UNIVERSITY OF SOUTHAMPTON

FACULTY OF LAW, ARTS & SOCIAL SCIENCES

School of Education

The Effects of Teaching Communication Strategies to Thai Learners of English

by

Tiwaporn Kongsom

Thesis for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

August 2009

UNIVERSITY OF SOUTHAMPTON

ABSTRACT

FACULTY OF LAW, ARTS & SOCIAL SCIENCES
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THE EFFECTS OF TEACHING COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES TO THAI LEARNERS OF ENGLISH

The issue of teaching and learning communication strategies has been controversial over the past few decades. Whereas some theoretical arguments reject the benefits of teaching of communication strategies, many practical and empirical studies make pedagogical recommendations and support the idea. Nevertheless, there appears to be no information on teaching communication strategies to Thai learners of English in Thailand. To address these issues, this thesis investigates the effects of teaching communication strategies to Thai learners of English in Thailand. It was designed as an interventionist study conducted with a group of students. Both qualitative and quantitative data were collected in the current study.

Sixty-two fourth year students majoring in Engineering at King Mongkut's University of Technology North Bangkok participated in this study. All the students received a 12-week communication strategy-based instruction and 12 students were asked to complete four speaking tasks and retrospective protocols. Data were collected via (1) self-report strategy questionnaire, (2) attitudinal questionnaire (3) transcription data of four different speaking tasks, and (4) retrospective protocols.

The results from the self-report strategy questionnaire and the speaking tasks showed that the explicit teaching of communication strategies raised students' awareness of strategy use and promoted the greater use of taught communication strategies of the students. The students considered the taught strategies in communication strategy instruction useful, especially pause fillers and hesitation devices, approximation, self-repair and circumlocution. With respect to the retrospective verbal reports, the findings showed that the students tended to be more aware of the taught communication strategies. They revealed their intention and reasons behind their use of some taught communication strategies in more detail while completing the post-speaking tasks. Finally, the positive outcomes of the teaching of some specific communication strategies were supported by the findings of an attitudinal questionnaire on the strategy instruction. The findings suggest that the students found the communication strategy instruction useful for them. They also showed positive feelings and attitudes towards the communication strategy instruction.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

List of Tables

List of Figures

DECLARATION OF AUTHORSHIP

I, ……**Tiwaporn Kongsom**……
declare that the thesis entitled

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and the work presented in the thesis are both my own, and have been generated by me as the result of my own original research. I confirm that:

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First and foremost, I would like to express my gratitude to my PhD. supervisors, Professor Michael Grenfell and Dr. John Schulz for their enthusiasm, inspiration and great efforts to make things clearly and simply. Throughout my thesis-writing period, both of them provided encouragement, thoughtful guidance and helpful suggestions. My thesis would not be completed without them.

My special thanks also go to Professor Do Coyle, my external examiner from the School of Education, the University of Aberdeen, and Dr. Brenda Johnston, my internal examiner, who provided insightful comments and suggestions to improve this thesis.

Additionally, this thesis could not be completed without the invaluable help of students, friends and colleagues at King Mongkut's University of Technology North Bangkok. I am also grateful to Asst. Prof. Dr. Ngamthip Wimolkasem, who provided encouragement and invaluable suggestions for my research instruments.

Moreover, I am also grateful to the Faculty of Applied Arts, King Mongkut's University of Technology North Bangkok and the Royal Thai Government who financially support me to undertake this doctoral degree.

In addition, I wish to thank my entire family, my husband and my sisters for providing love, care, encouragement and understanding. Without their support, I would not have been able to finish my thesis.

Lastly and most importantly, I wish to thank my dear parents, Preecha Tathong and Wanpen Tathong. They raised me, taught me, supported me and loved me. To them I dedicate this thesis.

List of Abbreviations

CS/ CSs:	Communication strategy/ Communication strategies
CS instruction:	Communication strategy instruction
EFL:	English as a foreign language
L1:	The native language or Thai
L2:	The second language or English
L3:	The third language or other language
LS/LSs:	Learning strategy/ Learning strategies
NL:	Native language
TL:	Target language
SBI:	Strategy based instruction

CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION

This chapter provides the background and rationale for undertaking a study on the effects of teaching communication strategies to Thai learners of English in Thailand. It has been divided into seven sections. Following an overview of the educational system in Thailand, section 1.2 provides the background and discusses the need for the current study. Section 1.3 addresses the purpose of this study and section 1.4 provides the research questions for the present study. Section 1.5 addresses the significance of the current study in relation to the justifications for the study. Section 1.6 provides definitions of terms used in the present study. The chapter ends with the organisation of this thesis.

1.1 The educational system in Thailand

In Thailand, formal education is divided into 2 levels: basic education and higher education. Basic education is provided before higher education covering pre-primary education, six years of primary education, three years of lower secondary education, and three years of upper secondary education (Office of Education Council, 2006:9). Higher education is provided in universities, institutions, and colleges and it is divided into two levels: associate degree and degree levels. Associate degrees or the diploma level are mainly offered by colleges and institutions, state and private vocational colleges, colleges of physical education, dramatic arts and fine arts. The majority of courses offered are related to vocational and teacher education which require two years of study. Degree level requires two years of study for students who have completed diploma courses, and four to six years of study for those finishing upper secondary education or equivalent courses.

To date the role of English language in Thailand is important since it is the first foreign language that students study in schools (Wiriyachitra, 2004). It has been taught for all levels of study until graduation and also required as a subject for entry to higher education. Before entering colleges or universities, Thai students have learned English as a compulsory course from Grades 5 to 12. In universities, English is a compulsory

subject. Generally, the compulsory language courses for undergraduate degree programme are Foundation English I and II, which aim to enable students to develop the four skills (reading, writing, speaking and listening) and achieve their level of language proficiency. Apart from the compulsory English courses, students can take more advanced courses such as study skills in English, reading, writing, conversation and so on. At King Mongkut's University of Technology North Bangkok (KMUTNB), many departments have begun to recognise the importance of English communication skill. Therefore, the students are encouraged to take English conversation courses to improve their speaking and listening abilities. However, studying English conversation in the formal classroom alone is not sufficient to develop students' communication skill. To develop their speaking ability, Thai students should be given more chance to practise and learn new approaches for speaking English. This is because Thailand is a monolingual country so Thai students have less chance to speak English outside the classroom. The goal of the current study is to identify strategies to help students develop their English speaking ability.

1.2 Background and need for this study

Nowadays, English speaking ability has become a necessity for establishing linkages with the rest of the world, in conducting international trade, diplomatic exchanges and the use of new technology. Since Thailand is beginning to play a more important role internationally, the ability to communicate in English clearly and efficiently contributes to the success of the learner not only in classroom but also in every phase of life. In order to carry out conversations, basic ability in grammar and vocabulary is not enough to be able to communicate properly and effectively. Thai students also need communicative competence which enables them to communicate successfully and effectively in real-life situations.

However, "speaking in a foreign language is very difficult and competence in speaking takes a long time to develop" (Alderson & Bachman, 2004: ix). This is because speaking involves a variety of processes. Speaking requires not only knowledge of vocabulary and grammar but also negotiating effectively and adapting to different contexts within cultural and social rules of the communication setting (Wells,

1985: 22). To speak a foreign language, “learners must master the sound system of the language, have almost instant access to appropriate vocabulary, be able to put words together intelligibly with minimal hesitation, understand what is being said to them and be able to respond appropriately to maintain amicable relations or to achieve their communicative goals” (Alderson & Bachman, 2004: ix). Apart from the ability to use language correctly (linguistic competence), students must be made aware of the other competences, that is, sociolinguistic and strategic competence. It is through the interaction between speaker and listener that meaning becomes clear. As a result, students need to have communication strategies to handle possible English language interaction which may arise in their communication.

This is true with Thai learners of English in Thailand. Thai students still have problems in their English speaking ability despite several years of learning English. According to Weerarak (2003), the speaking problems of Thai learners can be classified into two main types: the lack of grammatical knowledge and/or vocabulary limitations and the lack of self-confidence in using English (p.2). This viewpoint is supported by informal interviews conducted with undergraduate engineering students at King Mongkut’s University of Technology North Bangkok (KMUTNB) during the pilot study in November 2006. The students revealed that they sometimes lacked sufficient linguistic and strategic knowledge to maintain the conversation. When they did not know the vocabulary or structure to use, they left the message unfinished and avoided talking about the topic. In addition, they were too shy to speak English and they lacked confidence in speaking English although they had studied English for a long time. They also stated that sometimes they felt nervous and forgot what they wanted to say in English. They seemed to lack self-awareness in speaking and using communication strategies. The aforementioned problems indicate that students’ belief in their speaking difficulties mainly results from the problems in deficiency of vocabulary, grammatical structure, and confidence.

In response to the situation described above, it is important to find a new method of teaching English speaking to Thai students. It is not enough to encourage speaking activities in class; teachers must also explicitly emphasise communication strategies. Teaching and equipping students with particular communication strategies are

beneficial since they may enable students to know how to compensate for their lack of language knowledge during the communication process. Finally, communication strategies may help students boost their confidence and take risks while speaking English. Therefore, the current study is based on the view that teaching communication strategies to students can be beneficial. This view is also supported by Kebir (1994), Dornyei (1995), Lam (2004), Wen (2004), Nakatani (2005), and Le (2006), who argue it is important to teach communication strategies to language learners. The research on teaching communication strategies described in this thesis was designed and implemented to introduce an alternative way of English speaking instruction for the university level in Thailand.

This study is justified on the following grounds. Firstly, the issue of teaching communication strategies has been controversial over the past few decades. Some studies in the research literature suggested that further studies should investigate the teachability of communication strategies. Dornyei (1995), for example, proposed that "future extensions and elaborations of the training programme may be expected to achieve even more marked results…" (p.80). In addition, Nakatani (2005) supported the view that the further investigation regarding the impact of strategy training on the forms of utterances should be conducted (p.87). Similarly, Manchon (2000) concluded "if we want to move forward there is a need to carry out empirical studies at least to (i) test whether in fact training students in the use of communication strategies does make a difference…" (p.23). Therefore, the present study aims to offer some more understanding of the relationships between communication strategy instruction, Thai learners' strategy use, their task performance and attitudes towards the communication strategy instruction.

Secondly, most research has focused on the teaching of achievement strategies to compensate for learners' lack of language knowledge during the communication process. Few studies encouraged the teaching of avoidance or reduction strategies. However, teaching avoidance strategy or fillers can also provide learners with a sense of security in their speaking by allowing them to try and remain in the conversation and then achieve their communicative goal (Dornyei, ibid: 80). Therefore, the present

study includes the instruction of avoidance strategy and fillers in the communication strategy training programme.

Thirdly, there appears to be no information on teaching communication strategies to learners of English as a foreign language (EFL) in Thailand. Many studies in the field of applied linguistics in Thailand involved only students' use of communication strategies. On account of this issue, it is, therefore, worth investigating the effects of teaching communication strategies to Thai learners of English to provide a contribution to research in the similar field.

1.3 Purpose of the study

The present study aims to explore the effects of explicit communication strategy instruction on the strategy use of Thai learners of English in the Faculty of Engineering at King Mongkut's University of Technology North Bangkok (KMUTNB), Thailand. The study first attempts to investigate whether the explicit teaching of some specific communication strategies can alter Thai students' reports of the use and usefulness of communication strategies. Secondly, the study examines whether Thai students increase the frequency of the use of nine taught strategies in speaking tasks. Thirdly, the study explores whether students can identify the types of communication strategies they use and investigates how the students explain reasons for their strategy use in the retrospective verbal reports. Finally, the study aims to explore students' perceptions and their attitudes towards the teaching of communication strategies and its usefulness.

1.4 Research questions

This study addresses four major research questions in order to investigate the effects of teaching specific communication strategies to Thai learners of English. The questions are as follows:

1. Does the teaching of specific communication strategies alter Thai students' reports of the use and usefulness of communication strategies?

2. Does the teaching of specific communication strategies lead to greater use of the taught communication strategies? If yes, how do the students use these taught communication strategies while performing the speaking tasks?
3. Can the students identify the types of communication strategies they use in the speaking tasks? If yes, how do they explain their reasons for strategy use in the retrospective verbal reports?
4. What are Thai students' attitudes towards the teaching of communication strategies?

1.5 Significance of the study

The current study is based on communication strategy-based instruction and explores the effects of communication strategy instruction on students' strategy use and strategy perceptions. The findings and the implications of this study will contribute to the pedagogy of English language teaching in Thailand. This study also makes theoretical contributions to the research areas of L2 speaking and communication strategy use.

In terms of pedagogical implications, this study provides an alternative way of teaching speaking to Thai students. The results of this study can be also applied to other similar groups of learners. In addition, they can be useful for other organisations and people involved in the field of English language teaching and learning. The teachers can use the examples from this study as guidelines in teaching communication strategies or use the materials to train their students. Finally, the findings of this study can be used to raise both teachers' and students' awareness of how important communication strategies are for the development of their speaking ability.

From a theoretical perspective, this study provides additional evidence for strategy-based instruction and the teachability of communication strategies. The validity and usefulness of teaching communication strategies for improving communicative competence have been widely argued in the field of language teaching and learning.

Many researchers make pedagogical recommendations and support the idea that communication strategy training is possible and desirable to develop the learner's strategic competence (e.g., Faerch & Kasper, 1983; Willems, 1987; Tarone & Yule, 1989; Dornyei, 1995; Lam, 2004). Faerch and Kasper (1983) argue it is possible to teach communication strategies in the foreign language classroom. From their viewpoint, it is necessary to teach the learners about strategies, particularly how to use communication strategies most appropriately if teaching is to make learners to be conscious about aspects of their already existing strategies. In the past two decades, studies have been carried out about the descriptive nature of language learners' use of communication strategies in spoken language. However, little research has been conducted to investigate whether it is possible to teach communication strategies to language learners.

It is based on the above discussion that this study was carried out to examine the effects of teaching some specific communication strategies to Thai learners of English. Both qualitative and quantitative methods were employed to triangulate the findings of the current study. The evidence of this study was based on data collected from the combination of four speaking tasks in which various degrees of control were established, ranging from strictly controlling for feedback and content to resembling natural conversation. This is distinct from most previous studies in this area which employed either speaking tasks or conversation tasks (Kebir, 1994; Dornyei, 1995; Lam, 2004; Wen, 2004; Nakatani, 2005; Le, 2006). Apart from using a self-report strategy questionnaire, four speaking tasks and retrospective verbal protocols as data collection methods, this study also employed an attitudinal questionnaire to gain students' feedback on the teaching of some specific communication strategies. The use of the attitudinal questionnaire provides useful insights into students' opinions and attitudes towards the communication strategy instruction and its usefulness.

1.6 Definitions of terms

In this section, the definitions of key terms employed in this study are provided below:

1. **Appeal for help:** The learners ask for aid from the interlocutor either directly (e.g., What do you call…?) or indirectly (e.g., rising intonation, pause, eye contact, puzzled expression.).
2. **Approximation:** The learners use a single target language vocabulary item or structure, which is not correct, but which shares enough semantic features with the desired item to satisfy the speaker.
3. **Circumlocution:** The learners describe the characteristics or elements of the object or action instead of using the appropriate target language item or structure.
4. **Clarification request:** The learners request the explanation of an unfamiliar meaning structure (e.g., Again, please! or Pardon?).
5. **Code switching:** The learners use an L1 word with L1 pronunciation or an L3 word with L3 pronunciation while speaking in L2.
6. **Communication strategies**: Devices a learner uses while communicating in English to solve oral communication problems and to reach the communicative goals.
7. **Comprehension check:** The learners ask the questions to check whether the interlocutor understands what they said or not.
8. **Confirmation check:** The learners repeat the words that the interlocutor has said to confirm what they heard is correct or not.
9. **Foreignizing:** The learners use an L1 word by adjusting it to L2 phonology (i.e., with L2 pronunciation) and/or morphology (e.g., adding to it an L2 suffix).
10. **Learning strategy**: "specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations" (Oxford, 1990).
11. **Literal translation:** The learners translate literally a lexical item, idiom, compound word, or structure from L1 to L2.

12. **Message abandonment:** The learners begin to talk about a concept but are unable to continue and stop in mid-utterance.
13. **Non-linguistic strategy:** The learners use mime, gesture, facial expression, or sound imitation.
14. **Pause fillers and hesitation devices:** The learners use fillers or hesitation devices to fill pauses and to gain time to think (e.g., Well, now let's see, uh, as a matter of fact).
15. **Self-repair:** The learners make self-initiated corrections in their own speech.
16. **Topic avoidance:** The learners avoid talking about particular topics because they may require vocabulary or structures which they do not know.
17. **Use of all-purpose words:** The learners extend a general, empty lexical item to contexts where specific words are lacking (e.g., the overuse of thing or stuff).
18. **Word coinage:** The learners create a nonexisting L2 word based on a supposed rule (e.g., vegetarianist for vegetarian).

1.7 Organisation of this study

This thesis consists of six chapters. Chapter one provides background and discusses the need for the current study, the purpose of the study, research questions, the significance of the study, the definitions of key terms, and the organisation of this thesis.

Chapter two presents a historical overview and trends of communication strategy. Then conceptualisation, definition of communication strategy and classification of communication strategies are discussed. Following this, language learner strategy instruction and arguments on teaching communication strategy to second language learners are presented. The chapter ends by addressing the issue how to teach communication strategy and some empirical research concerning training communication strategy.

Chapter three describes the research methodology, the rationale and justifications for choosing research design, research settings and participants, research instruments,

categorisation of communication strategies used in this study, data collection procedures, data analysis procedures and a summary of the methodology chapter.

Chapter four presents an analysis of the self-report strategy questionnaire on the use and usefulness of communication strategies. This is followed by analyses of the speaking tasks, retrospective verbal reports and an attitudinal questionnaire.

Chapter five discusses the major findings of this study. It provides answers to the four research questions and compares the findings of this study with those of previous studies.

Chapter six presents the implications of the current study, addresses the limitations of this study, provides recommendations for further research and ends with concluding statements.

CHAPTER TWO
REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The purpose of this chapter is to review related literature to give the theoretical basis of the study. The chapter begins with a historical overview and trends in research on communication strategies (hereafter called CS or CSs). Then, communication strategies as strategic competence are discussed. This is followed by the issue of conceptualisation and definition of CS and the classification of taxonomy. Language learner strategy instruction is also discussed and the arguments about teaching CSs are presented. In addition, the issue how to teach CSs proposed by many researchers is explored in this chapter. The chapter ends with a summary of the empirical research concerning training in CSs.

2.1 A historical overview and trends in research on communication strategies

In the field of language teaching and learning, early CS research involved the definition of CS and the classification of CSs. The notion of CS was first introduced by Selinker (1972) in his paper “Interlanguage”. He included these strategies as one of the five central processes involved in second language learning (p.229). He suggests that interlanguage in the second language learners’ speech production is acceptable and supportable. However, he did not explain the nature of these strategies used by learners in their speech in more detail. In the same year, Savignon (1972) published a research report in which she emphasised the importance of “coping strategies” used in second language teaching and testing. She used the term “coping strategies” to refer to CSs in her research. The articles of Selinker (ibid.) and Savignon (ibid.) provide the background for much of the subsequent studies of CSs.

An early example of CS was provided by Varadi (1973). At a small European conference he mentioned message adjustment as a strategy used by language learners. However, this article was not published at that time. Varadi (1980) later conducted a small-scale experimental study with a group of Hungarian learners of English to examine the strategies, especially message adjustment the learners used when they had

a gap in their interlanguage repertoire. The results showed that the subjects tried to adjust their messages to their available communicative resources in the target language. This study, therefore, was considered as the first systematic analysis of strategic behaviours of second language learners. The concept of CS was further developed by Tarone, Cohen and Dumas (1976) when they published a paper on "a framework for communication strategies". They provided a framework in which the terminology of the learners' interlanguage was defined in order to represent categories of types of interlanguage phenomena (p.4). They identified four types of CSs commonly found in interlanguage: phonology, morphology, syntax and lexicon (p.5). By drawing on the interlanguage system of second language learners, Varadi and Tarone, Cohen and Dumas developed the framework and terminology of CSs which have been used as a starting point for later research in CSs.

However, the first empirical and systematic study of CS was that of Tarone (1977). She examined the CSs used in the speech production of adult learners of English. Her study attempted to examine CSs of speech production in more detail by employing the terminological framework developed in Tarone, Cohen and Dumas (1976:194). She proposed five basic CSs: avoidance, paraphrase, conscious transfer, appeal for assistance and mime (p.197). She also provided a definition and characteristics of CSs as "Conscious communication strategies are used by an individual to overcome the crisis which occurs when language structures are inadequate to convey the individual's thought" (p.195). Tarone's framework has been considered the most important and influential in the literature and subsequent studies of CS. It has been used for defining and classifying CSs found in the speech of second language learners.

In the early 1980s, the role of CSs was widely acknowledged in the field of second language learning due to the seminal works of Canale and Swain (1980) and Faerch and Kasper (1983). According to Canale and Swain's (1980) well-known framework of communicative competence, strategic competence involves the ability to use problem-solving devices to overcome communication problems derived from lack of knowledge in any of the other sub-competencies. These problem-solving devices they mentioned are CSs. In addition, they suggested teaching CSs in classroom and providing students the chance to use these strategies. Another important work in the

field of CSs is the book *Strategies of interlanguage and communication* edited by Faerch and Kasper (1983). In this book, many studies and papers on CS are collected and divided into three main parts: CSs defined, empirical studies of CSs and problems in analysing CSs. This collection, therefore, provides a valuable contribution to the research in CSs.

Following these two seminal works, many researchers in the 1980s published papers on the identification and classification of CSs, the issue of teaching CSs in the second language classroom and the factors that influenced learners' use of CSs. In the latter half of the 1980s, a group of researchers at Nijmegen University in the Netherlands also conducted large-scale research on CSs. At that time, the Netherlands were the centre for research on CSs. Their studies shed light on various aspects of CSs such as definitions, classifications, and theories of CSs. Researchers in the 1980s, thus, attempted to define, identify and classify CSs more systematically. They proposed various CS taxonomies based on their conceptual papers and research they carried out.

In the 1990s, several important books and papers were published. One of the most important and influential works is Bialystok's book *Communication Strategies: A Psychological Analysis of Second Language Use*. In this book, the definitions and theories of CSs proposed by Poulisse (1987, 1989), Faerch and Kasper (1983), Paribakht (1982, 1985), Varadi (1980), Tarone (1979,1980, 1981), Kellerman (1978, 1984), Corder (1977, 1978, 1983) and other scholars in the field of CSs were discussed. The latter parts of this book explore empirical evidence of CSs used by children or adults in the first or second language in relation to language processing. In the last part, the issue of learning and teaching CSs are discussed. The most important point Bialystok suggested was that the psychological process of speech production should be regarded as a basis for the study of CSs. She argues that language learners should be taught and practised language structure rather than strategies.

Following the seminal work of Bialystok, the researchers in the 1990s investigated CS application in relation to different proficiency level (e.g., Chen, 1990; Kebir, 1994) and teaching pedagogy of CSs (e.g., Dornyei & Thurrell, 1991; Rost & Ross, 1991; Yule & Tarone, 1991; Dornyei, 1995). Their works have shed light on CS studies and

provided theoretical contributions to the field at that time. Since then, the issue of CS instruction has received increasing attention from a variety of researchers. Despite the controversy about CS instruction, many researchers have defined CSs, promoted CS application and supported CS instruction (e.g., Lam, 2004; Wen, 2004; Nakatani, 2005). Wen (ibid.) conducted empirical studies to investigate the effects of strategy instruction on learners' use of communication strategies. Lam (ibid.) argues that it is possible and desirable to teach and raise learners' awareness of using CSs in oral communication. Nakatani (ibid.) also supports the idea that language learners should be made aware of how to use CSs in their communication. This issue will be discussed more thoroughly in this chapter.

As has been noted, the researchers in the field of CSs have recently paid more attention to the teachability issue of CSs as well as promoted strategy instruction. They have attempted to explore the effect of CS instruction on learners' strategic behaviour and competence. Based on the argument in favour of teachability of CSs, the current study attempts to address this issue to provide new knowledge for this research area.

2.2 Communication strategies as strategic competence

The importance of strategic competence in communication has been widely recognised since Canale and Swain (1980) include it as a major element in their well-known construct of communicative competence (Dornyei, 1995:56). According to Canale and Swain, strategic competence includes "verbal and non-verbal strategies that may be called into action to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to performance variables or to insufficient competence" (p.30). Canale (1983) then modified this view and defined strategic competence as the skills underlying actual communication. He expanded this concept to include both the compensatory characteristics of communication strategies and the enhancement characteristics of production strategies. Canale's (ibid.) concept of strategic competence has been used as a starting point for defining and classifying CSs in the subsequent studies. However, the importance of CSs in strategic competence was later proposed by Swain (1984). She extended the earlier concept of strategic competence by including

“communication strategies that may be called into action either to enhance the effectiveness of communication or to compensate for breakdowns” (p.189).

