master of Arts (M.A.) (Applied Linguistics)	Prince of Songkla University, Songkhla.	2000