Based on the framework of communicative competence suggested by Canale and Swain (ibid.), Tarone and Yule (1989) extended strategic competence to include “the ability to select an effective means of performing a communicative act…Thus, strategic competence is gauged, not by degree of correctness (as with grammatical competence) but rather by degree of success, or effectiveness” (p. 105). They proposed two areas related to strategic competence: the learners’ skill in transmitting messages successfully and comprehensibly to the listener or understanding the information received, and the use of communication strategies by both speakers and listeners to solve their problems when arise during the course of communication (p. 103). In this way, communication strategies are viewed as a focal point of strategic competence since they help learners to cope with their communication problems.

In addition, Faerch and Kasper (1986) argue that strategic competence comprises learners’ ability to solve problems which may derive from gaps in their linguistic and pragmatic knowledge, or low accessibility of such knowledge (p.180). They explain that strategic competence consists of two types of strategies: communication strategies and learning strategies. Communication strategies are procedures that enable learners to solve their problems they encounter when using foreign language for communicative purposes. On the other hand, learning strategies “are designed to solve problems in expanding FL (foreign language) knowledge and in increasing its accessibility…” (Faerch and Kasper, 1986:180).

Another attempt to define strategic competence in communication is Bachman (1990). He defines strategic competence as “the capacity that relates competence or knowledge of language, to the language user’s knowledge structures and the features of the context in which communication takes place” (Bachman, 1990:107). The concept of strategic competence is further explained by Bachman and Palmer (1996). They define strategic competence as “a set of metacognitive components, or strategies, which can be thought of as higher order executive processes that provide a cognitive management function in language use as well as in other cognitive activities” (p.70).

Strategic competence, thus, involves strategies to be used when communication is difficult. As suggested by Brown (2007), all communication strategies "may be thought of as arising out of a person's strategic competence" (p.220). Strategic competence is crucial for foreign language learners because it is the way the learners compensate for breakdowns in communication and "manipulate language in order to meet communicative goals" (Brown, ibid: 220). To develop strategic competence, the students may be taught communication strategies and trained how to use such strategies in real-life situations. This section has explained how strategic competence is related to the notion of communication strategies. The next section discusses two main approaches to conceptualising CSs.

2.3 Conceptualisation of communication strategies

Generally, communication strategies are used to negotiate meaning (Tarone, 1980), to maintain the conversation (Long, 1981) or to handle difficulties or communication breakdown (Faerch & Kasper, 1983). Researchers have studied CSs from two major perspectives: the interactional view and the psycholinguistic view. These two major approaches to conceptualising CSs have been acknowledged to be the most influential in the field of CS studies. The interactional view of CSs emphasises the interaction process between language learners and their interlocutors, especially the means by which meaning is negotiated by one or both parties (see Tarone, 1980; Canale, 1983; Long, 1983; Pica, 2002; Nakatani, 2005; Nakatani & Goh, 2007). The psycholinguistic view, on the other hand, focuses on the language learners' problem-solving behaviours dealing with lexical and discourse problems (see Faerch & Kasper, 1983; Bialystok, 1990; Kellerman, 1991; Poulisse, 1993; Littlemore, 2001, 2003). The following sections present and review these two different approaches.

2.3.1 The interactional view

The interactional view of CSs has its origins in the work of Tarone (1980) and focuses on strategy use from the social interactional perspective. This view is mainly based on the interaction process between language learners and their interlocutors and the

negotiation of meaning. Tarone (ibid.) suggests that CSs have to fulfil all of the following necessary 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 alternate means to communicate meaning x. The speaker stops trying alternatives when it seems clear to the speaker that there is shared meaning. (Tarone, ibid: 419)

According to Tarone (ibid.), it is the criterion 3b above that distinguishes CSs from production strategies. Tarone then conceptualises CSs as "a mutual attempt of two interlocutors to agree on a meaning in situations where requisite meaning structures do not seem to be shared" (p.419). This definition of CSs implies that "negotiation of meaning" is a joint attempt between the interlocutors. CSs are seen as "tools used in a joint negotiation of meaning where both interlocutors are attempting to agree as to a communicative goal" and "a shared enterprise in which both the speaker and the hearer are involved rather than being only the responsibility of the speaker" (Tarone, 1980: 420). When the two participants do not understand each other, they fall back on three main types of strategy: paraphrase, transfer, and avoidance. In line with Tarone's claim of interactional view, Canale (1983) extended the concept of CSs by proposing two types of CSs: "(1) strategies to compensate for disruptions in communication problems due to speakers' insufficient target language knowledge, and (2) strategies to enhance the effectiveness of communication with interlocutors" (p.12). The first type of CSs concerning interlocutors' problem-solving behaviours is viewed as negotiation of meaning, which has been an important object of study for some time (e.g., Long 1983; Pica 2002; Nakatani, 2005).

In summary, the interactional view advocated by Tarone, Canale and other researchers focuses on the means learners employ CSs to improve negotiation of meaning and convey the message during interaction. Overall, CSs are viewed not only as problem-solving devices to compensate for communication breakdowns, but also as devices

with pragmatic discourse functions for message enhancement (Nakatani & Goh, 2007: 208).

This section has explored the interactional view of CSs. In the next section, the psycholinguistic view of CSs will be further discussed.

2.3.2 The psycholinguistic view

Whereas Tarone and the researchers who supported the interactional view considered CS as a mutual attempt by participants in a communicative situation to maintain communication, researchers like Faerch and Kasper (1983), Bialystok (1990) and the Nijmegen Group (i.e., Bongaerts, Kellerman & Poulisse) considered CSs as a cognitive process of the speaker himself/herself with a focus on comprehension and production. CSs are inherently mental procedures; therefore, CS research should investigate the cognitive processes underlying strategic language use (Dornyei & Scott, 1995:180). Faerch and Kasper (ibid.) proposed a broader definition of CSs by emphasising planning and execution of speech production during oral communication. CSs are viewed as "potentially conscious plans for solving what to an individual presents itself as a problem in reaching a particular communicative goal" (p.36). The psycholinguistic approach of Faerch and Kasper defines CSs in terms of the individual's mental response to a problem rather than as a joint response by two people. From this conceptualisation, CSs establish a subtype of L2 problem-management efforts, dealing with language production problems that occur at the planning stage. These strategies "are separated from other types of problem-solving devices, meaning-negotiation and repair mechanisms (e.g., requesting and providing classification), which involve the handling of problems that have already surfaced during the course of communication" (Dornyei & Scott, 1995:177).

Bialystok (1990) further argues that CS responds to the cognitive mechanisms that operate on mental representations in linguistic processing (p.117). Her explanation of CSs is mainly based on the language processing perspective, emphasising the development of two components of language processing: analysis of linguistic knowledge and control of linguistic processing. The first component refers to "the

process of structuring mental representations of language which are organized at the level of meanings (knowledge of the world) into explicit representations of structure organized at the level of symbols (forms)" (Bialystok, ibid:118). The second component is "the ability to control attention to relevant and appropriate information and to integrate those forms in real time" (Bialystok, ibid: 125). She also criticises the classification of CSs based on surface structure of strategic language behaviour. In her view, CSs should be classified based on different cognitive processes. For example, paraphrase and circumlocution are not different strategies because they do not involve different processes (Bialystok, ibid: 131). In line with Bialystok, the Nijmegen Group (i.e., Bongaerts, Kellerman & Poulisse) supports the psychological processes underlying strategy use. Poulisse (1993), for example, conceptualises CSs within a coherent model of speech production. Her definition of CS is as follows:

> Compensatory strategies are processes, operating on conceptual and linguistic knowledge representations, which are adopted by language users in the creation of alternative means of expression when linguistic shortcomings make it possible for them to communicate their intended meanings in the preferred manner.
>
> (Poulisse, 1990:192-3)

Therefore, the psycholinguistic view of CSs has been mainly associated with strategies for overcoming limitations in lexical knowledge. This view examines learners' problem-solving behaviours arising from gaps in their lexical knowledge. Most researchers of a psycholinguistic orientation have narrowed the description of CSs to only lexical-compensatory strategies.

So far there has been diversity in the conceptualisation of CSs. The interactional view stresses the mutual attempt of interlocutors to achieve communication, while the psycholinguistic view sees CSs as processes within the individual focusing on cognitive view. The interactional view of CSs has been adopted in the current study as a starting point for a framework of conceptualising CSs in the self-report strategy questionnaire and the CS instruction. CSs should be regarded not only as problem-solving mechanisms to deal with communication breakdowns, but also as tools for discourse functions for negotiation of meaning. In this way, the use of CSs is triggered by the interactional context as well as the need for communication. The present study,

therefore, aims to survey both interactional strategies (e.g., clarification request, confirmation check, comprehension check and appeal for help) and lexical-compensatory strategies (e.g., approximation and circumlocution) to provide the frame for descriptions, explanations, negotiation of meaning and lexical problem solving. In the following section, the focus will shift to definitions of CSs for the current study.

2.4 Definitions of communication strategies for the present study

While there is no complete agreement on the definition of CSs, there is a general agreement that the key function of CSs is to cope with communication difficulties or breakdowns. A review of literature in the CS field reveals that two major defining criteria of CSs are *problem-orientedness* (problematicity) and *consciousness*.

Problematicity is considered as the most basic feature cited in the definitions of CSs. According to Bialystok (1990), problematicity as a criterion for defining CSs refers to "the idea that strategies are used only when a speaker perceives that there is a problem which may interrupt communication" (p.3). This criterion of problematicity becomes a key feature of strategic language behaviour and is included in definitions in most CS studies. However, Dornyei and Scott (1997) argue that "problem-orientedness in general is not specific enough; it leaves undefined the exact type of the problem, an area where various approaches show considerable divergence" (p. 182). That is, initially "problem" often refers to resource deficits or gaps in speakers' knowledge preventing them from getting the message across (Dornyei & Scott, ibid: 183). The focus on the criterion of problem only does not cover or reflect the name given to these language devices or "communication strategies". Therefore, many researchers suggest extending the term to cover the other three types of communication problems. The first type, namely, "own-performance problems", copes with the speaker's realisation that what he/she has said is not correct or partly correct. This involves various kinds of mechanisms like self-repair, self-rephrasing and self-editing. The second type of problems is "other-performance problems" which deals with the speakers' perception of problems in his/her interlocutor's speech. This phenomenon is associated with various kinds of meaning negotiation strategies. The last type of

problems, “processing time pressure”, refers to the speakers’ need for more time to get message across. This problem involves strategies such as fillers, hesitation devices and self-repetitions (Dornyei & Scott, 1997:183). Thus, these three types of communication problems are more specific and valid since they cover the exact type of problem in defining CSs.

Since “strategy” is a plan that is intended to achieve a particular goal, consciousness has been considered as the second criterion for defining CSs. However, Bialystok (1990) claims that consciousness is implicit in all the proposed definitions for CSs (p.4). She excluded the criterion of consciousness as defining criterion for CSs. She did not find evidence to support the claim that learners were aware of what strategies they have used. She further explains that speakers can make a choice when they communicate. For instance, they can use “truck” or “lorry” to refer to the same thing. Thus, the learners make a choice but not “the conscious consideration” (Bialystok, ibid: 4). She then suggests the third criterion “intentionality” which refers to “the learner’s control over a repertoire of strategies so that particular ones may be selected from the range of the options and deliberately applied to achieve certain results” (Bialystok, ibid: 5). It is clear from this criterion that the learners have some control over their strategy use. They may select or make a choice from the range of strategies to cope with their communication problems.

In the current study, CSs were coded in students’ speech and conversations, so the degree of consciousness associated with students’ speaking performance was mostly implicit and un-knowable. For the purposes of this research, communication strategies are defined as “Devices a learner uses while communicating in English to solve oral communication problems and to reach the communicative goals”. This definition provides specific and precise descriptions of CSs, which refer to techniques employed when speakers face problems in expressing themselves. It also associates CSs with the solutions to the communication problems that language learners may encounter.

2.5 Classification of CSs

The previous section has explained the various definitions of CSs proposed by many researchers in the field of CSs. This section discusses classification of CSs. Over the years, various typologies of CSs have been developed and proposed by many researchers in the field of CSs. According to Yule and Tarone (1997), they conclude that the duality of approaches taken by researchers: the "Pros" following the traditional approach (e.g., Tarone, 1977; Faerch & Kasper, 1983) and the "Cons" taking a primarily psychological stance (e.g., Bialystok, 1990; the Nijmegen group). The Pros emphasise the descriptions of the language produced by L2 learners, i.e., the external and interactive aspects; however, the Cons focus on the internal and cognitive aspects.

Based on the above arguments of Yule and Tarone, there have been two perspectives in the classification of CSs: the traditional approach (or product-oriented approach) and the process-oriented approach. The taxonomies of CSs proposed by Tarone (1977, 1983) and by Faerch and Kasper (1983) are based on the traditional approach while the taxonomies of CSs proposed by the Nijmegen group (1987) and Bialystok (1990) represent the process-oriented approach. Apart from these two perspectives of CS classification, Dornyei (1995) and Dornyei and Scott (1997) also added some new types of CSs to the classification of CSs in the field. The differences in theoretical viewpoints among these researchers are based on their specification of language devices they consider to be CSs. Consequently, the taxonomies of CSs vary considerably in different studies. In the following sections, the CS taxonomies that have been used as a starting point for the taxonomy of the current study are discussed in detail.

2.5.1 Tarone's taxonomy

From an interactional view or social strategies, Tarone (1977) provides five main categories of CSs: paraphrase, borrowing, appeal for assistance, mime and avoidance. The taxonomy and examples of CSs proposed by Tarone (1977, 1983) are shown in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1 Tarone's taxonomy of CSs

Tarone's taxonomy of CSs	
Paraphrase:	
Approximation:	-use of a single target language vocabulary item or structure, which the learner knows is not correct, but which shares enough semantic features in common with the desired item to satisfy the speaker (e.g., pipe for waterpipe)
Word coinage:	-the learner makes up a new word in order to communicate a desired concept (e.g., airball for balloon)
Circumlocution:	-the learner describes the characteristics or elements of the object or action instead of using the appropriate target language (TL) item or structure (e.g., "She is, uh, smoking something. I don't know what's its name. That's, uh, Persian, and we use in Turkey, a lot of.")
Borrowing:	
Literal translation:	-the learner translates word for word from the native language (e.g., "He invites him to drink." for "They toast one another.")
Language switch:	-the learner uses the native language (NL) term without bothering to translate (e.g., balon for balloon, tirtil for caterpillar)
Appeal for Assistance:	-the learner asks for the correct term (e.g., "What is this?", "What called?")
Mime:	-the learner uses nonverbal strategies in place of a lexical item or action (e.g., clapping one's hands to illustrate applause)
Avoidance:	
Topic avoidance:	-the learner simply tries not to talk about concepts for which the TL item or structure is not known.
Message abandonment:	-the learner begins to talk about a concept but is unable to continue and stops in mid-utterance.

(Communication strategies by Tarone, 1983)

With paraphrase, the learner uses these strategies to compensate for an L2 word that is not known by three subcategories: approximation, word coinage and circumlocution. According to Tarone (1980), approximation occurs when the learner uses "a single target language vocabulary item or structure, which the learner knows is not correct, but which shares enough semantic features in common with the desired item to satisfy the speaker." Word coinage is employed when "the learner makes up a new word in order to communicate a desired concept." For circumlocution, "the learner describes the characteristics or elements of the object or an action instead of using the appropriate target language structure" (Tarone, ibid: 429). Borrowing involves literal translation and language switch. For literal translation, the learner translates word for word from the native language. With language switch, the learner uses the native language term without bothering to translate. In appeal for assistance, the learner asks for the correct term or structure. The next strategy is mime which occurs when the

learner uses nonverbal strategies in place of a meaning structure. In avoidance strategies, the learner avoids the communication by using topic avoidance or message abandonment. Topic avoidance occurs "when the learner simply does not talk about concepts for which the vocabulary or other meaning structure is not known" while message abandonment occurs "when the learner begins to talk about a concept but is unable to continue due to lack of meaning structure, and stops in mid-utterance" (Tarone, ibid: 429).

In summary, the taxonomy of CSs proposed by Tarone (1983) was based on her investigation of nine second language learners. This taxonomy is significant in the field because it covers most of CSs investigated in later studies. In addition, the definitions and examples of the CSs provided by Tarone are clear and illustrative. Based on such reasons, the present study adopted Tarone's (ibid.) five main categories of CSs as a starting point for coding and classifying CSs. Full details of justifications for Tarone's taxonomy adopted in the present study are presented in section 3.5.

2.5.2 Faerch and Kasper's taxonomy

The second significant classification of CSs was proposed by Faerch and Kasper (1983), as seen in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2 Faerch and Kasper's taxonomy of CSs

Faerch and Kasper's taxonomy of CSs
(1) Avoidance
(1.1) Formal reduction:
1.1.1 Phonological
1.1.2 Morphological
1.1.3 Grammar
(1.2)Functional reduction:
1.2.1 Actional
1.2.2 Propositional
1.2.3 Modal
(2) Achievement
(2.1) Non-cooperative:
2.1.1.1 Codeswitching
2.1.1.2 Foreignizing
2.1.2 Interlanguage strategies:
2.1.2.1 Substitution
2.1.2.2 Generalization

Faerch and Kasper's taxonomy of CSs
2.1.2.3 Exemplification
2.1.2.4 Word-coining
2.1.2.5 Restructuring
2.1.2.6 Description
2.1.3 Non-linguistic strategies:
2.1.3.1 Mime
2.1.3.2 Imitation
(2.2) Cooperative:
2.2.1 Appeals

(Communication strategies by Faerch and Kasper, 1983)

According to Faerch and Kasper (ibid.), learners have two possible strategies in general for solving a communication problem: avoidance strategies in which they avoid the problem, and achievement strategies through which they find an alternative solution. With avoidance strategies, the learner either avoids a linguistic form he or she had difficulty with (formal reduction) at one of the three linguistic levels of phonology, morphology or grammar, or avoids a language function at the actional, propositional, or modal level (functional reduction) by, for instance, abandoning a topic (Cook, 1993:123). Achievement strategies are divided into non-cooperative strategies and cooperative strategies. In non-cooperative strategies, the learner tries to solve the problem without resorting to other people through L1 /L3 strategies, interlanguage strategies and non-linguistic strategies. When using L1/L3 strategies, the learner relies on a language other than the L2 by code switching, or trying out L1 expressions in the L2 with minimal adaptation by foreignizing. Interlanguage strategies are based on the evolving interlanguage such as substitution, putting one item for another; generalization, using a more general word for an unknown word; description, describing something; exemplification, giving an example of something for which the learner does not know the word; word-coining, making up a new word to cover a gap; and restructuring, phrasing the sentence in another way. Non-linguistic strategies consist of mime and sound imitation. Lastly, cooperative strategies involve the help of another person. These strategies consist of direct or indirect appeals.

Faerch and Kasper's taxonomy of CSs, therefore, is more complicated than Tarone's taxonomy since it consists of more subtypes. However, there are some problems in the organisation of their taxonomy. According to Bialystok (1990), the distinction between two types of reduction (formal reduction and functional reduction) is not

clear because the use of formal reduction may result in the use of functional reduction. For example, if the learner uses lexical formal reduction because he/she does not have the target word like “mushroom”, he/she may employ functional reduction to avoid discussing “eatable fungi” (Bialystok, ibid:43). This lack of distinction becomes a problem for the current study. In addition, some subtypes of Faerch and Kasper’s taxonomy are similar to those of Tarone’s taxonomy but their definitions and examples are not clear. Consequently, the current study includes only some achievement strategies (e.g., code switching, foreignizing, word-coining, non-linguistic strategies and appeals) proposed by Faerch and Kasper (ibid.) since the definitions and examples of such strategies are clear and illustrative.

In summary, the product-oriented taxonomies of Tarone (1977, 1983) and Faerch and Kasper (1983) have been criticised by several later researchers (Kellerman, Bongaerts & Poulisse, 1987; Bialystok, 1990; Kellerman & Bialystok, 1997) for their failure to generalise the taxonomies of CSs. That is, the product-oriented taxonomies emphasise descriptions of superficial difference in strategy types and ignore the cognitive process underlying strategy use of the learner. The next section presents the process-oriented taxonomies proposed by the Nijmegen group.

2.5.3 The Nijmegen project and compensatory strategies

Another taxonomy based on underlying processes is presented in an extensive project to investigate compensatory strategies of the Nijmegen group. To include CSs in a cognitive framework, the Nijmegen group divides compensatory strategies into two major categories: conceptual and linguistic strategies, as seen in Table 2.3.

Table 2.3 The Nijmegen group’s taxonomy of CSs

The Nijmegen group’s taxonomy of CSs	
Conceptual strategies	-manipulating the target concept to make it expressible through available linguistic resources.
(a) Analytic strategies	-specifying characteristic features of the concept (e.g., “ a talk uh bird” for “parrot” in circumlocution)
(b) Holistic strategies	-using a different concept which shares characteristics with the target item (e.g., “chair” for “stool” in approximation)

The Nijmegen group's taxonomy of CSs	
Linguistic strategies	-manipulating the speaker's linguistic knowledge
(a) Morphological creativity	-creating a new word by applying L2 morphological rules to an L2 word (e.g., "appliances" for " letters of application")
(b) Transfer	-transferring things from L1 or L3

(Communication strategies by the Nijmegen group)

Conceptual strategies have two types: analytic (spelling out characteristic features of the concept) and holistic (using a substitute referent which shares characteristics with the target item). Linguistic strategies involve the manipulation of the speaker's linguistic knowledge through either morphological creativity or transfer. The morphological creativity is the use of L2 rules of morphological derivation to create comprehensible L2 lexis. The strategy of transfer occurs when the speaker exploits the similarities between languages.

To summarise, there are only two main categories of CSs in the Nijmegen group's taxonomy of CSs, i.e., conceptual and linguistic strategies. This taxonomy should include more types of strategies and needs revision. The present study has not adopted the Nijmegen group's taxonomy of CSs because this study emphasises not only lexical-compensatory strategies but also interactional strategies. That is, the Nijmegen group's taxonomy focuses on only the compensatory strategies. In practice, L2 learners also use other types of interactional strategies such as confirmation check, clarification request or comprehension check in their oral communication. In the next section, Bialystok's taxonomy of CSs, which is also based on the process-oriented approach, is further discussed.

2.5.4 Bialystok's taxonomy

Bialystok (1990) conceptualises two principal classes of CSs in the process-oriented approach: analysis-based and control-based strategies, as seen in Table 2.4.

Table 2.4 Bialystok's taxonomy of CSs

Bialystok's taxonomy of CSs	
Analysis-based strategies	-conveying the structure of the intended concept by making explicit the relational defining features.
(a) Circumlocution	
(b) Paraphrase	
(c) Transliteration	
(d) Word coinage	
(e) Mime	
Control-based strategies	-switching from the linguistic system being used and focusing instead on some other symbolic reference system that can achieve the same communication function
(a) Language switch	
(b) Ostensive definition	(i.e., pointing to real objects)
(c) Appeal for help	
(d) Mime	

(Communication strategies by Bialystok, 1990:132-134)

According to Bialystok (ibid.), the analysis-based strategies involve "an attempt to convey the structure of the intended concept by making explicit the relational defining features" (p.133). The strategies from the descriptive taxonomies that are included in the analysis-based strategies are circumlocution, paraphrase, transliteration, and word coinage where the attempt is to incorporate distinctive features into the expression, and mime where the attempt is to convey important properties (Bialystok, ibid:133). The control-based strategies involve "choosing a representational system that is possible to convey and that makes explicit information relevant to the identity of the intended concept" (Bialystok, ibid: 134). That is, the speaker keeps the original intention with the utterance and turns to different means of reference outside the L2. This taxonomy of CSs proposed by Bialystok (ibid.), therefore, is based on a framework of language processing.

In summary, the two taxonomies proposed by Bialystok and the Nijmegen group share some similar aspects. That is, the analysis-based strategies in Bialystok's taxonomy are similar to the conceptual strategies of the Nijmegen group in terms of the processing involved in their use. The control-based strategies in Bialystok's taxonomy contain more types of strategies than the linguistic strategies in the Nijmegen group. It should be noted that the definitions and exemplifications of Bialystok's taxonomy of CSs are clear and some strategies (e.g., circumlocution, word coinage and mime) are

similar to Tarone's taxonomy of CSs. These strategies were included in the list of CSs investigated in the current study.

2.5.5 Dornyei's taxonomy

Dornyei (1995) further collects a list and descriptions of the CSs that are most common and important in this core group, based on Varadi (1973), Tarone (1977), Faerch and Kasper (1983), and Bialystok (1990), as seen in Table 2.5.

Table 2.5 CSs following traditional conceptualisations

Dornyei's taxonomy of CSs
Avoidance or Reduction Strategies
1. Message abandonment
2. Topic avoidance
Achievement or Compensatory Strategies
3. Circumlocution
4. Approximation
5. Use of all-purpose words
6. Word coinage
7. Use of non-linguistic means
8. Literal translation
9. Foreignizing
10. Code switching
11. Appeal for help
Stalling or Time-gaining Strategies
12. Use of fillers/hesitation devices

(Dornyei, 1995: 58)

According to Dornyei (ibid.), the first two strategies are usually referred to *avoidance* or *reduction strategies* as they involve an alteration, a reduction, or complete abandonment of the intended meaning (p.57). Strategies 3-11 are grouped as *achievement* or *compensatory strategies* as they offer alternative plans for the speakers to carry out their original communicative goal by manipulating available language (p.57). Strategy 12 is an example of *stalling* or *time-gaining strategies*. These strategies are different from other strategies mentioned earlier because they are used to gain time and to keep the communication channel open at times of difficulty.

It should be noted that this taxonomy of Dornyei (1995) provides the inclusion of stalling or time-gaining strategies to the existing taxonomies in the field. These

strategies are not employed to compensate for vocabulary deficiency but rather to help learners to gain more time to think and maintain their conversation with their interlocutor. Based on this reason, the researcher of the present study decided to include stalling and time-gaining strategies as target strategies explored in this study.

2.5.6 Dornyei and Scott's taxonomy

Dornyei and Scott (1997) reviewed articles and summarised the taxonomies and definitions of CSs proposed by researchers in the field. In the extended taxonomy of problem-solving strategies, they classified the CSs according to the manner of problem-management; that is, how CSs contribute to resolving conflicts and achieving mutual understanding (Dornyei & Scott, ibid: 198). They separated three basic categories: direct, indirect and interactional strategies, as seen in Table 2.6.

Table 2.6 Dornyei and Scott's taxonomy of CSs

Dornyei and Scott's taxonomy of CSs
Direct Strategies
Resource deficit-related strategies
• Message abandonment
• Message reduction
• Message replacement
• Circumlocution
• Approximation
• Use of all-purpose words
• Word-coinage
• Restructuring
• Literal translation
• Foreignizing
• Code switching
• Use of similar sounding words
• Mumbling
• Omission
• Retrieval
Own-performance problem-related strategies
• Self-rephrasing
• Self-repair
Other-performance problem-related strategies
• Other-repair
Interactional Strategies
Resource deficit-related strategies
• Appeals for help
Own-performance problem-related strategies
• Comprehension check

Dornyei and Scott's taxonomy of CSs
• Own-accuracy check
Other-performance problem-related strategies
• Asking for repetition
• Asking for clarification
• Asking for confirmation
• Guessing
• Expressing nonunderstanding
• Interpretive summary
• Responses
Indirect Strategies
Processing time pressure-related strategies
• Use of fillers
• Repetitions
Own-performance problem-related strategies
• Verbal strategy markers
Other-performance problem-related strategies
• Feigning understanding

(Dornyei and Scott, 1997:197)

According to Dornyei and Scott (ibid.), direct strategies contain "an alternative, manageable, and self-contained means of getting the meaning across, like circumlocution compensating for the lack of a word" (p.198). Indirect strategies are not strictly problem-solving devices. They facilitate the conveyance of meaning indirectly by establishing the conditions for achieving mutual understanding: preventing breakdowns and keeping the communication channel open or indicating less-than perfect forms that require extra effort to understand (p.198). Interactional strategies involve a third approach, by means of which the participants perform trouble-shooting exchanges cooperatively (e.g., appeal for and grant help, or request for and provide clarification), and therefore mutual understanding is a function of the successful execution of both pair parts of the exchange (Dornyei & Scott, ibid: 198-9).

The above taxonomy of CSs proposed by Dornyei and Scott (ibid.) is not only based on the summary of all the taxonomies in the field of CSs, but it also provides some new CSs such as use of similar-sounding words, mumbling, omission, feigning understanding and asking for repetition. In addition, they include use of fillers as part of "indirect strategies". According to Dornyei and Scott (ibid.), these fillers are used to prevent breakdowns and keep the communication channel open (p.198). For interactional strategies, they suggest to include some strategies such as appeal for help, confirmation check, comprehension check and clarification request. Based on the

arguments above, the current study included four strategies of Dornyei and Scott's interactional strategies (e.g., appeal for help, confirmation check, comprehension check and clarification request) as target strategies. In addition, use of all-purpose words and self-repair strategies were also included in this study.

In summary, the taxonomies offered by various researchers seem to vary. Over the years, there have been about 9 key taxonomies of CSs emerged from 33 types of CSs. Table 2.7 shows summary and comparison of types of CSs in order to see some common criteria that have been employed to categorise CSs in the literature.

Table 2.7 Summary of various taxonomies of CSs

Tarone (1977)	**Faerch &Kasper (1983)**	**Nijmegen group (1987)**	**Bialystok (1990)**	**Dornyei (1995)**	**Dornyei & Scott (1997)**
Paraphrase: -Approximation -Word coinage -Circumlocution ***Borrowing:*** -Literal translation -Language switch ***Appeal for Assistance:*** ***Mime:*** ***Avoidance:*** -Topic avoidance -Message abandonment	**Avoidance:** ***Formal reduction:*** - Phonological -Morphological -Grammar ***Functional reduction:*** -Actional -Propositional -Modal **Achievement:** ***Non-cooperative:*** -Codeswitching - Foreignizing **Interlanguage strategies:** -Substitution -Generalization - Exemplification -Word-coining -Restructuring -Description **Non-linguistic strategies:** -Mime - Imitation ***Cooperative:*** -Appeals	**Conceptual strategies** -Analytic strategies -Holistic strategies **Linguistic strategies** -Morphological creativity -Transfer	**Analysis-based strategies** -Circumlocution -Paraphrase -Transliteration -Word coinage -Mime **Control-based strategies** -Language switch -Ostensive definition - Appeal for help - Mime	**Avoidance or Reduction Strategies** -Message abandonment -Topic avoidance **Achievement or Compensatory Strategies** Circumlocution -Approximation -Use of all-purpose words - Word coinage - Use of non-linguistic means -Literal translation - Foreignizing - Code switching - Appeal for help **Stalling or Time-gaining Strategies** -Use of fillers/hesitation devices	**Direct Strategies** *Resource deficit-related strategies* -Message abandonment -Message reduction -Message replacement -Circumlocution -Approximation -Use of all-purpose words -Word-coinage -Restructuring -Literal translation -Foreignizing -Code switching -Use of similar sounding words -Mumbling -Omission -Retrieval *Own-performance problem-related strategies* -Self-rephrasing -Self-repair *Other-performance problem-related strategies* -Other-repair **Interactional Strategies** *Resource deficit-related strategies* -Appeals for help *Own-performance problem-related strategies* -Comprehension

Tarone (1977)	Faerch &Kasper (1983)	Nijmegen group (1987)	Bialystok (1990)	Dornyei (1995)	Dornyei & Scott (1997)
					check -Own-accuracy check *Other-performance problem-related strategies* -Asking for repetition -Asking for clarification -Asking for Confirmation -Guessing -Expressing nonunderstanding -Interpretive summary -Responses **Indirect Strategies** *Processing time pressure-related strategies* -Use of fillers -Repetitions *Own-performance problem-related strategies* -Verbal strategy markers *Other-performance problem-related strategies* -Feigning understanding

As seen in Table 2.7, Faerch and Kasper (1983) and Dornyei (1995) use the same system to classify CSs. They classify CSs into reduction strategies and achievement strategies. Dornyei (1995) also adds another type, that is, time-gaining strategies in his framework. Tarone (1977) classifies CSs into five types: avoidance, paraphrase, conscious transfer, appeal for assistance and mime. It can be seen that avoidance is a subtype of reduction strategies of Faerch and Kasper (1983) and Dornyei (1995); paraphrase, conscious transfer, appeal for assistance and mime are subtypes of achievement strategies of Dornyei (1995). However, Bialystok (1990) classifies types of CSs differently from other researchers. She divides CSs into L1-based strategies, L2-based strategies, non-linguistic strategies, analysis-based strategies, and control-based strategies. On the other hand, the Nijmegen group's types of CSs are based on conceptual strategies and linguistic strategies. Most recently, the classification of CSs proposed by Dornyei and Scott (1997) was collected and extended from the CS research. They proposed three main categories: direct, indirect and interactional strategies.

So far there has been no consensus on definitions and classification of CS taxonomies. In the present study, rather than relying on one classification scheme, the selection of target strategies is derived from several main taxonomies in the CS field. The researcher has adopted CSs proposed by Tarone (1977), Faerch and Kasper (1983) Bialystok (1990), Dornyei (1995) and Dornyei and Scott (1997) as well as by using data on CSs drawn from the speaking task pilot study in November 2006 as a foundation for the taxonomy of CSs identified in the study. The reason for adopting the strategies based on such taxonomies is that these researchers' classification of CSs is well organised and clearly defined. In addition, the results of previous research (Wongsawang, 2001; Wannaruk, 2002; Weerarak, 2003; Pornpibul, 2005) and the results from speaking tasks in the pilot study revealed that CSs which were commonly used by Thai learners were similar to the proposed taxonomy in this study. Therefore, the proposed CSs investigated in the self-report strategy questionnaire of this study were classified into sixteen types and nine of these sixteen strategies were introduced and taught to the students. Table 2.8 shows the framework of types of CSs used in the current study.

Table 2.8 Taxonomy of CSs adopted in the current study

Taxonomy of CSs adopted in the current study
1. Topic avoidance
2. Message abandonment
3. Circumlocution
4. Approximation
5. Word coinage
6. Use of all-purpose words
7. Appeal for help
8. Literal translation
9. Code switching
10. Foreignizing
11. Non-linguistic strategy
12. Self-repair
13. Confirmation check
14. Comprehension check
15. Clarification request
16. Pause fillers and hesitation devices

Full details of justifications for selecting CSs investigated in the current study will be discussed in section 3.5. This section has presented the review of classification of CSs

in the field. The following section addresses the issue of communication strategy instruction and language learner strategy instruction.

2.6 Language learner strategy instruction

For more than a decade, there has been a growing interest in both communication strategy (CS) and learning strategy (LS/ LSs), including how to integrate strategy training in the language classroom. Like CSs, LSs are regarded crucial for the development of strategic competence, one of the four competences of Canale and Swain's (1980) well-known framework of communicative competence. However, it is sometimes difficult to distinguish between these two types of strategy. Tarone (1980) points out that the basic motivation of learners using CSs is to communicate whereas for LSs the motivation is to learn (p.419). In addition, Faerch and Kasper (1983) distinguish LSs from CSs by stating "learning strategies contribute to the development of interlanguage systems whereas communication strategies are used by a speaker when faced some difficulty due to his communicative ends outrunning communicative means" (p.2). Brown (1994) further supports that while LSs are related to the reception domain of intake, memory, storage and recall, CSs deal with the employment of verbal and nonverbal mechanisms for the productive communication of information (p.118).

However, research in LS instruction indicates that CS instruction may also facilitate language learning (Faucette, 2001: 3). This is supported by Ellis (1994) when he states "The study of learning strategies holds considerable promise, both for language pedagogy and for explaining individual differences in L2 learning" (p.558). In addition, Oxford, Lavine, and Crookall (1989) claim that teachers should directly teach learning strategies, including compensation strategies, and provide training on how to transfer such strategies to other learning situations so that the learners become aware of how to use such strategies for more effective communication (Cohen, 1990; Oxford, 1990).

Similarly, CSs can be explicitly taught to raise learners' awareness of strategy use. Dornyei (1995) compares components of LS instruction with those of CS instruction as follows:

> The components of direct training of learning strategies according to the above authors, include "awareness raising" (Oxford, 1990, p.202) offering a general introduction to the concept of learning strategies and strategy training; identification of the strategies students are already using; encouragement of strategy use in general; direct explanation of the use and importance of new strategies; initial demonstration, naming and modelling of the new strategy by the teacher; guided in-class practice of the new strategy followed by a cyclical review; exploration of the significance of the strategy and the evaluation of the degree of success with it; student identification of additional strategies and their potential applications; and, finally, the transfer of the new strategies to new tasks. (p.65)

Dornyei (ibid.) explains that "many of the above elements of LS instruction show a remarkable similarity" to the CS instruction (p. 65). However, he adds that the CS instruction should include the highlighting of cross-cultural differences in CS use and the actual teaching of linguistic devices (p.65).

In summary, previous studies in second language or foreign language teaching and learning indicate that the CS instruction may help learners succeed in language learning. Despite the differences between conceptualisation of LSs and CSs, research about the benefits of LS instruction also advocates the promotion of CS instruction in the current study. Therefore, this study adopted and modified some components of LS instruction with those of CS instruction proposed by Dornyei (ibid.). For example, the students were offered training on how to transfer CSs to other learning situations so that they become aware of how to use such strategies for more effective communication.

2.7 The arguments on teaching communication strategies to second language learners

The previous section has explained how CS instruction facilitates language learning. This section focuses on the arguments about CS instruction. The teachability of CSs for promoting learners' communicative competence has been widely discussed in

terms of its validity and usefulness. More recently, researchers have turned their attention to the relationship between CSs and pedagogical issues (Kasper & Kellerman, 1997). Two different conceptualisations of CSs have been categorised by Yule and Tarone (1997) as “the Pros” and “the Cons”. The Pros support teaching CSs. Several researchers support and advocate the teaching of CSs (e.g., Faerch & Kasper, 1986; Willems, 1987; Tarone & Yule, 1989; Dornyei & Thurrell, 1991; Dornyei, 1995; Manchon, 2000; Lam, 2004; Nakatani, 2005; Le, 2006; Lin, 2007). On the other hand, the Cons favour a much more constrained and limited taxonomy of strategies and they do not advocate teaching CSs (e.g., Paribakht, 1985; Bongaerts & Poulisse, 1989; Bialystok, 1990; Kellerman, 1991).

2.7.1 The arguments in favour of teaching communication strategies

Many researchers make pedagogical recommendations and support the idea that CS training is possible and desirable to develop the learner’s strategic competence. Faerch and Kasper (1983), for instance, suggest that it is possible to teach CSs in the foreign language classroom. They view that whether to teach CSs or not depends on the purposes of teaching. If teaching for passing on new information only, it is probably unnecessary to teach CSs. Foreign language learners already have implicit knowledge regarding CSs and can apply this knowledge. However, if teaching is to make learners conscious about aspects of their already existing strategies, it is necessary to teach them about strategies, particularly how to use CSs most appropriately (p.55). They also argue that “by learning how to use communication strategies appropriately, learners will be more able to bridge the gap between formal and informal learning situations, between pedagogic and non-pedagogic communicative situations” (p.56).

The instruction of CSs is also supported by Willems (1987). He proposed that two ideas should be paid more attention when teaching CSs in the language lessons. First, it is necessary to spend some time on instruction about CSs because CSs in the L1 are mostly used automatically and the learners are not always aware of their own preferences or limitations (p.356). Second, more time should be devoted to practising the use of CSs for raising conscious awareness of a variety of possible CSs (p.356).

In addition, O'Malley (1987) also provides some evidence for the teachability of strategic competence. He concludes as follows:

> Teachers should be confident that there exist a number of strategies which can be embedded into their existing curricula, that can be taught to students with only modest extra effort, and that can improve the overall class performance (p.143).

In his view, future studies should refine the strategy training approaches, identify effects associated with individual strategies, and determine procedures for strengthening the impact of the strategies on student outcomes.

Tarone and Yule (1989) further maintain that CSs can be taught through more focused and explicit approaches (p.114). They suggest that the use of needs analysis tools in a task-based methodology may be incorporated into language instruction which is explicitly emphasised the development of strategic skills (p.114). They conclude that the language teacher should provide actual instruction in the use of CSs, and opportunities for practice in strategy use.

Another researcher advocating teaching and training language use strategies is Dornyei (1995). He supports CS training by discussing three possible reasons for the controversy surrounding the teachability of CSs: (1) most of the arguments on both sides are based on indirect or inconclusive evidence, (2) there is variation within CSs with regard to their teachability, and (3) the notion of teaching allows for a variety of interpretations (p.61). He further suggests that learners' use of CSs should be developed through focused instruction. He proposed a direct approach to teaching CSs and included awareness-raising in this approach.

Moreover, Dornyei (1995) and Manchon (2000) claim that CS training may contribute to enhancing the student's sense of security and self-confidence when the student attempts to communicate with his/her IL resources, and thus attempts to communicate in the L2. As Manchon states:

> Having the possibility of using CS can facilitate the task of using the L2 for some learners, especially those who lack confidence in their own resources or those less capable, linguistically speaking. For instance, being aware of the fact that one does not always have to use the exact word in order to be communicatively effective, can push the student into the search for alternative means to convey his/her intended meaning. This research, in turn, can contribute to the creative use of the learner's linguistic resources, which is another reason to foster the learner's strategic competence.
>
> (Manchon, 2000:21)

In this section, the researcher has reviewed a number of arguments in favour of teaching CSs. Many researchers encourage and support the promotion of the CS instruction for various reasons. For one thing, teaching CSs can help learners be aware of their own oral performance and limitations. In addition, practising the use of CSs can improve their oral communication. Finally, CS instruction can also enhance learners' sense of security and self-confidence when they attempt to communicate with their interlanguage resources.

In support of these arguments, the current study aims to find out more evidence for the teachability of CSs. Teaching students with some useful CSs is beneficial because they may enable students to know how to compensate for their lack of English language knowledge during the communication process. In addition, CSs may help students boost their confidence and try to take risks while speaking English. Therefore, this study is based on the view that teaching communication strategies to students can be beneficial.

2.7.2 The arguments against teaching communication strategies

There has been considerable controversy concerning the teachability of CSs. The problems and arguments arise from the following issues. Researchers such as Paribakht (1985), Bongaerts and Poulisse (1989), and Kellerman (1991) agree that strategic competence develops in speaker's L1 and is freely transferable to target language use. As Kellerman (ibid.) concludes:

> There is no justification for providing training in compensatory strategies in the classroom. All things being equal, if learners seem to be poor strategy users in the L2 (worse than they are in the L1), it will be because they do not

> possess the linguistic means to use strategies properly. The answer seems simple enough. Teach the learners more language and let the strategies look after themselves (p.158).

Due to their focus on cognitive processes and findings that indicate similarities between CS use in L1 and L2, they do not support teaching CSs to the learners.

Moreover, Bialystok (1990) argues that since CSs are reflections of underlying psychological processes, it is unlikely that focusing on surface structures will enhance strategy use or the ability to communicate. In her view, strategic competence is the ability to use language effectively for communication through analysis and control-based strategies. Therefore, teaching the strategies is to equip the learner with the resources essential for the high-level functioning of analysis and control (p.145). Knowledge about language structural information is necessary for analysis of the linguistic system while practice is necessary for control of processing. She concludes that the student must be taught language structure rather than strategies.

In summary, the major argument posed by the arguments against teaching CSs is that the strategies will automatically transfer from L1 to L2. This means that most L2 learners already have a developed level of this strategic competence. Thus, it is not necessary to teach this competence to the learners. What L2 teachers should do is teach the learners language and, as Kellerman (1991) suggests, “let the strategies look after themselves” (p.158).

However, the researcher in the current study disagrees with the aforementioned researchers who are against teaching CSs. The fact that strategic competence has developed in the speaker’s first language and can transfer into his/her second language learning is undeniable (Faerch & Kasper, 1983; Willems, 1987). Nonetheless, as suggested by Alderson and Bachman (2004), “to speak in a foreign language is very difficult and competence in speaking takes a long time to develop” (p.ix). Thai students still need to have strategic competence or communication strategies to handle possible English language interaction which may arise in their communication. Since Thailand is a monolingual country, Thai students do not have many opportunities to practise using communication strategies either inside or outside classrooms. Thus, the

teaching and practice of CSs may be useful since the learners may make use of these strategies when facing communication problems.

2.8 How to teach communication strategies

The inclusion of CS instruction in L2 teaching is proposed by many researchers. Faerch and Kasper (1986:186) suggest three specific activity types of CS training. These are (1) communication games with full visual contact between the participants and full possibilities for immediate feedback, (2) communication games with no visual contact between the participants but still full possibilities for immediate feedback (e.g., simulating a telephone conversation) and (3) Monologue with limited or no possibilities for obtaining immediate feedback (e.g., "two-minute talk"). To employ these activities, the sequence can be conducted in cycles by using concrete, physical entities first, then abstract notions and finally culture-specific notions. They also recommend increasing students' metacognitive awareness on the factors that determine appropriate strategy selection by certain analytical tasks such as audio or video tape of learner and native speaker discourse (p.187). They point out that all these activities can help students to assess what strategies are most appropriate when they want to expand their FL knowledge, in particular through communication (p.188).

Willems (1987) proposed some suggestions for CS practice. He recommends some CS instructional activities to develop *approximation* and *paraphrase* because these strategies are the most commonly used CSs. He presents some activities such as crossword puzzles and describing the strange object. In his view, correctness-errors which learners will make may reasonably be compensated for interaction by skilfulness in the use of CS (p. 361). He suggests that to understand how learners deal with linguistic problems, they should be allowed a certain amount of freedom in their use of the language, as shown in the sample exercise materials and activities.

In addition, Dornyei and Thurrell (1991) suggest practical ideas for strategy training. They recommend developing learners' use of fillers, paraphrase, circumlocution and appealing for help through various activities. For filler training, they suggest using nonsense dialogues and one-word dialogues. In nonsense dialogues, students in pairs

compose short nonsense dialogues that consist almost entirely of fillers; they may use names of cities as content words like “You know, I thought maybe London”. In one-word dialogues, students are asked to construct a dialogue in which each utterance must be one word and yet they should be a logical flow to the whole. For going off the point, Dornyei and Thurrell recommend using “avoiding giving information” for CS practice. In this activity, students must respond to two or three sentences without actually giving that particular information for the teacher’s question. In terms of paraphrase and circumlocution, students are encouraged to explain, define and paraphrase the name of an object. The practice of interruptions is employed to promote the use of appealing for help by asking student to read out a text from the course book and asking him/her to repeat a word again. Finally, they conclude that these activities and phenomena learners practise provide them with a sense of security in the language by allowing them room to manoeuvre in times of difficulty and developing confidence (Dornyei & Thurrell, 1991:22).

Dornyei (1995) further proposed that the direct approach to teaching CSs might involve six interrelated procedures as follows:

1. Raising learner awareness about the nature and communicative potential of CSs
2. Encouraging students to be willing to take risks and use CSs
3. Providing L2 models of the use of certain CSs
4. Highlighting cross-cultural differences in CS use
5. Teaching CSs directly
6. Providing opportunities for practice in strategy use

(Dornyei, 1995:63-4)

For raising learner awareness about the nature and communicative potential of CSs, Dornyei (ibid.) means to “making learners conscious of strategies already in their repertoire, sensitizing them to the appropriate situations where these could be useful, and making them realize that these strategies could actually work” (p. 63). By encouraging students to be willing to take risks and use CSs, he suggests manipulating available language without being afraid of making errors. Providing L2 models of the use of certain CSs is promoted through demonstrations, listening materials and videos, and getting learners to identify, categorise, and evaluate strategies used by native

speakers or other L2 speakers. Highlighting cross-cultural differences in CS use involves various degrees of stylistic appropriateness associated with CSs, differences in the frequency of certain CSs in the speaker's L1 and L2, as well as differences in the verbalization of particular CSs. Teaching CSs directly is conducted by presenting linguistic devices to verbalize CSs which have a finite range of surface structure realisation. Providing opportunities for practice in strategy use is necessary because CSs can only fulfil their function as immediate first aid devices if their use has reached an automatic stage. All these procedures for teaching CSs proposed by Dornyei (ibid.) support the view of direct teaching of CSs to help the learner achieve his/her communicative goal.

Moreover, Manchon (2000) summarises how to teach CSs in L2 teaching by suggesting a two-phase training scheme. The scheme includes both an instruction phase and a practice phase (Manchon, ibid: 21). The instruction phase involves raising the students' awareness of (1) the existence of CS; (2) their crucial role in communication as problem-solving devices; and (3) the communicative efficacy of different CS (p.22). She points out that the awareness-raising can be done either deductively or inductively. For deductive awareness-raising, the instruction comprises direct explanations and/or modelling of CS in the classroom. Inductive awareness-raising involves classroom activities where students are asked either to perform themselves or observe other performing certain communication tasks that involve problem solving, and are then asked to (1) identify the problems experienced by the interactants and the problem-solving mechanisms used to overcome such problems, and (2) to assess the efficacy of the solutions adopted (Tarone, 1984; Faerch & Kasper, 1986). She concludes that the instruction phase can be considered as a form of metacognitive training where the learner's attention is directed to problem-solving behaviour in communicative situations. For the practical phase, she suggests that the training programme would include actual practice in the use of CS. She recommends activities such as object description tasks (in which the interlocutor must identify the object being described by his/her partner), activities where the speaker must explain how to perform a given action, or two-way communication tasks that require exchange of information. In addition, she proposes that "the practice stage should give students the chance of participating in communication activities where (1) a clear

communicative goal has to be achieved; (2) reaching such a goal involves problem solving; and (3) learners themselves realize or set the goals to be achieved and accept the challenge that its realization entails" (Manchon, ibid:22).

In summary, various perspectives and methods for CS instruction have been reviewed and summarised in this section. The researchers who advocate the inclusion of CS instruction in L2 teaching explicitly and/or implicitly suggest a two-phased training scheme that includes both an instruction and a practice stage. Such a scheme is justified on the grounds that it will allow the learner to develop knowledge of CSs and control over their use of CSs. Taking all these suggestions and basis of teaching CSs into account, the current study provided explicit CS instruction over a 12-week period. The CS instruction followed all six types of communication strategy teaching procedures described by Dornyei (ibid.). Students were encouraged to work in pairs or in groups. They were informed of the rationale and the value of CS instruction as well as given a list of names and examples of the nine target strategies. In addition, they were given opportunities to use the nine strategies and guided to evaluate strategy use at the end of the lesson. Full details of lesson plans and activities used in the present study are presented in section 3.6.2 and Appendix K. This section has discussed the proposed methods of teaching CSs. The next section reviews some empirical studies of CS instruction.

2.9 Communication strategy training research

In view of the arguments over the value of CS instruction, the number of interventionist studies on the teaching of speaking remains small. In this section, recent empirical studies on CS instruction are reviewed and summarised to identify outstanding issues for further investigation, to situate the current interventionist study in the field of CSs and to generate research questions of the current study. The previous studies on CS instruction are summarised and shown in Table 2.9.

Table 2.9 Previous studies on CS instruction

Researchers	Subjects	Method	Taught CSs	Findings
Chen (1990)	12 Chinese EFL learners	-a concept-identification task	N/A	- the frequency, type and effectiveness of CSs used by learners vary according to their proficiency level. - the language distance between the learners'L1 and L2 affects their choice of CSs
Kebir (1994)	Six pairs of adult learners of English in Australia	Three different picture dictation tasks	N/A	- the learners gained more confidence as the project continued and they could see themselves manage to overcome potential breakdowns of communication
Dornyei (1995)	109 Hungarian learners of English	- a written test -an oral test (topic description, cartoon description and definition formulation)	-topic avoidance -circumlocution -pause fillers	-post-tests showed improvement in both quality and quantity of strategy use, that is, there was improvement in the quality of circumlocutions and the frequency of fillers and circumlocutions. -students had positive attitude towards the strategy training
Salamone and Marsal (1997)	Two intact French classes of 12 undergraduates each.	- pre-and post-tests (explanations of concrete nouns, abstract nouns, and shapes)	-circumlocution	- both groups showed improvements over time, but there were no significant statistical differences between the two groups in the post-test.
Rossiter (2003)	31 adult intermediate-level ESL learners in Canada	- two oral tasks: picture story narratives and object descriptions -self-report questionnaires	-paraphrasing	- a direct effect in favour of the communication strategy condition on a range of strategies used in the object description task, which was more effective than the narrative in eliciting CSs. - strategy instruction appeared to have little overall impact on learners regarding task performance.
Lam (2004)	Two classes in the secondary ESL classroom in Hong Kong	- group work discussions - self-report questionnaires -observations	-resourcing -paraphrasing -using self-repetition -using fillers	- the treatment group outperformed the comparison group

Researchers	Subjects	Method	Taught CSs	Findings
		- stimulated recall interviews	-using self-correction -asking for repetition -asking for clarification -asking for confirmation	
Wen (2004)	six Chinese learners of English at university level	- a pre-test, training as a treatment and a post-test - Stimulated Recall (SR)	- approximation - circumlocution - word coinage	-The results suggested some potential benefits in the direct teaching of some categories of CSs. -it is possible to help learners develop both quantity and quality of some of CS use and to avoid communication breakdowns through this training
Nakatani (2005)	62 Japanese learners of English at a private school in Japan	- pre-and post-course oral communication test - retrospective protocol	-appeal for help -confirmation checks -clarification requests -maintenance -asking for repetition -comprehension checks -using fillers -offering assistance	- participants in the strategy training group improved their oral proficiency test scores while improvements in the control group were not significant - the participants' success was partly because of an increase of general awareness of oral CSs and of the use of specific oral CSs
Le (2006)	A teacher and two groups of four first-year students	-tasks in the oral test -observation -formal interviews	- approximation - circumlocution - all-purpose words - fillers	- both groups were able to use the CSs they had been taught
Lin (2007)	24 Taiwanese university students	-interview	- topic avoidance - message abandonment - meaning replacement strategy - interlanguage strategy - cooperation strategy	- the students had different views about each CS - all students admitted that topic avoidance was applicable but they had viewed about message abandonment both appropriate and inappropriate usages -most students viewed that meaning replacement strategy was applicable and effective strategy -the students had positive attitudes for the interlanguage strategy. -most students appreciated their learning experience of the cooperation strategy

As seen in Table 2.9, previous studies on CS instruction vary according to their designs, CSs investigated, types of teaching materials and learners. The results from these studies suggest that CS instruction can be helpful for learners. What remains problematic is that there is still lack of agreement on the taxonomy and methods for teaching CSs. In the following section, the number of interventionist studies on the teaching of CSs is reviewed to see what they cast light on the CS instruction.

In a study that supported teaching CSs to the language learners, Chen (1990) conducted an experimental study to explore the relationship between Chinese EFL learners' target language proficiency and their strategic competence. The 220 CSs used by 12 Chinese EFL learners of both high and low proficiency in their target language communication with native speakers were identified and analysed. A concept-identification task used as the communicative task was adopted in the study. There were 24 concepts: 12 concrete concepts and 12 abstract concepts. The result showed that the frequency, type and effectiveness of CSs used by learners varied according to their proficiency level. In addition, the language distance between the learners'L1 and L2 affects their choice of CSs. These findings strongly supported the hypothesis that learners' communicative competence was probably increased by developing their strategic competence. However, Chen's study investigated only CSs which were used when learners lacked lexical items. Therefore, future studies should investigate other levels of language use such as syntax, morphology and discourse. This is because the use of CSs occurs at all levels of language use in real-life communication.

Kebir (1994) conducted action research to explore the CSs of adult learners of English in Australia. The learners' proficiency level was elementary. The hypothesis "Formal intervention (teaching) would accelerate the process of developing strategic competence" was examined. A specific task of a picture dictation was adopted in the study. The data were collected from six pairs of learners on three different occasions doing three different picture dictation tasks. The results showed that the learners gained more confidence as the project continued and they could manage to overcome potential breakdowns of communication. The researcher suggested that less emphasis on grammatical accuracy should be considered since the need to communicate was

more important than the need to be corrected. However, Kebir's (ibid.) study did not address or explain types of CSs taught in the study. One might doubt what types of CSs were taught to the learners. Therefore, empirical evidence of the link between taught strategies and students' task performance is needed to be further discussed.

Dornyei (1995) carried out a strategy training course for 109 Hungarian learners of English and assessed the effects of the treatment using a pre-test and post-test. Three CSs, which were topic avoidance and replacement, circumlocution, and fillers and hesitation devices, were taught for six weeks. The study was designed as quasiexperimental research and included a treatment group and two types of control group; students in the first group received no treatment but followed their regular EFL curriculum; students in the second group were given conversational training without any specific strategic focus. For the pre- and post-tests, all the students took a written and an oral test before the program and the oral test again after the training. Post-tests showed improvement in both quality and quantity of strategy use, that is, there was improvement in the quality of circumlocutions and the frequency of fillers and circumlocutions. In addition, students had positive attitudes towards the strategy training. The researcher concluded that it was worth teaching CSs directly because the training provided the learners with a sense of security in the L2 by allowing them room to manoeuvre in times of difficulty. He elaborated that rather than giving up the message learners might decide to try and remain in the conversation and achieve their communicative goal (Dornyei, ibid: 80). It should be noted that Dornyei's (ibid.) study provides some evidence that strategic competence may be teachable and strategy training may improve both qualitative and quantitative use of taught CSs. The study also provides insights into the value of CS training, in particular in awareness-raising of CS use. However, Dornyei's study included only three strategies in the experiment. More strategy types would be needed for further investigation.

Salamone and Marsal (1997) conducted an experiment to investigate the impact of CS instruction on two intact French classes of twelve undergraduates each. The treatment class received instruction in the use of circumlocution and strategies to cope with lexical difficulties, and the comparison class served as a control group. All participants completed pre-and post-tests that elicited explanations of concrete nouns, abstract

nouns, and shapes. The results showed that both groups showed improvements over time, but there were no statistically significant differences between the two groups in the post-test. However, the tests administered in this study were written rather than oral tests. Therefore, the validity of the use of written test to assess the impact of CSs for oral communication is in question.

Rossiter (2003) reported the effects of CS instruction on strategy use and on second language performance. Participants were two classes of adult immigrants in Canada. One class received 12 hours of direct communication instruction of paraphrasing, and the second served as a comparison group. Two oral tasks which were picture story narratives and object descriptions were administered in Week 1, Week 5, and Week 10. The results from the post-test showed a direct effect in favour of the communication strategy condition on a range of strategies used. The object description task was more effective than the narrative in eliciting CSs. The researcher concluded that strategy instruction appeared to have little overall impact on learners regarding task performance. However, it is reasonable that other measures, apart from using pre-and post-tests, may be needed to explore the impact of CS instruction in more detail and to triangulate the findings.

Lam (2004) conducted an interventionist study to examine the effects of oral communication strategy training (OCST) on learners' performance and on strategy use. Two classes in the secondary ESL classroom in Hong Kong participated in the study; one class received 16 hours of OCST and the other served as a comparison group. The taught strategies were resourcing, paraphrasing, using self-repetition, using fillers, using self-correction, asking for repetition, asking for clarification and asking for confirmation. In weeks 1, 10 and 20, data were collected from the learners' performance in group work discussions, self-report questionnaires, observations of learners' strategy use, and stimulated recall interviews. The findings showed that the treatment group outperformed the comparison group. In addition, the findings also supported the view that young L2 learners tended to rely on "bedrock strategies" in oral communication tasks. Finally, the distinct advantages of using a multi-method approach to gauging the effects of OCST were appraised. Interestingly, Lam's (ibid.) study compared the data by using a multi-method approach to triangulate findings of

students' strategy use. However, her study emphasised only one type of divergent task. Therefore, it seems necessary to further investigate the strategy training on strategy use across different task types.

Wen (2004) investigated the effects of CS training on six Chinese learners of English at university level. Three specific CSs, namely: approximation, circumlocution and word coinage were examined. The study was designed as an experimental type of action research without control group. The data were derived from a pre-test, training as a treatment and a post-test. The subjects were trained together for one and a half hours with conducting seven training tasks and one discussion. Data analysis comprised two parts: (1) the subjects' comments and protocols in Stimulated Recall (SR) to identify compensatory strategy use; (2) the researcher's analysis of compensatory strategy use. The results suggested some potential benefits in the direct teaching of some categories of CSs. The researcher concluded that it was possible to help learners develop both the quantity and quality of some CS use and to avoid communication breakdowns through this training. Nonetheless, one would wonder whether the short time devoted to the training might affect students' success of task performance and might raise students' awareness of using taught CSs. It follows that the period of CS training would need to be extended.

More recently, Nakatani (2005) examined the effects of awareness-raising training on oral CS use of 62 Japanese learners of English at a private school in Japan. The research questions were to what degree can these strategies be explicitly taught, and the extent to which strategy can lead to improvements in oral communication ability. There were two groups of learners: the strategy training group and the control group. The strategy training group received metacognitive training for 12 weeks and was taught CSs such as asking for clarification, checking for comprehension and paraphrasing. The control group received only the normal communicative course, with no explicit focus on oral CSs. Three types of data collection which were the participants' pre-and post-course oral communication test scores, transcription data from the tests and retrospective protocol data from their task performance were assessed. The findings revealed that participants in the strategy training group improved their oral proficiency test scores while improvements in the control group

were not significant. The results of the transcription and retrospective protocol data analysis revealed that the participants' success was to some extent due to an increase of general awareness of oral CSs and of the use of specific oral CSs. It is interesting to note that Nakatani's (ibid.) study attempted to incorporate the use of metacognitive strategies and learners' awareness-raising into CS instruction. This might help learners to know how to control their use of CSs. In addition, the findings are particularly valuable as they have cast some light on the teachability issue of CSs.

Additionally, Le (2006) conducted a case study to examine the effects of teaching CSs to Vietnamese learners of English. A teacher and two groups of four first-year students participated in the study. Four CSs which were approximation, circumlocution, all-purpose words, and fillers were taught to the students. Audio-and video-recorded data were collected in the study. Two formal interviews with each student and a teacher were conducted to obtain their opinions on the strategy instruction. The results showed that both groups were able to use the CSs they had been taught. The positive outcomes of the strategy training session were supported by the results from the interviews with the students and the teacher. She concluded that fostering communication strategies in language learners might help improve their strategic competence and might enhance their fluency in language use. Nonetheless, Le's (ibid.) study included only four strategies in the investigation. More strategy types would be needed for further investigation.

Finally, Lin (2007) conducted a case study to examine Taiwanese learners' perceptions about learning five set of CSs. In this study, 24 university students were trained using five CSs in Faerch and Kasper's taxonomy which were topic avoidance, message abandonment, meaning replacement strategy, interlanguage strategy and cooperation strategy. Then 7 of 24 students were interviewed by the researcher in the middle and at the end of the training period. The results showed that the students had different views about each CS. In reduction set of CSs, all students admitted that topic avoidance was applicable but they had viewed message abandonment both appropriate and inappropriate usages. In addition, most students thought that meaning replacement strategy was an applicable and effective strategy. Moreover, the students had positive attitudes for the interlanguage strategy. Finally, most students appreciated their

learning experience of the cooperation strategy. The findings of Lin's (ibid.) study have cast some light on the students' perceptions about learning this set of five CSs. However, the link between students' perceptions and their actual performance about these taught CSs needs further discussion.

In summary, all empirical studies involving CS instruction have been carried out with both school students and university students. The major research instrument employed for data collection was communicative tasks. Most of the researchers relied on pre-and post-speaking tests to elicit data of CSs used by the subjects (e.g., Dornyei, 1995; Salamone & Marsal, 1997; Rossiter, 2003; Lam, 2004; Wen, 2004; Nakatani, 2005; Le, 2006). In addition, other research approaches like self-report questionnaires (e.g., Lam, 2004) and retrospective protocol or stimulated recall interviews (e.g., Lam, 2004; Wen, 2004; Nakatani, 2005) were employed to investigate the effects of CS instruction. Various CSs such as circumlocution, approximation, word-coinage, fillers, avoidance, and requests for help were proposed to teach in CS instruction programme. Explicit CS training was conducted to raise learners' awareness of strategy use. The findings from the reviewed studies report the possibility and advantages of teaching CSs to develop learners' strategic competence and oral skill. Taken together, the previous research on teaching CSs sufficiently supports a focus on explicit CS instruction.

Summary of unsolved issues for further studies

Firstly, the number of interventionist studies which investigate the effects of CS instruction is relatively small. In addition, most attention is given to studies on learners' use of lexical compensatory strategies. Thus, more research is needed to examine more types of CSs that can help promote interactive skill between speakers and listeners. Lastly, learners' CS use has been investigated and assessed by one or two methods (e.g., observations or speaking tests). However, a combination of research instruments is needed to triangulate findings to build a fuller picture of strategy use (McDonough & McDonough, 1997).

Based on the gaps found in the CS training literature above, the current study was designed to find firmer evidence for teaching CSs to students, especially Thai undergraduate students. For the research design, it should be noted that most research on teaching CSs has focused on an experimental study to compare two groups of subjects but only a few studies have paid attention to explore one group of subjects in depth. Therefore this study was designed as an interventionist study by using one group of Thai undergraduate students in order to obtain in-depth data about the effects of teaching specific CSs. Based on previous studies, both qualitative and quantitative methods were employed to triangulate the findings of the current study. As pointed out by Nakatani & Goh (2007), CS research should include oral interviews, retrospective verbal protocol, or validated self-report questionnaires in order to triangulate data (p. 226). Therefore, the instruments used to collect data in this study were pre-and post-speaking tasks, a self-report strategy questionnaire, retrospective verbal protocols and an attitudinal questionnaire.

2.10 Descriptive studies on CSs in Thailand

The previous section reviewed the CS instruction research that provided the basis for this study. This section reviews research on CSs in Thailand. Since then, the amount of research on CSs is low and there is no research on CS instruction. Most research studies advocate investigating CSs in relation to the factors such as proficiency level and tasks. The description of these studies is provided in Table 2.10.

Table 2.10 Descriptive studies on CSs in Thailand

Researchers	Subjects	Method	Taught CSs	Findings
Wongsawang (2001)	30 Thai native speakers with intermediate English proficiency	- two tasks contain culture-specific notions	-	- circumlocution and approximation were the most preferred strategies
Wannaruk (2002)	Seventy-five Thai students at Suranaree University of Technology	- interviews	-	- the most frequently used CS was modification devices - students used different CSs to different degrees of their language level
Weerarak (2003)	16 first year students majoring English	- Classroom observation - speaking tasks	-	-the participants used five types of CSs: modification devices,

Researchers	Subjects	Method	Taught CSs	Findings
				target language-based strategy, nonlinguistic strategy, L1-based strategy and avoidance strategy - The less able group used CSs more frequently than the more able one
Pornpibul (2005)	200 second-year Thai undergraduate students	-questionnaire -video tapes of three different tasks - observations -retrospective interviews	-	-participants often employed appeal for help, approximation, avoidance, non-linguistic signals, circumlocution, and code-switching

As seen in Table 2.10, attention giving to studies on CSs is rather low in Thailand. Most studies tried to relate strategy use to improvement in task performance. To see what insights they may give into the field of CSs, some empirical studies are reviewed below.

Wongsawang (2001) investigated CS use for culture-specific notions in L2 communication strategies. The participants were 30 Thai speakers with intermediate English proficiency. They were asked to perform two tasks that contained culture-specific notions. In task 1, they explained to an American friend about the ceremony in which Thai students paid respect to their teachers. Task 2 consisted of two parts: a story-retelling task and the notion of "make merit". The analysis focused on 14 concepts that were expected to be problematic. The results showed that circumlocution and approximation were the most preferred strategies. The study suggested that the familiarity of the L2 speaker with a concept did not always help them in dealing with communicative problems. However, it should be noted that Wongsawang's (ibid.) study focused on only a story-retelling task and the culture-specific notion task. Although the tasks were designed to be naturalistic, the participants did not have any interlocutors. Consequently, this might affect the participants' choice of CSs.

Wannaruk (2002) conducted research to examine the use of CSs of students at Suranaree University of Technology. Seventy-five Thai students majoring in engineering, agriculture and information technology participated in this study. They

were divided into three groups, namely high, moderate and low according to their oral proficiency level. Data gathered from interviews of students by native English teachers were analysed quantitatively and qualitatively. The findings revealed that the most frequently used CS was modification devices while other strategies used in order of frequency were nonlinguistic strategies, L1-based strategies, target language-based strategies, and avoidance strategies. In addition, students used different CSs to different degrees of their language level. The researcher also supported making learners more aware of the use of CSs and teaching them appropriate CSs. However, Wannaruk's (ibid.) study emphasised only the interview task. Therefore, it seems necessary to further investigate the strategy use across different task types. Since Wannaruk's study focused on the relationship between strategy use and oral proficiency, other factors such as attitudes and personal characteristics of the learners would be needed for further studies.

Weerarak (2003) investigated oral CSs employed by students at Rajabhat institute in Thailand. The participants were 16 first year students majoring in English. They were divided into two groups as the more able and less able according to their speaking test scores. Classroom observation was employed as the main research method and other research instruments were the observation form and four speaking tasks. The speaking tasks included oral interview, conversation, describing pictures and explaining the meaning of words. The findings showed that the participants used five types of CSs: modification devices, target language-based strategy, nonlinguistic strategy, L1-based strategy and avoidance strategy. The less able group used CSs more frequently than the more able one. There was also a statistically significant difference between the frequency of each type of CSs used by more able and less able groups. In line with Wannaruk's (2002) study, it seemed that Weerarak's (ibid.) study emphasised only the relationship between strategy use and oral proficiency of the learners. Therefore, further research may need to investigate other factors that may affect the students' choice of CSs.

Pornpibul (2005) investigated how Thai undergraduate students used their CSs to communicate in English. The participants were 200 second-year students attending a listening and speaking English course at Thammasat University. Data were collected

by questionnaires, video tapes of three different tasks, observations and retrospective interviews. The findings revealed that the participants often employed the following strategies (in order of frequency): (1) appeal for help, (2) approximation, (3) avoidance, (4) nonlinguistic signals, (5) circumlocution, and (6) code-switching. The lower achievement group of students often used strategies that were less dependent on the knowledge of English (e.g., appeal for help, avoidance and code-switching). However, the high achievement one was found to use circumlocution more frequently. The findings also presented various factors that had a potential in influencing the participants' choice of CSs. The researcher recommended that instructors should raise students' awareness of the possibilities of using more advanced CSs. Pornpibul's (ibid.) study, thus, compared the data by using a multi-method approach to triangulate findings of students' strategy use.

Summary of unsolved issues for further studies

According to the aforementioned studies, the research involving CSs employed by Thai students of English has been conducted with university students. The studies aimed at investigating overall CS use of learners. Proficiency level and task performance have been taken as variables relating to students' use of CSs. The main research instrument used for eliciting data was communicative tasks. However, only a few studies explicitly discussed the role of teaching CSs to Thai students. Hence, a lack of adequate work concerning CS instruction in the Thai context provides a good justification for the present study to investigate the effects of teaching CSs to Thai learners of English at university level. In Thailand, less attention has been paid to the issue of teaching CSs to Thai learners of English. To date, there are no studies on the teaching of CSs to Thai EFL learners. The objectives of this study, therefore, are to explore CSs employed by Thai students and to discover the effects of CS instruction on the students' performance while speaking English. This study might provide new knowledge about CS instruction in a Thai context to teachers, learners and researchers in the CS area.

2.11 Summary of Chapter two

This chapter has presented an overview of the history and trends of CSs in the area of second language learning. Research in CS area has been developed and paid more attention over the last two decades since Selinker (1972) first introduced the notion of CSs. Regarding an attempt to define CSs, there is no complete agreement on the definition of CSs. Two major approaches are proposed to conceptualise CSs, which are the interactional view and psycholinguistic view. While the former defines CS as a mutual attempt by participants in a communicative situation to maintain communication, the latter views CS as a cognitive process of the speaker with a focus on comprehension and production.

With respect to CS classification, many researchers have used different classification systems. Six distinguished groups of researchers have made important contributions to classification of CSs. In terms of language learner strategy instruction, research in second language or foreign language teaching and learning indicates that communication strategy instruction may result in learners' success in language learning.

The arguments in favour of and against teaching CSs were also highlighted in the chapter including the issue of how to teach CSs. In reviewing the empirical research concerning CSs and CS instruction, there is no complete agreement on the exact types of CSs to be taught. However, previous research advocates the promotion of teaching CSs to enhance learners' speaking ability.

The next chapter discusses the research methodology and data collection used in this study.

CHAPTER THREE
METHODOLOGY

This chapter addresses the research methodology and data collection used in this study. It is divided into eight major parts. Following the rationale and justifications for choosing the research design, section 3.2 presents research settings and participants. Section 3.3 discusses pre-pilot and pilot studies. Section 3.4 presents the research instruments which are a self-report strategy questionnaire, a speaking task battery, an attitudinal questionnaire, and retrospective verbal protocols. Section 3.5 presents a categorisation of CSs. Section 3.6 addresses data collection of the current study. Section 3.7 explains the analysis procedures for obtained data. Finally, section 3.8 gives a summary of the whole chapter.

As mentioned in sections 2.9 and 2.10, CS instruction research with a focus on the speaking skill is rare. In addition, previous studies on CS instruction suggest that it may be useful and desirable to teach EFL students in the use of CSs for their oral communication. To recall, this study addresses the following four research questions.

RQ 1. Does the teaching of specific communication strategies alter Thai students' reports of the use and usefulness of communication strategies?

RQ 2. Does the teaching of specific communication strategies lead to greater use of the taught communication strategies? If yes, how do the students use these taught communication strategies while performing the speaking tasks?

RQ 3. Can the students identify the types of communication strategies they use in the speaking tasks? If yes, how do they explain their reasons for strategy use in the retrospective verbal reports?

RQ 4. What are Thai students' attitudes towards the teaching of communication strategies?

A self-report strategy questionnaire was used to investigate RQ 1 while an analysis of a speaking task battery was employed to examine RQ 2. Then an analysis of

retrospective verbal protocols was used to examine RQ 3 and an attitudinal questionnaire was employed to investigate RQ 4. An overview of the research instruments that are used to answer the research questions is presented in Table 3.1 below.

Table 3.1 An overview of the research instruments used to answer the research questions in this study

Research questions	Research instruments			
	Self-report strategy questionnaire	Speaking tasks	Retrospective verbal reports	Attitudinal questionnaire
Research question1 (students' reports of use and usefulness of CSs)	**x**			
Research question 2 (students' actual use of CSs)		**x**		
Research question 3 (students' comments and reasons behind their use of CSs)			**x**	
Research question 4 (students' attitudes towards CS instruction)				**x**

3.1 Research design

This section presents the research design adopted in the present study. First, the overview of postpositivism and interventionist studies as a research design of this study is explained. Then, researcher stance on the research design is discussed. Finally, issues related to doing interventionist studies and strategy-based instruction (SBI) are presented.

3.1.1 Overview of postpositivism and interventionist study adopted in the current study

Educational and psychological research has been influenced and guided by postpositivism for several decades (see Mertens, 1998:7). According to Guba and

Lincoln (1998), postpositivism is based on the concept of "critical multiplism" (a refurbished version of triangulation) as a method to falsify hypotheses (p.205). Researchers working in a postpositivist approach try to find out knowledge through various research methods and tools. Guba and Lincoln (2005) argue that postpositivism encourages researchers to find out knowledge by modified experimental methods, critical multiplism, falsification of hypotheses and include qualitative methods (p.193). That is, qualitative methods can be used within this paradigm. As claimed by Mertens (1998), researchers in postpositivism can use quantitative methods, interventionist studies and decontextualized methods as approaches to systematic inquiry or methodology (p.8). On the basis of the aforementioned information, postpositivism enables the researcher in the current study to find out basic research evidence from quantitative data as well as to focus in depth on qualitative data of Thai students' use of CSs.

Since the purpose of this study is to develop an understanding about the impact of teaching some specific CSs on Thai students' speaking performance, perceptions and attitudes, an interventionist study was adopted as the research design of the study. In contrast to descriptive research which aims to describe and interpret specific aspects of classroom life, interventionist research incorporates deliberate, systematic attempts on the part of the research team to change existing practice (Eisenhart & Borko, 1993: 83). Brumfit and Mitchell (1990) describe interventionist studies as follows:

> Interventionist studies are those in which some aspect of teaching or learning is deliberately changed, so that the effects can be monitored. Thus new materials may be introduced, new types of learning activity may be devised or used in an environment where they were not previously used, or teachers may be asked to smile more, use the target language exclusively, or participate in small group discussion. The setting is the normal one for teaching and learning, but the research monitors the effect of changes which have been deliberately introduced (Brumfit & Mitchell, 1990: 12).

In other words, interventionist research involves some deliberate change in a particular process or situation so that the effects can be monitored and evaluated (University of Wollongong, 2001: 4). This type of research tends to have less control over variables than experimental studies. According to Brumfit and Mitchell (ibid.), at some points

interventionist studies are similar to experimental studies but the latter usually involves a much more formal control of variables (p.12).

In this section, the overview of postpositivism and interventionist studies has been discussed. The following section presents researcher stance on the research design.

3.1.2 Researcher stance on the research design

As the aim of the current study is to understand the intervention or process of teaching some specific CSs, the researcher of this study adopted a postpositivist approach as a means to examine students' use of CSs. The following sections discuss the implications of postpositivism in relation to the role of the researcher, design of research, ethical issues and generalisability of the current study.

Researcher role

I have chosen to write this short section in the first person because I would like to provide some reflections on my role as a researcher. An essential part of the postpositivist approach is that researchers investigate their own epistemologies and understand how they affect themselves (Ryan, 2006: 18). A researcher in a postpositivist approach also "recognises the common humanity that connects researchers and the people who participate in research. We regard ourselves as people who conduct research among other people, learning with them, rather than conducting research on them" (Ryan, ibid: 18). As a researcher I was acutely aware of my involvement and influence in all stages of the research. I was involved in the teaching process as well as the data collection and analysis - I was at times both an interlocutor and a researcher. This was necessary so that I could respond promptly to the learning needs of the participants, however, it is difficult to keep the objectivity often required by research such as this. To overcome this limitation I involved several colleagues in the research process. My supervisor provided a constant critical eye over the research process and the research tools and materials before conducting the main study. In addition, other colleagues provided critical comments and helped maintain validity and reliability during the analysis stages. Despite this perceived conflict in role, I feel

that such an approach was necessary, and allowed me to gain a deeper understanding of how students use CSs.

Design of the research

As mention earlier, the focus of this study is on the intervention or process under scrutiny. Accordingly, a postpositivist approach seems to be an appropriate type of research applied in the current study. Postpositivist researchers see knowledge as accumulating by a process of accretion. Each study builds on previous studies and knowledge and the aim is to make generalisations and cause-effect linkages (Guba & Lincoln, 1994: 113-114). Postpositivist research is typically conducted in "more natural settings [than is traditional in positivist approaches], collecting more situational information, and reintroducing discovery as an element in inquiry…All these aims are accomplished largely through the increased utilization of qualitative techniques " (Guba & Lincoln, ibid: 110). Qualitative methods are used to "enhance and expand quantitative measures" (Campbell & Russo, 1999:129). This approach, therefore, allows the researcher in the current study to use a multi-method approach to examine both quantitative and qualitative data regarding the students' use of CSs. This study employed not only a self-report strategy questionnaire, but also speaking tasks, retrospective verbal protocols and an attitudinal questionnaire in order to elicit both quantitative and qualitative data. While the quantitative findings gave general information concerning students' use of CSs, the qualitative data provided in-depth and detailed findings of how and why the students used these strategies.

Ethical issues

Ethical practices in postpositivist research emphasise "good principles, adequate for working with human participants in all their complexity. Procedures, techniques and methods, while important, must always be subject to ethical scrutiny" (Ryan, 2006:17). The researcher in the current study was aware of potential ethical issues that could appear in the research process. Therefore, the rights, needs and values of the participants were taken into account while conducting this study. The main ethical issue related to this study concerned the participants' permission to conduct an

intervention study on their use of CSs. Before starting the intervention, the participants were informed the purpose of the study. They were asked to sign the consent form before they attended the study (see Appendix P). They were also informed that they were free not to participate in the study and quit the study at any time they wanted. These students were highly motivated to attend a 12-week CS instruction programme because they thought that the programme might help them to improve their spoken English and lend benefits to their future career. Therefore, they seemed to pay more attention and tried to attend every session of the programme. In addition, the intervention raised another ethical issue regarding "depriving learners of the perceived benefits of a certain type of instruction and teachers of the relevant training can be seen as unethical and this can subvert experimental design" (Marsden, 2004: 82). That is, it can be seen unethical that an experimental group receives a treatment while a control group does not receive the treatment. Therefore, only a single group of engineering students participated in this study.

Generalisability

One of limitations of the generalisability of this study is the design of the study. That is, the selection of CSs was dependent on pre-pilot and pilot studies which were conducted with engineering students at KMUTNB. Therefore, the method acknowledged the context-specific nature of CSs. In future studies, it will be necessary to conduct pre-pilot and pilot studies before conducting the main study to investigate the types of CSs used by students. Despite these limitations, the current study is set within a context of existing research and theory and therefore contributes to an insight into the students' use of CSs both quantitatively and qualitatively as well as providing theoretically interesting findings regarding the types of CSs which are teachable and researchable in CS research.

This section has presented the researcher stance on the research design. The next section discusses issues regarding interventionist studies and strategy-based instruction (SBI).

3.1.3 Doing interventionist studies and strategy-based instruction (SBI)

In the area of teaching language learner strategies, McDonough (1995) divides the studies on intervening by teaching strategies into a general group and a specific group (p.97). In the general group, studies have aimed at teaching strategies for overcoming a number of learning problems encountered in several aspects of language learning. In the specific group, the studies have explored what has been learned from attempting to teach particular strategies (McDonough, ibid: 97). However, McDonough suggests that both groups share the following central questions:

- Can strategies be taught?
- Do students use the taught strategies?
- Do students who use the taught strategies perform better (than previously or than other students not so taught)?

(McDonough, 1995: 97)

According to Rubin *et al* (2006), the aim of strategy intervention or teaching language learner strategies is to explore "the extent to which it enables students to become more effective language learners" (p.154). The concept of language learner strategies involves the teaching of learning strategies and/or communication strategies in the language classroom. To date, practice in implementing instruction in language learner strategies is referred to as strategy-based instruction (SBI). According to Cohen (1998), strategy-based instruction (SBI) is "a learner centred approach to teaching that extends classroom strategy training to include both explicit and implicit integration of strategies into the course content" (p.81). He further explains that in a typical SBI classroom, the teachers:

(1) describe, model, and give examples of potentially useful strategies;
(2) elicit additional examples from the students based on the students' own learning experiences;
(3) lead small-group/whole-class discussions about strategies (e.g., reflecting on the rationale behind strategy use, planning an approach to a specific activity, evaluating the effectiveness of chosen strategies);
(4) encourage their students to experiment with a broad range of strategies; and
(5) integrate strategies into everyday class materials, explicitly and implicitly embedding them into the language tasks to provide for contextualized strategy practice. (Cohen, 1998:81)

To conduct SBI, teachers have three options: "(1) start with the established course materials and then determine which strategies to insert and where; (2) start with a set of strategies that they wish to focus on and design activities around them; and (3) insert strategies spontaneously into the lessons whenever it seems appropriate e.g., to help students overcome problems with difficult material or to speed up the lesson" (Cohen, ibid: 82).

Taking these principles for SBI research into account, the researcher in this study adopted the decisions for teaching strategies proposed by McDonough (1995) and Cohen (1998) as the basis of the present study. Before training, participants performed a series of four speaking tasks, reported verbal retrospection and completed a self-report strategy questionnaire. They were taught by the researcher using a new approach to promoting the use of CSs. A specific group of students were taught nine specific CSs for oral communication over 12 weeks. After the twelfth lesson, the participants performed the same speaking tasks, reported verbal retrospection and completed the self-report strategy questionnaire and an attitudinal questionnaire.

In this section, the issue of conducting interventionist studies in teaching language learner strategies has been discussed. In the next section, the research setting and participants of the present study are addressed.

3.2 Setting and participants

The setting of this study was King Mongkut's University of Technology North Bangkok (KMUTNB) in Thailand. KMUTNB was originally established in 1959 by co-operation between the Thai Government and the Federal Republic of Germany as the "Thai German Technical School". In 1964, the school was upgraded to be "Thai-German College" and then became the North Bangkok Campus of "King Mongkut's Institute of Technology" in 1971. At present, there are two campuses; the main one is in Bangkok and the second one is in Prachinburi Province. In general, KMUTNB aims to develop human resources in the fields of sciences and technology at both the basic and advanced levels with 17,496 students and 117 courses from vocational certificates (Pre-Engineering) to doctoral degrees. Currently, the academic units include the

Faculty of Engineering, the Faculty of Technical Education, the Faculty of Applied Sciences, the Faculty of Industrial Technology and Management, the Faculty of Information Technology, the College of Industrial Technology, the Faculty of Applied Arts, the Faculty of Agro-Industry, Graduate College and the Sirindhorn International Thai-German Graduate School of Engineering.

In the present study, the participants were one intact group of the fourth year students at the Faculty of Engineering, KMUTNB. Since the entire population of the fourth year engineering students at KMUTNB could not be investigated because of the time constraints and the extensive nature of the research methodology, the researcher obtained a sample size sufficient to serve the purpose of the study. According to Cohen *et al* (2005), the correct sample size depends on the purpose of the study and the nature of the population under scrutiny (p.93). The sample size might be also constrained by cost, in terms of time, money, stress etc. (Cohen *et al*, ibid: 93). Moreover, the researcher has to keep in mind that the sample size should not be too big to be manageable (Intaraprasert, 2000). Therefore, a total of 62 participants aged between 19 and 24 years were chosen as a sample group in this study. At the time of the data collection, all participants enrolled in an English Conversation 1 course which was taught by the researcher. As a requirement of the Faculty of Engineering, these students had to enrol one English Conversation course. Before taking this course, they were required to take at least two English foundation courses, namely, English I and English II. Table 3.2 provides an overview of their background information.

Table 3.2 Background of the students who participated in this study

All participants' background (N=62)		**12 participants' background (N=12)**
Sex	Male =51; Female=11	Male =9; Female=3
Age	19-24 years old (Mean=21.35)	20-23 years old (Mean=21.33)
English 1 Grade	A =3 B =28 C=25 D=6	B=9 C=3
English 2 Grade	A=4 B=24 C=25 D=5	B=8 C=4

All participants' background (N=62)		12 participants' background (N=12)
Length of English study	10-16 years (Mean=11.76)	11-13 years (Mean=11.58)
Overall English proficiency	Poor=32 Fair=30	Poor=6 Fair =6
Speaking	Poor=25 Fair=37	Poor=1 Fair =11
Listening	Poor=38 Fair=24	Poor =9 Fair = 3
Reading	Poor=11 Fair=43 Good=8	Poor =1 Fair =11
Writing	Poor=29 Fair=33	Poor =6 Fair =6
Been abroad	Yes=11 No=51	No =12
Study abroad	Yes=5 No=57	No=12
Speak English at university	Never=23 Rarely=39	Never = 5 Rarely =7
Speak English outside university	Never=25 Rarely=32 Sometimes=5	Never =5 Rarely = 6 Sometimes =1

As seen in the Table, all 62 participants had roughly the same background characteristics. All of them received the 12-week communication strategy (CS)-based instruction and a group of 12 students among them were randomly selected to complete speaking tasks and retrospective protocols. The reasons the researcher of the present study chose the fourth year engineering students as the participants were that; first, they might be active to learn and practise CSs that they have never experienced. Second, they might use English for their further study or future career. This means that they could improve their speaking skill before they finished their study from the university. Third, the researcher taught these subjects so it was more convenient to make an arrangement with them.

As mentioned earlier, 12 out of 62 participants completed the speaking tasks and retrospective protocols. The reason for having 12 students as participants is that a small sample permitted easier access to recording equipment. In addition, this small sample helped the current study gain a more in-depth investigation into the students' actual use of CSs. Of 12 participants, there were only 3 female participants. It should

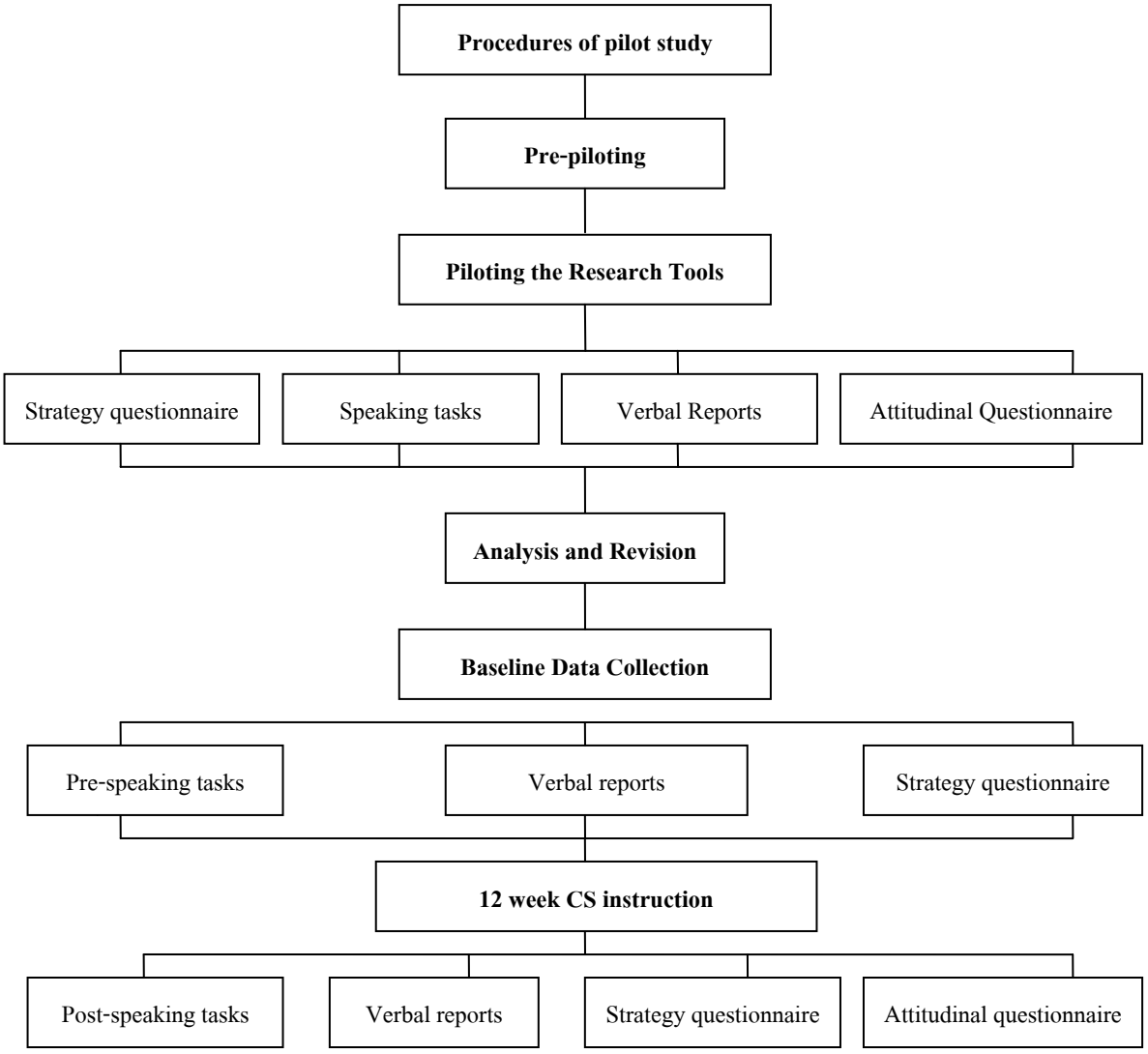
be noted that one typical characteristic of engineering students is that male students often outnumber female students. Moreover, all 12 participants have approximately the same level of English ability, based on their previous English grades. They have studied English for 11 to 13 years. When self-rating their English proficiency in four skills-speaking, listening, reading and writing, the majority of the participants rated themselves as poor to fair at all these skills. All of them have never been or studied abroad. They reported that they never (N=5) or rarely (N=7) speak English at university and never (N=5), rarely (N=6), or sometimes (N=1) speak English outside university. From these data, it can be concluded that these 12 participants have approximately the same background and English ability and they might be considered to be a representative group of engineering students.

This section has presented the research setting and participants in the present study. The next section will address the pilot study of this study.

3.3 Pilot study

Before starting the main study, the researcher in the current study carried out small-scale pre-pilot and pilot studies to refine the research instruments and data collection procedures in this study. The procedures of the pre-pilot and pilot studies of the current study are shown in Figure 3.1 below.

Figure 3.1 Procedures of pilot study



Description and summary of pre-pilot study

The pre-pilot study was conducted in April 2006 with a group of the fourth year students at the Faculty of Engineering, King Mongkut's University of Technology North Bangkok (KMUTNB) in Thailand. The purpose of the pre-pilot study was to gain some evidence of the students' use of CSs. The students were interviewed in English by the researcher. The interviews which lasted about 5-7 minutes were recorded and transcribed by using text-processing software, Microsoft Word. The data were then analysed by the researcher. The findings from the pre-pilot study showed

that the students used various types of CSs, e.g., topic avoidance, appeal for help and approximation. These data were used as a guideline for classifying CSs and developing strategy items for a self-report strategy questionnaire.

Description and summary of pilot study

The pilot study was conducted in November, 2006. The data were collected at KMUTNB for a month. The purposes of this pilot study were to test out the instruments and obtain some preliminary data of Thai learners' CS use and the effects of teaching CSs to Thai learners of English. The participants were 34 students, age ranged from 20 to 22 years old. They were the fourth year students at the Faculty of Engineering, KMUTNB. At the time of the data collection, all of them enrolled in a 16-week English Conversation 1 course. The researcher chose this class because of class availability at the time of pilot study. All of these students were asked to fill out a self-report strategy questionnaire. For the strategy training, four students were asked to attend five-lesson strategy training class which lasted 60 minutes per session, fill out the self-report strategy questionnaire and an attitudinal questionnaire, complete three speaking tasks and then report back their use of strategies.

The data collected from the pilot study were then analysed by the researcher. As for the self-report strategy questionnaire, SPSS version 14 was used to compute descriptive statistics and Cronbach's alpha was conducted to examine the internal reliability of the questionnaires. The questionnaire consisted of 34 communication strategy statements (for 16 types of CSs). The internal consistent reliability of the returned questionnaire, estimated by Cronbach's alpha, was .87, which was rather high and clearly demonstrated that all the items in the questionnaire could measure the students' use of CSs with enough consistency. Based on the comments from the researcher's supervisor, two Thai students in Southampton and 34 participants in this pilot study, the final version of self-report strategy questionnaire consisted of 33 communication strategy statements (see Appendix A) and was administered to the participants in the main study.

With respect to the speaking tasks, different tasks (i.e., topic description, cartoon description and definition formulation) were tried out with four students before and after the CS instruction. The recorded data were transcribed and coded by the researcher. Then the researcher counted the frequency of four students' use of CSs from pre- and post-speaking tasks. The findings revealed that the four subjects who participated in the CS instruction increased their use of CSs in the performance of post-speaking tasks. These different tasks could be used to elicit various types of CSs used by the students. The final speaking task battery used in the main study consisted of four tasks: an oral interview, a conversation task, a cartoon description task and a topic description task.

The retrospective verbal reports were also piloted with four participants to gain insights into students' use of CSs. The same four students were asked to review their performance on the tasks in both pre-and post-speaking tasks by listening to the audiotape recording during the tests. They recorded their thoughts, reasons for their choices of strategy use and their reactions to communication problems in Thai on another tape while listening to their performance in each task. Then, the data from retrospective verbal reports were translated, analysed and summarised by the researcher. The results showed that the subjects' success in oral communication derived from the awareness of their use of CSs and CS instruction. Overall the pilot of retrospective verbal reports gave useful information regarding how to use this tool properly in the main study.

After the lessons finished, the attitudinal questionnaire on the CS instruction was filled out by the four students. This attitudinal questionnaire consisted of six open-ended questions regarding the students' attitudes towards the CS instruction. The data from the attitudinal questionnaire were then translated, analysed and summarised by the researcher. The students suggested some useful comments about the CS instruction and the lessons they received. For example, they felt that the period of the CS instruction should be lengthened so that they could have more time to practise and develop their use of CSs.

In summary, this pilot study provided a preliminary picture of Thai students' perceptions and actual use of CSs. From this pilot study, the researcher in this study learned how to use the research tools and how to conduct her main study appropriately. The pilot study discussed here was limited in its sample size and the narrowness of its scope. The larger sample size of the subjects for the questionnaires and retrospective verbal protocols were needed in the main study. In addition, it seemed necessary to try out more speaking task types to encourage greater interaction and communication. Using more task types may facilitate the investigation of CS use since the types of strategy use may be dependent on different task types.

This section has presented the pilot study of the present study. The next section will address research instruments adopted in this study.

3.4 Research instruments

In this section, the research instruments adopted in this study are presented.
This study adopted four types of research instruments: speaking tasks, a self-report strategy questionnaire, an attitudinal questionnaire and retrospective verbal protocols. These instruments were developed to answer the research questions and research objectives of this study. A pilot study was conducted in November 2006 to see how well these instruments worked. Using the four types of instruments for collecting data strengthened the reliability and internal validity of this study. The following section describes the research instruments adopted in this study.

3.4.1 Questionnaires

In the area of second language research, a questionnaire is one of the most widely used instruments to gather data on "attitudes and opinions from a larger group of participants" (Mackey & Gass, 2005: 92). According to Brown (2001), questionnaires are "any written instruments that present respondents with a series of questions or statements to which they are to react either by writing out their answers or selecting them among existing answers" (p.6). This study employed two types of questionnaires: a self-report strategy questionnaire and an attitudinal questionnaire. The self-report

strategy questionnaire was developed to obtain information concerning the types of CSs commonly used by the students and students' perceptions of the usefulness of each CS. The attitudinal questionnaire was used to investigate students' attitudes towards strategy teaching and its usefulness. These written questionnaires were designed and developed to elicit quantitative and qualitative data from all participants.

3.4.1.1 Self-report strategy questionnaire

Research instruments typically used to collect data about students' use of strategies include observation, self-report strategy questionnaires, speaking tasks, interviews, diary journals and verbal reports. In the present study, the self-report strategy questionnaire was developed to investigate CSs commonly employed by the students and to explore students' perceptions of the usefulness of each CS. To design the self-report strategy questionnaire, the researcher studied CS research conducted by Dornyei (1995), Brett (2000), Lam (2004), Nakatani (2005) and Pornpibul (2005). These researchers successfully employed questionnaires to investigate CSs. This influenced the researcher in the present study to adopt the questionnaires as one of research instruments. McDonough and McDonough (1997) suggest "a good questionnaire is one which is relatively easy to answer, easy to record and evaluate, user friendly and unambiguous" (p.177). To investigate and measure students' attitudes and beliefs towards their use of CSs, the rating scale of self-report strategy for this study followed the Likert technique of scale construction. The Likert-type scale is the most widely used method of scale construction due to "its relative ease of construction, its use of fewer statistical assumptions and the fact that, in contrast to other scaling techniques, no judges are required" (Doukas, 1996: 190). Based on such arguments, the researcher of this study designed the self-report strategy questionnaire as a 33 item five point Likert-scale (for 16 CSs), on which students indicated the extent to which they used CSs by responding either (1) never (2) rarely (3) sometimes (4) often and (5) most often (see Appendix A). A score approaching 1 indicates that the student reports using the strategies almost none of the time, while a score approaching 5 indicates that the student reports using the strategies almost all the time. To measure students' attitudes and beliefs towards the use and usefulness of CSs, a list

of CS statements was developed by using data on CSs drawn from the speaking task pilot study in November 2006 as well as modified from the set of CSs suggested by Tarone (1977), Faerch & Kasper (1983), Bialystok (1990), Dornyei (1995) and Dornyei & Scott (1997) (see Chapter two). This process ensured that the questionnaire had theoretical support but also that the statements were relevant to the Thai engineering students.

However, one possible problem of using a questionnaire is that "responses may be inaccurate or incomplete because of the difficulty involved in describing learner-internal phenomena such as perceptions and attitudes, for example" (Mackey & Gass, 2005: 96). To solve such a problem and to check the validity of this questionnaire, the first version of the self-report strategy questionnaire was trialled with the researcher's supervisor. In doing so, the supervisor validated the questionnaire by matching the strategies to their descriptions. Then the researcher discussed with the supervisor and revised the descriptions. In addition, two Thai students in Southampton were asked to correct any mistakes or unclear statements and give comments on the Thai version of this questionnaire. Finally, some questions were eliminated and revised. The final self-report strategy questionnaire consisted of 33 communication strategy statements (see Appendix A) and was administered to the participants in the main study. To measure the reliability of returned questionnaires, Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient, a measure of internal consistency, was also used in this study. Cronbach's alpha analyses yielded reliability coefficients for the total scale of 0.78 before the CS instruction and 0.72 after the CS instruction. These results demonstrated that all the items in the questionnaire could measure the students' CS use with enough consistency (see Pallant, 2007: 98). An example of CS statements in the self-report strategy questionnaire is shown below in Figure 3.2.

Figure 3.2 An example of CS statements in the self-report strategy questionnaire

a) How useful YOU think each of them is:						b) How often YOU use each of them:				
1= Not useful	2= Least useful	3= Neutral	4= Useful	5= Most useful		1= Never	2= Rarely	3= Sometimes	4= Often	5= Most often
					1) If I do not know the English word for something, I describe it, e.g., "what it looks like", or "what you can use it for".					
					2) When I do not know how to express something in English, I use a word that has roughly the same meaning, e.g., "boat" instead of "ship".					

3.4.1.2 Attitudinal questionnaire

Attitudes involve "evaluative responses to a particular target (e.g., people, institution, situation). They are deeply embedded in the human mind and very often not the product of rational deliberation of facts…" (Dornyei, 2003: 8). In general, attitudinal questions are employed to discover what people think and "this is a broad category that concerns people's attitudes, opinions, beliefs, interests, and values" (Dornyei, 2003:8). In the current study, the attitudinal questionnaire was used to gain information concerning students' attitudes towards CS instruction and its usefulness. To develop the attitudinal questionnaire, the researcher studied the research of Dornyei (1995) involving the general attitudes towards the usefulness of the CS training. According to McDonough and McDonough (1997), many questionnaires use open-ended questions "to allow the respondents to feel that they can contribute more individual points of view and more detailed information than is elicited in closed questions" (p.176). The researcher, therefore, designed the attitudinal questionnaire as open-ended questions. Taking the precious "respondent-availability time" into account, six short-answer questions regarding students' attitudes towards the CS instruction were included in this attitudinal questionnaire (see Appendix E). In addition, two Thai students were asked to correct any mistakes or unclear statements and give comments on the Thai version of this attitudinal questionnaire. This questionnaire was completed by all 62 participants after they finished the CS instruction programme. An example of the attitudinal questionnaire is shown below in Figure 3.3.

Figure 3.3 An example of attitudinal questionnaire

Section I: The following questions are about your views of communication strategy instruction and its usefulness. Please write down your answers for each item.

1. How did you feel when you received the communication strategy instruction in class?
   _____
   _____
   _____

3.4.2 Speaking task battery

This section provides the rationale behind the design of four speaking tasks used in this study. According to Bygate *et al* (2001), a task is defined as "a contextualised, standardised activity which requires learners to use language, with emphasis on meaning, and with a connection to the real world, to attain an objective, and which will elicit data which can be used for purposes of measurement" (p.12). This definition of task reflects the research perspective on testing and assessment. As suggested by Bialystok (1990), a task is one type of elicitation method which is important in determining the strategies that will be observed (p. 52). Bialystok and Swain (1978) argue that research that is conducted in entirely "natural settings is more difficult to conduct and the results are often problematic to interpret" while "controlled laboratory study assures the researcher that the phenomenon under investigation will be addressed and the superfluous variance owing to extraneous contextual factors will be minimized, or at least capable of being documented and controlled" (Bialystok, 1990: 61). However, Poulisse (1990) argues that "finding a task which was in between controlled and natural tasks was not easy" (p.83). Therefore, the researcher must make a decision about alternative research designs and tasks available cautiously. According to Bialystok (1990), various elicitation methods have been used by previous research on communication strategies and "these methodological differences may influence a language learner's selection of a specific communication strategy" (p.50).

In the field of CS research, one distinguished example of using tasks is the study of the Nijmegen group when four different tasks were used to elicit Dutch learners'

compensatory strategies. Four tasks are: (1) description of photographs of unusual objects, such as a flyswat; (2) description of abstract geometrical drawings in L1 and L2; (3) retelling four one-minute long scripted stories; (4) a fifteen-minute interview (Poulisse, 1990: 214-215). From these tasks, it seems that Tasks 1 and 2 are more controlled tasks while Tasks 3 and 4 are more natural tasks. Apart from the Nijmegen group, Dornyei's (1995) study also employed tasks to elicit CSs. He employed three different tasks as a test to elicit CSs. Those tasks were a topic description task, a cartoon description task and a definition formulation task. The following are descriptions of the three speaking tasks proposed by Dornyei (1995). In a topic description, students are given an abstract topic (e.g., vegetarianism, marriage, peace) and are asked to talk about it for 3 minutes. For a cartoon description, students are asked to describe the story from a cartoon strip which consists of three to four pictures. In a definition formulation, students are given five Hungarian words concerning school or family life (e.g., child care benefit, school leaving certificate, specialization course) and are asked to provide a definition or an explanation in English (Dornyei, 1995: 69). From these tasks, the topic description and the cartoon description are likely to be more controlled tasks while the definition formulation is a natural one.

Taken together, the research on CSs mentioned above supports a focus on using tasks for data collection. Thus, the current study included speaking tasks as an instrument to elicit students' employment of CSs. In this study, 12 out of 62 students were asked to complete four speaking tasks before and after the CS instruction to determine whether they used taught CSs. These tasks were designed according to reviewed literature of previous CS studies (see Chapter two). In addition, one major criterion for selecting the tasks was how authentic they were in providing a situation for the learners to use different CSs to convey meaning and solve their oral communication problems. To make sure how well such tasks work, the researcher piloted these tasks in November 2006. According to Mackey and Gass (2005), it is essential to pilot whatever instrument (task) is chosen to ensure that chances for "the production of appropriate forms and feedback are being provided" (p.65). In the current study, the four different tasks are two interactive tasks including an oral interview and a conversation task and two speaking tasks including a cartoon description and a topic description task.

The first task, an oral interview, was found to be appropriate for eliciting CSs in previous studies (see Raupach, 1983; Poulisse, 1990; Weerarak, 2003; Nakatani, 2005). This task activated various types of CSs such as modification devices, L1-based strategy, L2-based strategy, non-linguistic strategy and avoidance strategy. The oral interview consisted of five structured questions in each topic. There were 3 topics all together: (1) King Mongkut's University of Technology North Bangkok, e.g., what is your campus like? or what do you like about KMUTNB?; (2) Free time, e.g., what are your hobbies? or what are your favourite sports?; and (3) Family, e.g., how many people are in your family? or who are they? (see Appendix G). These questions were designed to stimulate the conversation and enable the subjects to exchange their ideas and provide information.

The second task was describing a cartoon strip. The four pictures were about a street accident (see pictures in Appendix H). The participants were asked to describe the four pictures of cartoon strip to the researcher who was his/her interlocutor. The researcher decided to use the cartoon strip as one task because it was related to everyday life conversation. In addition, several researchers such as Dornyei (1995) and Rossiter (2003) employed this task and they found that learners used code switching, circumlocution, approximation, gesture and avoidance. This task might be useful in eliciting some taught CSs from the learners.

The third task was a topic description task. In this task, participants were given an abstract topic such as vegetarianism, marriage, or peace; and were asked to talk about it for 3 minutes (see Appendix I). The participants were told to try to explain the given topic in English to the researcher. These topics were selected because the process of describing the abstract topic might stimulate the subjects to make use of various kinds of CSs. This task was found useful in Dornyei's (1995) study to elicit some CSs such as circumlocution, pause fillers and hesitation devices and topic avoidance.

The fourth task was a conversation task. This task had proved to be workable in various studies (Haastrup and Phillipson, 1983; Weerarak, 2003; Lam, 2004; Nakatani, 2005; Pornpibul, 2005). The reasons the researcher designed this task were that: first, it may stimulate real communication exchange between speaker and his/her

interlocutor. Second, the learners may employ modification devices, L2-based strategies, and non-linguistic strategies in order to succeed in their communication. Therefore, the researcher designed a problem-solving task to elicit these types of CSs. To start this task, the situation was presented to a pair of participants in English by the researcher twice and then both participants discussed the given situation (see Appendix J). The sample situation is presented below.

Example of the conversation task:

Situation: You have decided to spend a day at the beach with your friends. Talk about the things you enjoy doing and the things you can do together. Then discuss how to spend the day together.

In summary, this combination of four tasks in which various degrees of control were established ranging from strictly controlling for feedback and contents to resembling natural conversation was fairly balanced. These tasks were important in eliciting the various kinds of CSs used by the students. The four tasks were administered in approximately within one hour. Each participant was tested individually and in pairs, which enabled the researcher to record all the data on video. The detailed procedures of employing these four speaking tasks in this study will be discussed in the section on research procedures.

3.4.3 Retrospective verbal protocols

The previous section discussed the speaking tasks adopted in the current study and their justification. This section discusses the justification for using retrospective verbal protocols to investigate students' intentions behind their CS use during communication tasks. This research method is supported by Ericsson and Simon (1993) that "such data is admissible, interesting, and usable" (cited in McDonough & McDonough, 1997:192). In addition, Cohen (1998) suggests that verbal reports provide "a more viable-perhaps the most viable-means of obtaining empirical evidence as to strategy use than do other means" (p. 34).

For the types of verbal reports, Ericsson and Simon (1987) divide two forms of verbal reports: concurrent verbal reports and retrospective reports. In concurrent verbal

reports, people verbalize the thoughts that come up in their mind as they are completing a task. In retrospective reports, people report thoughts regarding the task immediately after a task has been completed. Retrospective protocols may draw from short-and long-term memory depending on time between the end of the task and the beginning of the verbal reports. In addition, Faerch and Kasper (1987) proposed three types of verbal reports: simultaneous introspection, immediate retrospection and delayed retrospection. Simultaneous introspection is the think-aloud technique which is difficult to employ for eliciting speaking strategies. Immediate retrospection can be employed on the completion of a speaking task. For delayed retrospection, data are retrieved from long-term memory.

Cohen (1998) also suggests that verbal reports are one method of eliciting data about learners' language learning and language use strategies. He pointed out that verbal reports include data that reflect:

> (1) self-report: learners' descriptions of what they do, characterized by generalized statements about learning behaviour- e.g., "I tend to be a speed listener"
>
> (2) self-observation: the inspection of specific, not generalized, language behaviour, either introspectively, i.e., within 20 seconds of the mental event, or retrospectively- e.g., "What I just did was to skim through the incoming oral text as I listened, picking out key words and phrases"
>
> (3) self-revelation: "think-aloud", stream-of-consciousness disclosure of thought processes while the information is being attended to- e.g., "Who does the "they" refer to here?" (Cohen: 1998:34)

According to Cohen (1998), self-report data are frequently elicited from questionnaires which ask learners to describe how they learn and employ language (p.34). Self-observation data are drawn from "entries in journals or diaries which retrospectively describe some language learning or language use event" (Cohen, ibid: 34). Self-revelational or think-aloud data are retrieved when "the language learning or language use events are taking place, and are generated when the respondents are simply describing, say, their efforts to use the correct form of the subjunctive, and not attempting to analyze this effort" (Cohen, ibid: 35).

One advantage of using verbal report protocols is to reveal in detail what information is attended to while performing tasks to provide information that would otherwise be lost to the investigator (Ericsson and Simon, 1993: 1-2). In addition, verbal report is not viewed as a replacement for other means of research but rather as a complement to them (Cohen, 1998:39). However, as all research methods have their potential strengths and weaknesses, verbal reports have also been criticised widely. One potential problem can arise when respondents do a task in a target language and report on it in their L1 or another language (Cohen, ibid: 38). The problem is that the respondents are likely to be recording the information, which may in itself cause information to get lost due to limitations of memory capacity as well as other factors such as inaccuracy during the translation of thoughts (Cohen, ibid:38). To solve this problem, the researcher in this study decided to use immediate retrospection to elicit students' comments after the completion of each task.

In this study, the technique of immediate retrospection was employed to gain insights into students' use of CSs. This method also provided the researcher with useful information concerning how and why students chose specific CSs while communicating in English. Several researchers have used verbal reports to investigate a subset of CSs (e.g., Poulisse, Bongaerts & Kellerman, 1987; Poulisse, 1990; Lam, 2004; Nakatani, 2005; Pornpibul, 2005). In the present study, all students were asked to review their performance in pre- and post-speaking tasks by listening to and watching the video-recordings of their own task performance. They were instructed to stop the tape whenever they wanted to comment on their performance. They were asked to record their thoughts in Thai on another tape while listening to and watching their performance immediately after each task has been completed. They were also asked to report their reasons for their choices of strategy use and their reactions to communication problems. These retrospective verbal reports were transcribed and the researcher translated the retrospective data into English. Then, the data were categorised and analysed by the researcher and an inter-coder.

This section has presented the research instruments adopted in this study. The next section addresses categorisation of CSs in the present study.

3.5 Categorisation of communication strategies

The variety of CSs which is offered by various researchers seems to vary. As Bialystok (1990) suggests the variety of taxonomies proposed in the literature differ primarily in terminology and overall categorising principle rather than in the substance of the specific strategies. Based on the review in the literature chapter, many researchers have proposed a variety of taxonomies. For example, Tarone (1977) offered five main categories and seven subcategories of CSs. Faerch and Kasper (1983) proposed two possible categories of CSs for solving communication problems: avoidance strategies and achievement strategies. The Nijmegen project divided compensatory strategies into two main categories: conceptual and linguistic strategies. Bialystok (1990) classified two types: analysis-based and control-based strategies. Dornyei (1995) proposed CSs following traditional conceptualisations by dividing three major categories and twelve subcategories of CSs.

However, rather than relying on one classification scheme, the selection of target strategies in the current study was derived from several main taxonomies in the CS field. The researcher adopted CSs proposed by Tarone (1977), Faerch and Kasper (1983), Bialystok (1990), Dornyei (1995) and Dornyei and Scott (1997) as well as by using data on CSs drawn from the pilot study as a foundation for the taxonomy of CSs identified in the study. These taxonomies of CSs are well-researched and documented. In addition, the present study considers CSs as devices a learner uses to solve oral communication problems and to reach the communicative goals. In this way, the criteria of problematicity were employed to select specific CSs as a strategy framework in this study. Additional strategies were drawn from CSs reported by participants in the pilot study. These strategies might be used as a basis for coding and identifying CSs used among Thai learners. The proposed CSs investigated in the self-report strategy questionnaire of this study were classified into sixteen types.

3.5.1 Communication strategies adopted in the self-report strategy questionnaire

In the current study, 16 CSs selected from Tarone's (1977), Faerch and Kasper's (1983), Bialystok's (1990), Dornyei's (1995) and Dornyei and Scott's (1997) classification of CSs have been adopted and used in the self-report strategy questionnaire. The choice of these taxonomies was based on four basic principles for classifying CSs: avoidance or reduction strategies, achievement or compensatory strategies, modified interaction strategies, and stalling or time-gaining strategies. Table 3.3 presents the summary of definitions and examples of 16 CSs adopted in the self-report strategy questionnaire of the current study.

Table 3.3 Taxonomy of CSs adopted in the self-report strategy questionnaire

Taxonomy of CSs adopted in the self-report strategy questionnaire	
1. Topic avoidance:	- The learners avoid talking about particular topics because they may require vocabulary or structures which they do not know.
2. Message abandonment:	- The learners begin to talk about a concept but are unable to continue and stop in mid-utterance.
3. Circumlocution:	- The learners describe the characteristics or elements of the object or action instead of using the appropriate target language item or structure.
4. Approximation:	- The learners use a single target language vocabulary item or structure, which is not correct, but which shares enough semantic features in common with the desired item to satisfy the speaker.
5. Word coinage:	- The learners create a nonexisting L2 word based on a supposed rule (e.g., vegetarianist for vegetarian).
6. Use of all-purpose words:	- The learners extend a general, empty lexical item to contexts where specific words are lacking (e.g., the overuse of thing or stuff).
7. Appeal for help:	- The learners ask for aid from the interlocutor either directly (e.g., What do you call…?) or indirectly (e.g., rising intonation, pause, eye contact, puzzled expression.).
8. Literal translation:	- The learners translate literally a lexical item, idiom, compound word, or structure from L1 to L2.
9. Code switching:	- The learners use an L1 word with L1 pronunciation or an L3 word with L3 pronunciation while speaking in L2.
10. Foreignizing:	- The learners use an L1 word by adjusting it to L2 phonology (i.e., with L2 pronunciation) and/or morphology (e.g., adding to it an L2 suffix).
11. Non-linguistic strategy:	- The learners use mime, gesture, facial expression, or sound imitation.

Taxonomy of CSs adopted in the self-report strategy questionnaire	
12. Self-repair:	- The learners make self-initiated corrections in their own speech.
13. Confirmation check:	- The learners repeat the words that the interlocutor has said to confirm what they heard is correct or not.
14. Comprehension check:	- The learners ask the questions to check whether the interlocutor understands what they said or not.
15. Clarification request:	- The learners request the explanation of an unfamiliar meaning structure. (e.g., Again, please! or Pardon?)
16. Pause fillers and hesitation devices:	- The learners use fillers or hesitation devices to fill pauses and to gain time to think (e.g., Well, now let's see, uh, as a matter of fact).

Firstly, two avoidance or reduction strategies which were topic avoidance and message abandonment were investigated in the self-report strategy questionnaire in this study. Generally, the avoidance or reduction strategies are used by the learner to avoid engaging in communication when he/she encounters problems in the target language. As pointed out by Faerch and Kasper (ibid.), the choice of strategy depends not only on the underlying behaviour of the learner (avoidance/achievement), but also to the nature of the problem to be solved (p.37). If the learner wants to move away from communication problems in the target language, he/she may adopt these strategies. This is true with Thai learners of English. Based on previous CS research in Thailand, Thai learners reported using these strategies when they did not know how to express their ideas in English for something (e.g., Wannaruk, 2002; Weerarak, 2003; Pornpibul, 2005). Due to the above-mentioned reasons, the current study, therefore, investigated the use of topic avoidance and message abandonment among Thai learners of English. In this study, "topic avoidance" is described as: the learners avoid talking about particular topics because they may require vocabulary or structures which they do not know. The second strategy, "message abandonment" is defined as: the learners begin to talk about a concept but are unable to continue and stop in mid-utterance.

Secondly, ten major types of achievement or compensatory strategies were adopted and investigated in the self-report strategy questionnaire in the current study. These strategies were circumlocution, approximation, use of all-purpose words, word coinage, non-linguistic strategy, literal translation, foreignizing, code switching, appeal for help and self-repair. According to Faerch and Kasper (ibid.), the learner

uses an achievement strategy when he/she tries to solve communication problems by expanding his/her communicative resources rather than by reducing his/her communicative goal (p.45). That is, the achievement or compensatory strategies provide alternative plans for the learners to carry out their original communicative goal by manipulating available language, therefore compensating in some way for their linguistic deficiencies (Dornyei, 1995: 57). Thus, CS researchers included these achievement or compensatory strategies in the taxonomy they investigated in their studies (e.g., Dornyei, 1995; Salamone & Marsal, 1997; Lam, 2004; Wen, 2004; Nakatani, 2005). Based on the previous CS studies, the current study investigated the achievement or compensatory strategies used by Thai learners of English when they encountered communication problems in English. In this study, "circumlocution" is explained as "describing the characteristics or elements of the object or action instead of using the appropriate target language item or structure". Approximation is described as: using a single target language vocabulary item or structure, which is not correct, but which shares enough semantic features in common with the desired item to satisfy the speaker. Use of all-purpose words is explained as: extending a general, empty lexical item to contexts where specific words are lacking (e.g., the overuse of thing or stuff). Word coinage is defined as: creating a nonexisting L2 word based on a supposed rule (e.g., vegetarianist for vegetarian). A non-linguistic strategy is applied when the learners use mime, gesture, facial expression, or sound imitation. Literal translation is described as: the learners translate literally a lexical item, idiom, compound word, or structure from L1 to L2. Foreignizing is explained as: using an L1 word by adjusting it to L2 phonology (i.e., with L2 pronunciation) and/or morphology (e.g., adding to it an L2 suffix). Code switching is used when the learners use an L1 word with L1 pronunciation or an L3 word with L3 pronunciation while speaking in L2. Appeal for help is explained as: asking for aid from the interlocutor either directly (e.g., what do you call…?) or indirectly (e.g., rising intonation, pause, eye contact, puzzled expression.). Last of all, self-repair is described as: the learners make self-initiated corrections in their own speech.

Thirdly, three modified interaction strategies which were confirmation check, comprehension check and clarification request were also examined and included in this study. These strategies are the process that the learner attempts to signal for

negotiation to overcome communication difficulties (Nakatani, 2005: 81). Dornyei and Scott (1997) also include confirmation check (asking for confirmation), comprehension check and clarification request (asking for clarification) as part of interactional strategies in their taxonomy. Moreover, Kasper and Kellerman (1997) mention the importance of interactional modification when they suggest:

> Interactional modification, or conversational adjustments, such as confirmation checks, comprehension checks and clarification requests operate on input which is too far ahead of the learner's current interlanguage competence and size it down to what the learner can manage. Since "negotiation of meaning" is a joint enterprise between the learner and her interlocutor(s), the learner exerts a fair amount of control over just how much modification of the original input is needed in order to comprehend the interlocutor's contribution (Kasper & Kellerman, 1997:5-6).

This suggestion, therefore, supports the view that interactional modification is used for creating negotiation of meaning between the learner and the interlocutor. Taking the above-mentioned suggestions into account, this study examined three types of modified interaction strategies: confirmation check, comprehension check and clarification request. Confirmation check is explained as: the learners repeat the words that the interlocutor has said to confirm what they heard is correct or not. Comprehension check is described as: the learners ask the questions to check whether the interlocutor understands what they said or not. Clarification request is explained as: the learners request the explanation of an unfamiliar meaning structure (e.g., Again, please! or Pardon?).

Lastly, stalling or time-gaining strategies (pause fillers and hesitation devices) were explored in the present study. Dornyei (1995) suggests including this group of strategies into the taxonomy of CSs. This is because these strategies are not "actually used to compensate for linguistic deficiencies but rather to gain time and keep the conversation channel open at times of difficulty" (Dornyei, ibid: 57). Based on Dornyei's remarks, CS researchers tended to investigate these stalling or time gaining strategies in their studies (e.g., Dornyei, 1995; Brett, 2000; Lam, 2004; Nakatani, 2005; Le, 2006). This study, therefore, investigated whether Thai learners used pause fillers

and hesitation devices when they needed more time to think or maintain their conversation with the interlocutor.

This section has discussed the taxonomy of CSs adopted in the self-report strategy questionnaire and explained the reasons for adoption of all these CSs in the current study. The next section discusses CSs taught in the 12-week CS instruction programme and the reasons for the selection of the taught CSs.

3.5.2 Communication strategies taught in the present study

In this study, 9 of 16 CSs which were in four basic principles for classifying CSs (see section 3.5.1) were introduced and taught to the students. These CSs were topic avoidance, circumlocution, approximation, appeal for help, self-repair, confirmation check, comprehension check, clarification request and pause fillers and hesitation devices. According to many researchers (e.g., Faerch & Kasper, 1986; Dornyei, 1995; Rossiter, 2003; Lam, 2004; Wen, 2004; Nakatani, 2005; Le, 2006), these CSs are very useful in helping the learners cope with their communication difficulties.
Table 3.4 shows the summary of definitions and examples of 9 CSs taught in the current study.

Table 3.4: Taxonomy of CSs taught in the CS instruction programme

Taxonomy of CSs adopted in the self-report strategy questionnaire	
1. Topic avoidance:	- The learners avoid talking about particular topics because they may require vocabulary or structures which they do not know.
2. Circumlocution:	- The learners describe the characteristics or elements of the object or action instead of using the appropriate target language item or structure.
3. Approximation:	- The learners use a single target language vocabulary item or structure, which is not correct, but which shares enough semantic features in common with the desired item to satisfy the speaker.
4. Appeal for help:	- The learners ask for aid from the interlocutor either directly (e.g., What do you call…?) or indirectly (e.g., rising intonation, pause, eye contact, puzzled expression).
5. Pause fillers and hesitation devices:	- The learners use fillers or hesitation devices to fill pauses and to gain time to think (e.g., Well, now let's see, uh, as a matter of fact).

Taxonomy of CSs adopted in the self-report strategy questionnaire	
6. Confirmation check:	- The learners repeat the words that the interlocutor has said to confirm what they heard is correct or not.
7. Comprehension check:	- The learners ask the questions to check whether the interlocutor understands what they said or not.
8. Clarification request:	- The learners request the explanation of an unfamiliar meaning structure. (e.g., Again, please! or Pardon?)
9. Self-repair:	- The learners make self-initiated corrections in their own speech.

In the avoidance or reduction strategy, topic avoidance is considered to be useful for the learner in case he/she faces communication problems while speaking English. According to Oxford (1990), the merit of this strategy is that it emotionally protects the learner as well as enables him/her to speak about other things later in the conversation. In addition, Dornyei (1995) also supports teaching this strategy to the learners because it can improve the learners' fluency, provide them with a sense of security in the L2 and enable them to try and remain in the conversation and achieve their communication goal (p.80). Therefore, the learners should be ready to use this strategy in case they face communication difficulties. However, another avoidance strategy, message abandonment, was not taught in this study because using this strategy might make the learners keep complete silence, give up talking in the mid-utterance or even be misunderstood by the interlocutor. With the above-mentioned reasons, this study examined and taught only topic avoidance to the learners in the CS instruction.

Additionally, four achievement or compensatory strategies which were circumlocution, approximation, appeal for help and self-repair were also included in the CS instruction of the current study. The learner uses achievement strategies when he/she attempts to solve communication problems by expanding his/her communicative resources without reducing his/her communicative goal (Faerch & Kasper, 1983: 45). Circumlocution, for example, is considered as the most important achievement strategy and a major component of strategic competence in Canale and Swain's (1980) communicative competence. Approximation is also useful and desirable strategy because it encourages learners to employ a term that expresses the meaning of the target word as closely as possible. Moreover, appeal for help becomes helpful when the learner wants to seek the interlocutor's help in solving communication problems.

Finally, self-repair is useful because learners can use this strategy to correct mistakes immediately when they realise the problem in their own speech. For all these reasons, this study, thus, included these four achievement strategies in the CS instruction. However, the other 6 strategies in the achievement strategies (i.e., use of all-purpose words, word coinage, non-linguistic strategy, literal translation, foreignizing, code switching) were not taught in this study because they were less useful for Thai learners of English. For example, code switching and foreignizing may make the learners' speech too foreign and non-native like. This may confuse the interlocutor from different language backgrounds. Literal translation is not applicable for Thai learners because the Thai language has different spelling and structures from English. In addition, word coinage may confuse the interlocutor because the learner may use a wrong or inappropriate word. Moreover, non-linguistic strategy and use of all-purpose words were not taught in the CS instruction because Thai learners may already have these strategies in their repertoire.

Moreover, three modified interaction strategies which were confirmation check, comprehension check and clarification request were taught in the current study. As mentioned in section 3.5.1, these strategies are very useful for creating negotiation of meaning between the learner and the interlocutor. In using these strategies, the learner signals to the interlocutor that he/she has a communication problem and tries to seek help to continue their talk.

Finally, pause fillers and hesitation devices were introduced and taught to Thai learners in the present study. These strategies are useful since the learner can use them to fill pauses, gain time to think and maintain the conversation when he/she experiences communication problems. As pointed out by Dornyei and Thurrell (1991),

> The knowledge and confident use of fillers are a crucial part of learners 'strategic competence, since these invaluable delaying or hesitation devices can be used to carry out the conversation at times of difficulty, when language learners would otherwise end up feeling more and more desperate and would typically grind to halt (p.19).

Based on the above-mentioned suggestions, this study, therefore, adopted and taught pause fillers and hesitation devices in the CS instruction.

This section has discussed the adaptation and rationale behind selection of CSs used in this study. The next section presents data collection procedures of the present study.

3.6 Data collection procedures of the main study

In this study, data were collected over one semester (12 weeks) from June to October 2007 at King Mongkut's University of Technology North Bangkok (KMUTNB), Thailand. This section presents the baseline data collection before the CS instruction, description of the communication strategy (CS) instruction programme and data collection after the CS instruction. The data collection schedule is shown in Figure 3.4.

Figure 3.4 Data collection schedule from June to October 2007

Month	June				July				August				September				October			
week	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4
Preparation																				
Pre-speaking tasks, Verbal reports and Strategy questionnaire																				
CS instruction																				
Post-speaking tasks, Verbal reports, Strategy questionnaire and Attitudinal questionnaire																				

3.6.1 Baseline data collection

Baseline data were collected from the self-report strategy questionnaire, pre-speaking tasks and retrospective verbal reports (i.e., before the CS instruction session started). Regarding the self-report strategy questionnaire, all 62 students were asked to fill out the questionnaire before the CS instruction. They were informed that this questionnaire related to communication strategies they may or may not use while speaking English. The objectives of data collection from the self-report strategy

questionnaire were to explore whether Thai students used any communication strategies (CSs) and gain information concerning students' attitudes towards the usefulness of CSs (see Appendix A). Then the researcher randomly selected twelve students to complete four speaking tasks and retrospective verbal reports before and after the CS instruction. The objective of gathering data from the pre-speaking tasks and retrospective verbal reports was to explore types of CSs students used before they received the CS instruction and to investigate students' intentions behind their use of CSs during speaking tasks. This study focused on the students' strategic performance so audio-recording was employed to get data in more detail when the students worked individually and in pairs. Moreover, video-recording was also used to capture their use of non-verbal strategies during task performance and retrospective verbal reports. The data in the pre-speaking tasks and retrospective verbal reports were collected in a small meeting room at the Faculty of Applied Arts and were collected during non-classroom hours because of constraints on class time. Before the speaking tasks started, the students were informed that this was a voluntary endeavour so they were free to refuse to participate in this study anytime they felt uncomfortable. Regarding retrospective verbal reports, the students were asked to review their performance on the tasks by watching the video-recordings of their own task performance. The objective of data collection from retrospective verbal reports before the CS instruction was to gain insights into students' communication problems while performing the tasks. They were instructed to stop the tape whenever they wanted to comment on their performance. They were asked to record their thoughts in Thai on another tape while watching their performance immediately after each task had been completed.

In this section, the baseline data collection from the self-report strategy questionnaire, pre-speaking tasks and retrospective verbal reports before the CS instruction session has been described. In the next section, the description of the communication strategy (CS) instruction programme is explained.

3.6.2 Description of the communication strategy instruction programme

The intervention was conducted over 12 weeks, consisting of staged strategy instruction based on the cycle proposed by Dornyei and Thurrell (1992).

This study focused on the teaching of CSs to raise students' awareness, offer practice activities and encourage students to take risks and use CSs. The researcher designed twelve lessons in which the following nine communication strategies were taught to the students.

To practise the nine taught CSs, the strategy instruction programme lasted for 12 weeks. For each lesson, the explicit strategy instruction lasted for 60 minutes. Students were encouraged to work in pairs or in groups. They were informed of the rationale and the value of CS instruction. They were given a list of names and examples of the nine target strategies for models. They were also given opportunities to use the nine strategies and guided to evaluate strategy use at the end of the lesson. Table 3.5 summarises the objectives of the CS instruction lessons.

Table 3.5: Summary of the objectives of the CS instruction lessons

Lesson	Objectives
Lesson 1 (19/06/ 2007)	- Introduce the concept of CSs - Discuss advantages and disadvantages of CSs - Provide training in the use of circumlocution
Lesson 2 (26/06/2007)	- Provide training in the use of approximation
Lesson 3 (03/07/2007)	- Provide training in the use of appeal for help
Lesson 4 (10/07/2007)	- Provide training in the use of clarification request
Lesson 5 (17/07/2007)	- Provide training in the use of pause fillers and hesitation devices
Lesson 6 (31/07/2007)	- Provide training in the use of topic avoidance
Lesson 7 (07/08/2007)	- Provide training in the use of comprehension check
Lesson 8 (14/08/2007)	- Provide training in the use of confirmation check
Lesson 9 (21/08/2007)	- Provide training in the use of self-repair
Lesson 10 (28/08/2007)	- Review and provide training in the use of circumlocution, approximation, appeal for help, clarification request, pause fillers and hesitation devices, topic avoidance, comprehension check, confirmation check and self-repair
Lesson 11 (04/09/2007)	- Review and provide training in the use of circumlocution, approximation, appeal for help, clarification request, pause fillers and hesitation devices, topic avoidance, comprehension check, confirmation check and self-repair
Lesson 12 (11/09/2007)	- Review and provide training in the use of circumlocution, approximation, appeal for help, clarification request, pause fillers and hesitation devices, topic avoidance, comprehension check, confirmation check and self-repair

As shown in Table 3.5, introduction to the concept of CSs and discussion about advantages and disadvantages of CSs were designed to appear in the first lesson (see Appendix K). The next eight lessons emphasised the teaching of approximation, appeal for help, topic avoidance, pause fillers and hesitation devices, clarification request, comprehension check, confirmation check and self-repair. The last three lessons were devoted to the consolidation of all CS instruction sessions in which students were encouraged to employ all taught CSs. They were free to select the words and expressions they have learned to express their ideas in English. Full details of strategy training activities and lesson plans used in this study are given in Appendix K. For teaching procedures, each CS was taught according to the following procedures, based on six types of communication strategy teaching procedures described by Dornyei (1995: 63-64):

1) Raising learner awareness about the nature and communicative potential of CSs: Students were made conscious of CSs already in their repertoire. They discussed with the researcher appropriate situations where these CSs could be useful and actually work for them.

2) Encouraging students to be willing to take risks and use CSs: Students had the taxonomy, its definition and usefulness explained to them. Handouts that contained useful phrases for the use of CSs were given to the students.

3) Providing L2 models of the use of certain CSs: Students looked over and comprehended the sample dialogue.

4) Highlighting cross-cultural differences in CS use: Students discussed differences in the frequent use of CSs in students' L1 and L2 with the researcher and their classmates.

5) Teaching CSs directly: Students were presented with some useful vocabulary and sentence structures for CSs.

6) Providing opportunities for practice in strategy use: Students were asked to do some tasks and activities to practise using the strategy. The students could use the information from handouts for reference.

Full details of communication strategy teaching procedures used in this study are given in Appendix K.

To encourage students to employ these strategies, students should learn through activities, not through only lectures so that they could experience employing these strategies. In the present study, the 12-week CS instruction programme included a number of strategy training activities suggested by Dornyei and Thurrell (1992) and Bygate (1987) and supplemented with awareness-raising discussions and feedback. These activities were adapted and modified to suit the time frame of the study (see Appendix K).

The activities concerning circumlocution and approximation involved the practice of various activities that students had to extend definitions of English words as well as to describe objects or abstract notions. To learn how to use circumlocution, the activities involved comparing dictionary definitions and analysing the structure of effective definitions. Then, students were given various tasks to describe objects and abstract notions and to extend definitions using long relative clauses. In order to learn to use approximation, students were taught to use an alternative word or synonym to express the meaning of the target word as closely as possible. Students also practised going through the dialogue replacing nouns or verbs with approximation and performing the dialogue using approximation.

The activities focusing on appeal for help, confirmation check, comprehension check and clarification request involved the employment of various tasks in which students practised asking for the cooperation of their interlocutor. For example, in using appeal for help, students were given pair work activities. They took turn to ask questions and ask for help by pretending not to remember certain words. For confirmation check, students were paired up to prepare a new version of the dialogue in which one speaker did not understand things, forcing the other speaker to do some re-explanation. In order to learn how to use comprehension check, students inserted check questions into the dialogue. Some responses were negative so that the speaker had to repeat or simplify what he/she has said. For clarification request, students were given pair and group activities. They played game “Chain misunderstanding” in which students sat in a circle and pretended not to understand what the interlocutor said to them. Then they asked the interlocutor to repeat his/her words.

Regarding topic avoidance, students were taught to go off the point, evade answers, and steer the conversation to a given topic. Moreover, the training of the use of pause fillers and hesitation devices started with collecting and classifying fillers. Then, students practised inserting fillers into the dialogues and lengthening dialogues by adding fillers and hesitation devices as much as possible. For self-repair, students listened to their partner and wrote down some mistakes their partner made. The students made a list of their very common mistakes and corrected the mistakes by themselves.

This section has presented the description of the CS instruction programme in this study. In the next section, data collection after the 12-week CS instruction is addressed.

3.6.3 Data collection after the 12-week communication strategy instruction

After receiving the 12-week CS instruction, data were collected from the self-report strategy questionnaire, an attitudinal questionnaire, post-speaking tasks and retrospective verbal reports. Regarding the self-report strategy questionnaire, the same group of 62 students was asked to fill out a self-report strategy questionnaire and an attitudinal questionnaire at the end of the last CS instruction session. The objective of data collection from the self-report strategy questionnaire after the CS instruction was to explore whether the teaching of specific communication strategies alter Thai students' self-perceived frequency use and usefulness of communication strategies. The objective of the data collection from the attitudinal questionnaire was to gain information concerning students' attitudes towards communication strategy (CS) instruction and its usefulness.

For the post-speaking tasks, the same 12 students were asked to complete the same four speaking tasks and retrospective verbal reports again after they received the 12-week CS instruction. The audio and video recordings were still used to get data when students worked individually and in pairs. For the retrospective verbal reports, the students were informed that this time they could report their comments and reasons for the choices of strategy use and their reactions to communication problems. They

would stop the tape whenever they wanted to comment on their performance. They recorded their thoughts in Thai on another tape while watching their performance soon after each task has been completed.

This section has presented data collection procedures: the baseline data collection before the CS instruction, description of the communication strategy (CS) instruction programme and data collection after the CS instruction. The next section presents the analysis of the data in the current study.

3.7 Data analysis

Since both quantitative and qualitative data were collected in the present study. The following sections discuss the methods to analyse the data gathered from each research instrument in this study.

3.7.1 Procedures for the analysis of the self-report strategy questionnaire

In this study, the self-report strategy questionnaire was used to investigate CSs commonly employed by students and to explore students' perceptions of the usefulness of each communication strategy before and after the CS instruction. Data gathered from the self-report strategy questionnaire were analysed to find out students' reported use and usefulness of CSs. To calculate the score of the self-report strategy questionnaire, the answers of each of the items, 1 to 5, were added up for each participant. Then the total scores for each participant were calculated by using SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) Version 15. Means and standard deviations were computed to determine the participants' reports of overall strategy use and its usefulness. Then, the Cronbach internal consistency coefficients for the items in the self-report questionnaire were computed to find out whether all the items in the questionnaire could measure the students' communication strategy use with enough consistency (see Pallant, 2007: 98). A paired-samples t-test was computed to find out whether there were significant differences in the means of strategy use and usefulness across the entire self-report strategy questionnaire. The paired-samples t-test is used when there is only one group of participants and the researcher collects data from

these participants on two different occasions (see Pallant, ibid: 236). In order to gauge the relationship between students' reports of use and usefulness of CSs, Pearson Product-Moment procedures were performed to calculate correlation coefficients of these two variables. Finally, Fisher's z-test was used to compare the difference of correlation coefficients in students' reports of use and usefulness of CSs in the pre-and post-CS instruction.

3.7.2 Procedures for the analysis of the speaking tasks

In this study, four speaking tasks were used as an instrument to elicit students' actual employment of CSs. Twelve out of sixty-two students were asked to complete four speaking tasks before and after the CS instruction to determine whether they used taught CSs.

To start with, the recorded data elicited from four different speaking tasks were transcribed by the researcher. Then, the researcher reread the transcripts and her notes several times to identify categories from what the students used while performing each task. To code and categorise CSs used by the students in this study, the researcher followed typological analysis suggested by LeCompte and Preissle (1993) and Hatch (2002). According to Lecompte and Preissle (ibid.), typological analysis "involves dividing everything observed into groups or categories on the basis of some canon for disagreeing the whole phenomenon under study. Such typologies may be devised from a theoretical framework or set of propositions or from common-sense or mundane perceptions of reality" (p.257). Hatch (ibid.) further explained that "Data analysis starts by dividing the overall data set into categories or groups based on predetermined typologies. Typologies are generated from theory, common sense and/or research objectives, and initial data processing happens within those typological groupings" (p.152). That is, in typological analysis, an early step is to read through the data set and divide it into elements based on predetermined categories (Hatch, ibid: 152). To analyse and identify what communication strategies the students used in the current study, the researcher, therefore, followed the following nine steps of basic typological analysis suggested by Hatch (ibid.).

1. Identify typologies to be analysed
2. Read the data, marking entries related to your typologies
3. Read entries by typology, recording the main ideas in entries on a summary sheet
4. Look for patterns, relationships, themes within typologies
5. Read data, coding entries according to patterns identified and keeping a record of what entries go with which elements of your patterns
6. Decide if your patterns are supported by the data, and search the data for nonexamples of your patterns
7. Look for relationships among the patterns identified
8. Write your patterns as one-sentence generalisations
9. Select data excerpts that support your generalisations. (p.153)

In this study, the students' strategic performance was the focus of the research. Therefore, the data from the speaking tasks were analysed to identify what CSs the students used , based on the CSs taxonomies suggested by Tarone (1977), Faerch and Kasper (1983), Bialystok (1990), Dornyei (1995) and Dornyei and Scott (1997). Full details of justification for the selection of CSs adopted in this study are given in section 3.5.

To identify and code CSs in the speaking tasks, the number of CSs was not restricted to the number of utterances. That is, many utterances may contain just one strategy and/or one utterance may contain examples of many strategies. The identification and evaluation of students' performance of the speaking tasks were conducted by the researcher. An example of recorded data from speaking tasks coded at a strategy type (approximation) is shown below in Figure 3.5.

Figure 3.5 An example of recorded data from speaking tasks coded at a strategy type

Example 1 (Task 2: Cartoon Description)

Video clip

Researcher: Let's talk about the cartoon picture or cartoon strip.
J: Ok. First picture…um…I see he drives the bicycle is fast very fast.
(**Approximation** / Student J used an alternative lexical term *"drive"* to refer to the word *"ride"*.)

After the researcher finished identifying and coding all recorded data from the speaking tasks, the inter-coder reliability in coding speaking tasks was rechecked to

increase the reliability of the coding procedure. The researcher asked one Thai EFL instructor with a PhD in Applied Linguistics to code 20% of transcribed data. The researcher first explained the coding scheme to that instructor. Then the researcher compared her coding with that of the instructor. To calculate the inter-coder reliability coefficients, the researcher used the formula suggested by Miles and Huberman (1994). In general, inter-coder reliability was calculated to find out the extent to which two or more coders agreed on the coding of content variables. In this study, the researcher found that this formula is suitable for the present study because many previous researchers have used it and found it reliable (e.g., Young, 1997; Goh, 2002). The formula for calculating the inter-coder reliability suggested by Miles and Huberman (1994: 64) is shown below:

Inter-coder reliability coefficient:

$$\text{Reliability} = \frac{\text{Number of agreement}}{\text{Total number of agreements+ disagreements}}$$

According to Miles and Huberman (ibid.), the inter-coder agreements should be from 0.70 to 0.90, depending on the size and range of the coding scheme (p.64). Full details of the inter-coder reliability coefficients for the speaking tasks are presented in section 4.3.1.

Finally, frequency counts were also used to support the qualitative analysis of the speaking tasks. In calculating the frequency counts, the researcher adopted and modified the formula used in Lam's (2004) study. The frequency counts of CS use is for every 100 words produced by the students in the speaking tasks. The frequency of CS use of a particular type is calculated as follows.

$$F \text{ (frequency per 100 words)} = \frac{T \times 100}{W} = \text{Total } \frac{\text{raw frequency of CS use (T)} \times 100}{\text{Total no. of words}}$$

3.7.3 Procedures for the analysis of retrospective verbal protocols

To gain the in-depth data on students' CS use, the retrospective verbal reports were conducted immediately after each speaking task with twelve participants. The data from the retrospective verbal reports were used to understand the students' reasons for their strategy use as well as their personal reactions to the strategy use. To start with, the researcher transcribed the recorded data from retrospective verbal reports and translated them into English. The data were documented by using text-processing software, Microsoft Word. Then, the researcher reread the transcripts and her notes several times to identify and code categories from what students reported the reasons and personal reactions for their strategy use. For example, one student said "In the beginning, I wanted to say "truck" but I was unsure whether it is a truck or a bulldozer. So I said "big car" because it was like a big pick-up." This was coded as follows:

Figure 3.6 An example of recorded data from retrospective verbal reports coded at a strategy type

Strategy	Retrospective verbal reports
Approximation	-"In the beginning, I wanted to say "truck" but I was unsure whether it is a truck or a bulldozer. So I said "big car" because it was like a big pick-up." (N:T2)

To enhance inter-coder reliability in coding retrospective verbal data, another Thai EFL instructor with PhD in Applied Linguistics was invited to code 20% of the data independently. To calculate the inter-coder reliability coefficients, the researcher used the formula suggested by Miles and Huberman (1994). Full details of inter-coder reliability are presented in sections 3.7.2 and 4.4.1.

3.7.4 Procedures for the analysis of attitudinal questionnaire

To investigate the students' attitudes towards the teaching of nine specific communication strategies and its usefulness, the data from attitudinal questionnaire were analysed and summarised by the researcher. The attitudinal questionnaire consisted of six open-ended questions regarding the students' perceptions of the usefulness of CS instruction. To start with, the data were documented by using text-

processing software, Microsoft Word. Then, the researcher translated the participants' responses into English. Next, the information concerning students' attitudes towards CS instruction and its usefulness was processed by means of content analysis. The researcher followed two broad phases of content analysis suggested by Dornyei (2003): "(1) Taking each person's response in turn and marking in them any distinct content elements, substantive statements, or key points; (2) Based on the ideas and concepts highlighted in the texts, forming broader categories to describe the content of the response in a way that allows for comparisons with other responses" (p.117).

3.8 Summary of Chapter three

This chapter has discussed the methodological issues involved in this study. The study is based on a postpositivist approach to examine the impact of teaching CSs on Thai students' speaking performance and perceptions. The choice of an interventionist study was justified by the objectives and research questions of this study. This approach not only enabled the researcher to introduce a new teaching method of speaking class but also revealed both quantitative and qualitative changes in the students' strategic behaviour. Sixty-two engineering students at King Mongkut's University of Technology North Bangkok participated and attended the 12-week CS instruction in the current study. Twelve among them completed the four speaking tasks and retrospective verbal protocols. The pilot study conducted in November 2006 has been summarised and discussed in the chapter. Then the research instruments which were a self-report strategy questionnaire, four speaking tasks, retrospective verbal protocols and an attitudinal questionnaire have been addressed. In addition, the categorisation of CSs used in the self-report strategy questionnaire and taught in the CS instruction programme has been justified in detail. Finally, the data collection procedures have been explained, followed by the discussion of the methods to analyse the collected data. In the next chapter, the analysis and findings of this study will be presented and discussed.

CHAPTER FOUR
ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings regarding the effects of the CS instruction on students' use of CSs. The organisation of the findings is in accordance with four research instruments used in this study. Because of the chapter's complexity and size, it has been divided into six sections to aid the reader. In section 4.2, results from a self-report strategy questionnaire on the use and usefulness of CSs are analysed and reported to answer research question 1: Does the teaching of specific communication strategies alter Thai students' reports of the use and usefulness of communication strategies? In section 4.3, findings from four speaking tasks are analysed and reported to answer research question 2: Does the teaching of specific communication strategies lead to greater use of the taught communication strategies? If yes, how do the students use these taught communication strategies while performing the speaking tasks? In section 4.4, an analysis of retrospective verbal reports is presented to answer research question 3: Can the students identify the types of communication strategies they use in the speaking tasks? If yes, how do they explain their reasons for strategy use in the retrospective verbal reports? In section 4.5, findings from an attitudinal questionnaire on communication strategy (CS) instruction and its usefulness are reported to answer research question 4: What are Thai students' attitudes towards the teaching of communication strategies? Section 4.6 brings together all the key findings from sections 4.2 to 4.5 in order to answer the aforementioned research questions. Finally, section 4.7 concludes the chapter.

Section 4.2

Results of the self-report strategy questionnaire on the use and usefulness of communication strategies

4.2 Results of the self-report strategy questionnaire on the use and usefulness of communication strategies

In this section, the focus is on self-report strategy questionnaire findings on CS use and usefulness reported by students. To examine whether communication strategy (CS) instruction would alter students' reports of the use and usefulness of CSs, a strategy questionnaire was administered to 62 students before and after the CS instruction. The questionnaire contained 33 item five point Likert-scale (for 16 CSs). All the 33 strategy items gauged students' reports of the use of CSs and assessed the perceived usefulness of CSs. Students reported their use of each strategy on a scale from 'never'(1) to 'most often' (5) and rated the usefulness of each strategy from 'not useful' (1) to 'most useful' (5) (see Appendix A). The data obtained from the questionnaire were then analysed using descriptive statistical procedures as well as t-tests to examine whether significant differences existed between pre- and post-CS mean ratings with respect to reported CS use and usefulness. In examining students' reports of the use and usefulness of CSs on the self-report strategy questionnaire, the researcher identified and adopted three types of usage as suggested by Oxford and Burry-Sock (1995: 2) for general language learning strategy usage: high (mean of 3.5 or higher), medium (mean of 2.5-3.4), and low (mean of 2.4 or lower). These usage levels provided a standard to make comparisons between the pre- and post-CS mean ratings with respect to reported CS use and usefulness. The internal reliability of the returned self-report strategy questionnaires on the use and usefulness of CSs before and after the CS instruction, estimated by Cronbach's alpha, was 0.78, 0.72, 0.84 and 0.74 respectively, which demonstrated that all the items in the questionnaire could measure students' attitudes and perceptions of CSs with enough consistency (see Pallant, 2007: 98). Then, in order to gauge the relationship between students' reported strategy use and perceived strategy usefulness, Pearson Product-Moment procedures and Fisher's z-test were then performed to calculate correlations between these two variables.

4.2.1 Students' reports of strategy use from self-report strategy questionnaire

In this section, the focus is on the questionnaire findings on strategy use as reported by the students themselves. The purpose is to assess the effects of the CS instruction on students' reports of use of each CS. The presentation of the findings is organised as follows:

- The range of use of CSs reported by all students before the CS instruction
- The range of use of CSs reported by all students after the CS instruction
- Comparison of the reported strategy use, pre- and post-CS instruction

The range of CSs reported by all students before the CS instruction

All 62 students were asked to complete the self-report strategy questionnaire before the CS instruction. The results of the questionnaire are presented in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1 The range and ranking of use of CSs reported by all students before the CS instruction

Ranking	Strategy	Mean (N=62)	Standard Deviation	Item no.
1	Non-linguistic strategy (nl)	3.15	1.08	5, 26
2	Pause fillers and hesitation devices (ph)	3.11	1.11	12, 28
3=	Appeal for help (ah)	2.97	1.12	9, 27
3=	Topic avoidance (ta)	2.97	1.06	11, 19, 30
5	Clarification request (cr)	2.91	0.98	16, 23
6	Literal translation (lt)	2.86	1.13	6, 21
7	Message abandonment (ma)	2.84	1.11	10, 29
8	Code switching (cw)	2.69	1.17	8, 24
9	Comprehension check (cp)	2.65	1.05	14, 31
10	Use of all-purpose words (aw)	2.60	1.06	3, 32
11	Approximation (ap)	2.56	1.06	2, 18, 25
12	Confirmation check (cf)	2.48	0.90	15
13	Self-repair (sr)	2.28	0.92	13, 33
14	Circumlocution (cl)	2.19	0.85	1, 17
15	Foreignizing (fr)	1.90	0.98	7, 22
16	Word coinage (wc)	1.76	1.00	4, 20

Key: 1.0-2.4 = low strategy use; 2.5-3.4 = medium strategy use; and 3.5-5.0 = high strategy use (see Oxford and Burry-Sock, 1995:2)

As seen in Table 4.1, none of CSs in the survey was reported to be used with high frequency (*M*=3.5-5.0) before the CS instruction. It should be noted that 11 of 16 CSs fell in the medium strategy use group (*M*=2.5-3.4), while the remaining five CSs had means between 1.0 and 2.4, indicating low usage of these strategies. The top five individual CS preferences were non-linguistic strategy (*M*=3.15, *SD*=1.08), pause fillers and hesitation devices (*M*=3.11, *SD*=1.11), appeal for help (*M*= 2.97, *SD*=1.12), topic avoidance (*M*= 2.97, *SD*=1.06) and clarification request (*M*=2.91, *SD*=0.98). The bottom five individual CS preferences were word coinage (*M*= 1.76, *SD*=1.00), foreignizing (*M*=1.90, *SD*=0.98), circumlocution (*M*= 2.19, *SD*=0.85), self-repair (*M*=2.28, *SD*=0.92) and confirmation check (*M*=2.48, *SD*=0.90). These results demonstrated that before the CS instruction the students considered themselves not fluent enough to speak or express their ideas in English since they reported their preferences of using non-linguistic strategy, pause fillers and hesitation devices and topic avoidance when they encountered communication difficulties. In addition, they might rely on their interlocutor's help rather than solving problems by themselves since they also showed their preferences of using appeal for help and clarification request in the questionnaire.

The range of use of CSs reported by all students after the CS instruction

After the 12-week CS instruction, the students were asked to complete the self-report strategy questionnaire again to investigate any differences in their reports of use of CSs. The results are shown in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2 The range and ranking of use of CSs reported by all students after the CS instruction

Ranking	Strategy	Mean (N=62)	Standard Deviation	Item no.
1	Pause fillers and hesitation devices (ph)	4.40	0.57	12, 28
2	Approximation (ap)	3.90	0.67	2, 18, 25
3	Clarification request (cr)	3.65	0.76	16, 23
4	Self-repair (sr)	3.55	0.86	13, 33

Ranking	Strategy	Mean (N=62)	Standard Deviation	Item no.
5	Non-linguistic strategy (nl)	3.52	1.05	5, 26
6	Appeal for help (ah)	3.44	0.76	9, 27
7	Topic avoidance (ta)	3.40	0.83	11, 19, 30
8	Circumlocution (cl)	3.37	0.70	1, 17
9	Confirmation check (cf)	3.29	0.86	15
10	Comprehension check (cp)	3.19	0.78	14, 31
11	Use of all-purpose words (aw)	3.06	0.90	3, 32
12	Message abandonment (ma)	3.04	1.04	10, 29
13	Literal translation (lt)	3.02	1.06	6, 21
14	Code switching (cw)	2.77	1.05	8, 24
15	Foreignizing (fr)	2.27	0.95	7, 22
16	Word coinage (wc)	2.20	0.85	4, 20

Key: 1.0-2.4 = low strategy use; 2.5-3.4 = medium strategy use; and 3.5-5.0 = high strategy use (see Oxford and Burry-Sock, 1995:2)

Table 4.2 presents the range and ranking of use of CSs reported by all the students after the CS instruction. The results indicated that the students were aware of CSs at very high use (*M*=3.5-5.0) to low use (*M*=1.0-2.4). The mean scores reported for each CS ranged from a high of 4.40 (pause fillers and hesitation devices) to a low of 2.20 (word coinage). The most five popular reported CSs after the CS instruction were pause fillers and hesitation devices (*M*=4.40, *SD*=0.57), followed by approximation (*M*= 3.90, *SD*=0.67), clarification request (*M*=3.65, *SD*=0.76), self-repair (*M*= 3.55, *SD*= 0.86) and non-linguistic strategy (*M*=3.52, *SD*=1.05). The least five popular CSs reported by the students were word coinage (*M*=2.20, *SD*=0.85), followed by foreignizing (*M*=2.27, *SD*=0.95), code switching (*M*=2.77, *SD*=1.05), literal translation (*M*=3.02, *SD*=1.06) and message abandonment (*M*=3.04, *SD*=1.04). These findings demonstrated that after the 12-week CS instruction the students were more aware of taught CSs, particularly pause fillers and hesitation devices when they reported using these strategies at high use (*M*= 4.40). They tended to feel more confident in using pause fillers and hesitation devices to remain in the conversation instead of giving up their messages. It should be noted that the students still relied less on employing L1-based strategies such as word coinage and foreignizing. One possible explanation was that these two strategies were new to them and perhaps they might consider these strategies ineffective in solving their communication problems.

Comparison of the reported strategy use, pre- and post-CS instruction

In order to examine whether there was a significant difference in students' self-reported frequency of use of CSs in the pre-and post-CS instruction, paired-samples t-test (two-tailed) was used in this study. In general, the paired-samples t-test is used when there is only one group of students and the researcher collects data from these students on two different occasions (see Pallant, 2007: 236). In this study, the paired-samples t-test was conducted to compare the mean scores of students' self-reported frequency of use of CSs before and after the CS instruction. The results are presented in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3 Comparison of the overall mean score of CS use reported by all students in the pre-CS instruction and post-CS instruction

N (Students) = 62	N (CSs)	Overall Mean Score (M)	Standard Deviation (SD)	t-value	Sig (2-tailed)
Pre- CS instruction	16	2.6200	0.4118	-6.005	0.000*
Post- CS instruction	16	3.2544	0.5521		

* Significant at $p < .05$

As shown in Table 4.3, the overall mean score for the reported CSs in the pre-CS instruction was 2.62 (*SD*= 0.41) while the overall mean score for the reported CSs in the post-CS instruction was 3.25 (*SD*= 0.55). The higher mean reported frequency of CS use in the post-CS instruction indicated that the students reported significantly higher levels of frequency of use of CSs after the 12 week-CS instruction. For the paired-samples t-test, the results showed a significant difference between the pre- and post-CS instruction at the 0.05 level (*t*= -6.00, *p*=0.00). That is, there was a difference between pre- and post-CS mean ratings of CS use. These results indicated that the

students started to be aware of their use of CSs. The 12-week CS instruction appeared to activate students' reports of use of CSs.

As seen from the results of t-test above, there was a statistically significant increase in the overall level of CS use after the 12-week CS instruction. To examine the change in the frequency of CS use more closely, the following is a comparison of mean ratings of individual CSs reported in the pre- and post-CS instruction.

Figure 4.1 Comparison of mean ratings of use of individual CSs reported by all students in the pre- and post-CS instruction

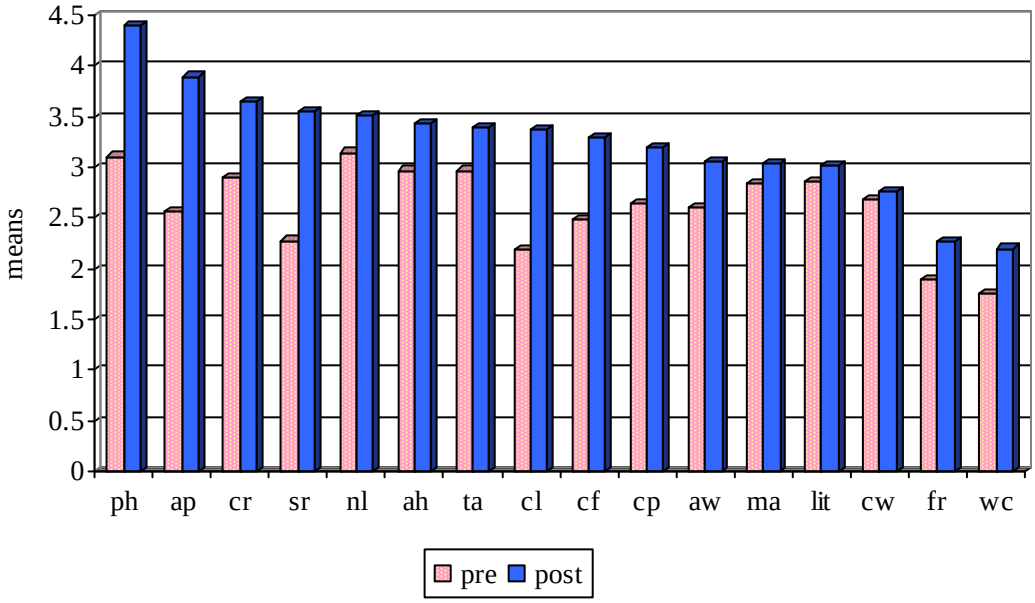
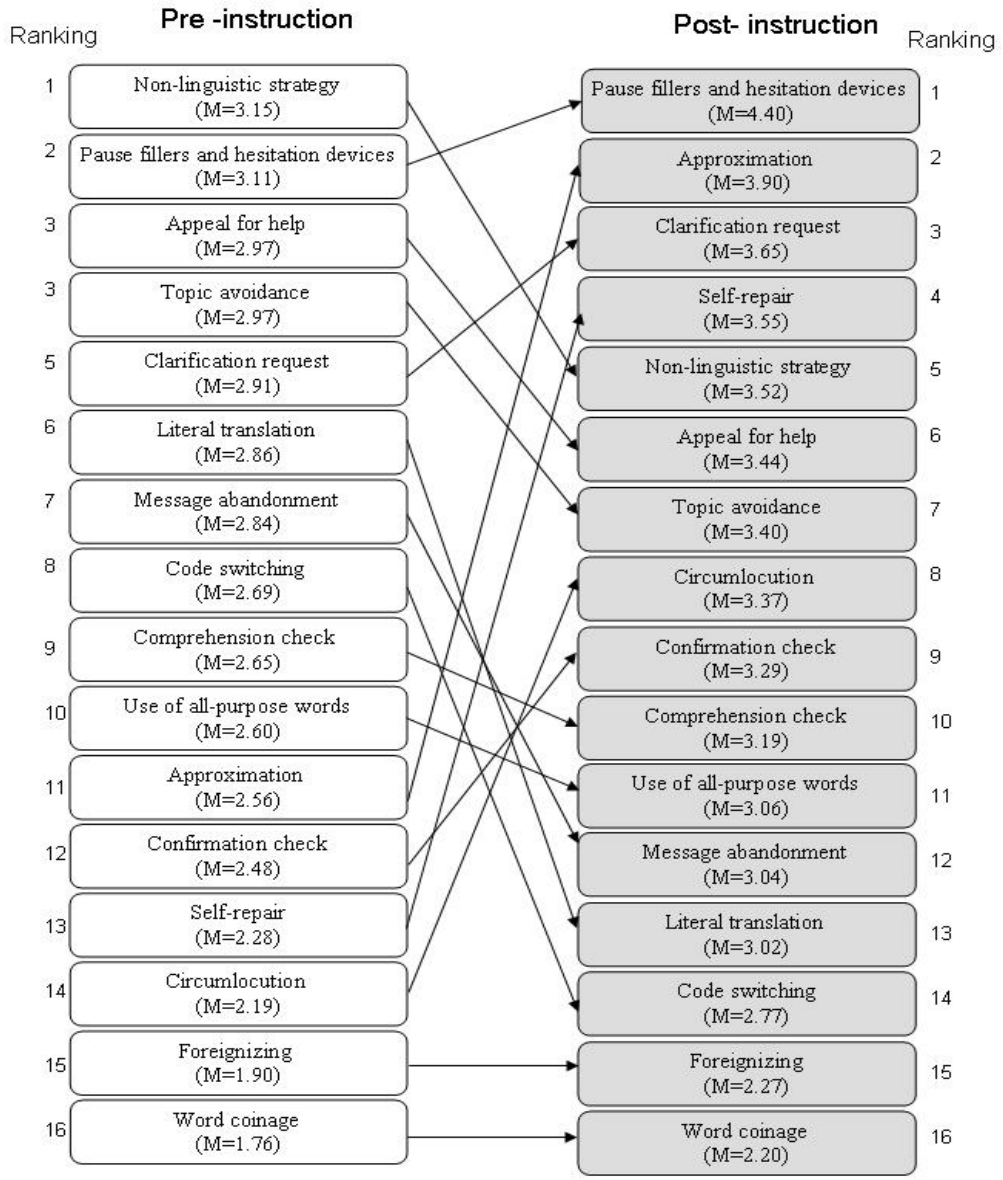


Figure 4.1 shows mean ratings for individual CSs reported by all the students before and after the CS instruction. The means of individual CSs ranged from a high of 4.40 to a low of 1.76. After the12-week CS instruction, reported CS use increased slightly for almost every strategy. The most popular reported CS in the post-CS instruction was pause fillers and hesitation devices (ph, *M*= 4.40) while the most popular reported CS in the pre-CS instruction was non-linguistic strategy (nl, *M*= 3.15). However, there was no change in students' reports of the least popular CSs in the post-CS instruction. That is, the least popular reported CSs were still that same, i.e., word coinage (wc, *M*= 2.20); and foreignizing (fr, *M*= 2.27) after the 12-week CS instruction.

Figure 4.2 Comparison of ranking of CS use reported by all students between the pre- and post-CS instruction



In Figure 4.2, there were some changes in the ranking of reports of use of CSs in the pre- and post-CS instruction. Although the lowest ranked CSs were still the same (word coinage and foreignizing), there were some changes in the highest and the middle ranked CSs in the post-instruction. After the 12-week CS instruction, it should be noted that the students relied less on avoidance strategies (topic avoidance and

message abandonment), reported less use of L1-based strategies (literal translation and code switching) and were less inclined to use non-linguistic strategy. All these CSs changed their rank position by at least four places. However, some CSs became more popular after the CS instruction. The first rise in the ranking was pause fillers and hesitation devices, which rose from rank 2 to 1. In addition, clarification request rose from 5 to 3 while confirmation check rose from 12 to 9. There was also a dramatic increase in some taught CSs. For example, approximation rose from 11 to 2, self-repair rose from 13 to 4 and circumlocution rose from 14 to 8. These results indicated that the CS instruction might activate students' reports of use of some taught CSs, i.e., pause fillers and hesitation devices, clarification request, approximation, confirmation check, self-repair and circumlocution. The teaching of some CSs appeared to positively influence students' perceptions of strategy use since there were some changes in the ranking of reports of use of CSs after the 12-week CS instruction.

4.2.2 Students' perceptions of strategy usefulness from self-report strategy questionnaire

As seen from the above sections, after the 12-weeks of CS instruction there was a statistically significant increase in the use of CSs. This section investigates the degree to which the students considered CSs to be useful for them. The presentation of the findings from the self-report strategy questionnaire on the usefulness of CSs is organised as follows:

- The range of usefulness of CSs reported by all students before the CS instruction
- The range of usefulness of CSs reported by all students after the CS instruction
- Comparison of usefulness of CSs reported by all students, pre- and post-CS instruction

The range of usefulness of CSs reported by all students before the CS instruction

Before the CS instruction, all 62 students were asked to complete the self-report strategy questionnaire on the usefulness of CSs (see section 4.2 for the details of

questionnaire administration). The results of students' perceptions of usefulness of CSs before the CS instruction are presented in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4 The range and ranking of usefulness of each reported CS before the CS instruction

Ranking	Strategy	Mean (N=62)	Standard Deviation	Item no.
1	Appeal for help (ah)	4.02	0.89	9, 27
2	Clarification request (cr)	3.90	0.89	16, 23
3	Comprehension check (cp)	3.77	0.89	14, 31
4=	Self-repair (sr)	3.71	0.95	13, 33
4=	Non-linguistic strategy (nl)	3.71	1.02	5, 26
6	Circumlocution (cl)	3.69	0.95	1, 17
7	Confirmation check (cf)	3.66	0.85	15
8	Pause fillers and hesitation devices (ph)	3.27	1.07	12, 28
9	Use of all-purpose words (wc)	3.24	0.94	3, 32
10	Approximation (ap)	3.23	1.04	2, 18, 25
11	Literal translation (lt)	3.09	0.97	6, 21
12	Code switching (cw)	2.65	1.09	8, 24
13	Word coinage (wc)	2.52	1.09	4, 20
14	Topic avoidance (ta)	2.45	1.13	11, 19, 30
15=	Message abandonment (ma)	2.22	1.00	10, 29
15=	Foreignizing (fr)	2.22	1.16	7, 22

Key: 1.0-2.4 =least useful; 2.5-3.4 = moderately useful; and 3.5-5.0 = most useful (see Oxford and Burry-Sock, 1995:2)

As seen in Table 4.4, seven of the sixteen CSs fell in the most useful strategies (*M*= 3.5-5.0), while the remaining nine CSs had means between 2.22 and 3.27, indicating least usefulness to moderate usefulness of these strategies. The most useful CSs reported by the students were appeal for help (*M*=4.02, *SD*=0.89), followed by clarification request (*M*= 3.90, *SD*=0.89), comprehension check (*M*=3.77, *SD*=0.89), self-repair (*M*=3.71, *SD*=0.95) and non-linguistic strategy (*M*=3.71, *SD*=1.02). Some CSs were reported as moderately useful such as pause fillers and hesitation devices (*M*=3.27, *SD*=1.07), use of all-purpose words (*M*=3.24, *SD*=0.94) and approximation (*M*=3.23, *SD*=1.04). The least useful CSs reported by the students were foreignizing (*M*=2.22, *SD*=1.16), message abandonment (*M*=2.22, *SD*=1.00) and topic avoidance (*M*=2.45, *SD*=1.13). These results showed that before the CS instruction the students tended to rely on their interlocutor's assistance since they reported some strategies, i.e.,

appeal for help, clarification request and comprehension as being most useful for them. It is interesting that while showing awareness of the usefulness of these strategies, the students also indicated using them often. One possible explanation is that they might find it easy to use these strategies to cope with their communication problems. They might have problems in understanding and communicating with interlocutors in their daily life.

The range of usefulness of CSs reported by all students after the CS instruction

After the 12-week CS instruction period, the students were asked to complete the self-report strategy questionnaire again in order to investigate any differences in their reports of the usefulness of CSs. The results are presented in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5 The range and ranking of usefulness of each reported CS after the CS instruction

Ranking	Strategy	Mean (N=62)	Standard Deviation	Item no.
1	Pause fillers and hesitation devices (ph)	4.39	0.58	12, 28
2	Circumlocution (cl)	4.23	0.69	1, 17
2	Appeal for help (ah)	4.23	0.69	9, 27
4	Clarification request (cr)	4.20	0.66	16, 23
5	Confirmation check (cf)	4.19	0.70	15
6	Comprehension check (cp)	4.09	0.70	14, 31
7	Self-repair (sr)	4.08	0.67	13, 33
8	Approximation (ap)	4.03	0.72	2, 18, 25
9	Non-linguistic strategy (nl)	3.72	0.98	5, 26
10	Use of all-purpose words (aw)	3.69	0.92	3, 32
11	Literal translation (lt)	2.97	1.01	6, 21
12	Topic avoidance (ta)	2.84	1.00	11, 19, 30
13	Word coinage (wc)	2.79	0.98	4, 20
14	Code switching (cw)	2.35	0.97	8, 24
15	Foreignizing (fr)	2.15	0.96	7, 22
16	Message abandonment (ma)	1.94	1.00	10, 29

Key: 1.0-2.4 =least useful; 2.5-3.4 = moderately useful; and 3.5-5.0 = most useful (see Oxford and Burry-Sock, 1995:2)

Table 4.5 shows the mean scores and standard deviations for all 16 individual CSs after the 12-week CS instruction. The results indicated that the students perceived CSs

as being most useful to least useful. The mean scores reported for individual CSs ranged from 1.94 to 4.39 and the standard deviations ranged from 0.58 to 1.01. After the 12 week-CS instruction, 10 of the 16 CSs fell in the most useful strategies (mean of 3.5 or above), while the remaining six CSs had means between 1.97 and 2.97, indicating least usefulness to moderate usefulness of these strategies. The most useful CSs reported by the students were pause fillers and hesitation devices (*M*=4.39, *SD*=0.58), followed by circumlocution (*M*=4.23, *SD*=0.69), appeal for help (*M*=4.23, *SD*=0.69), clarification request (*M*= 4.20, *SD*=0.66) and confirmation check (*M*=4.19, *SD*=0.70). The least useful CSs were message abandonment (*M*=1.94, *SD*=1.00), followed by foreignizing (*M*=2.15, *SD*=0.96), code switching (*M*=2.35, *SD*=0.97), word coinage (*M*= 2.79, *SD*=0.98) and topic avoidance (*M*=2.84, *SD*=1.00). It should be noted that there was a correlation between what they perceived as useful and what they actually used (as reported on the results of CS use). That is, after the CS instruction the students were more aware of taught CSs, particularly pause fillers and hesitation devices when they perceived these strategies as the most useful CS. In addition, similar to the CS usage part, the students considered foreignizing and message abandonment least useful for them. It can be concluded that the training of some CSs (i.e., pause fillers and hesitation devices and circumlocution) positively influenced students' higher perceptions of the usefulness of these strategies.

Comparison of usefulness of CSs reported by all students, pre- and post- CS instruction

In order to investigate whether there was a significant difference in students' reports of usefulness of CSs in the pre-and post-CS instruction, paired-samples t-test (two-tailed) was used again to compare the mean scores of students' self-reported frequency of usefulness of CSs before and after the CS instruction. The results are presented in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6 Comparison of the overall mean score of usefulness of each reported CS in the pre- and post-CS instruction

N (Students) = 62	N (CSs)	Overall Mean Score (*M*)	Standard Deviation (*SD*)	t-value	Sig (2-tailed)
Pre- CS instruction	16	3.2094	0.6178	-2.986	0.009*
Post- CS instruction	16	3.4931	0.8435		

* Significant at $p < .05$

As shown in Table 4.6, the overall mean score for the usefulness of CSs in the pre-CS instruction was 3.21 (*SD*= 0.62) while the overall mean score for the usefulness of CSs in the post-CS instruction was 3.49 (*SD*= 0.84). For paired-samples t-test, the results showed a significant difference at the 0.05 level (*t*= -2.99, *p*=0.01). It can be concluded that there was a difference between pre- and post-mean ratings of CS usefulness. The 12-week CS instruction appeared to raise the students' awareness about the usefulness of CSs.

As seen from the results of t-test above, there was a statistically significant increase in perceptions of the overall level of CS usefulness after the 12-week CS instruction. To examine changes in the usefulness of CSs more closely, the following is comparison of mean ratings of usefulness of individual CSs reported in the pre- and post-CS instruction.

Figure 4.3 Comparison of mean ratings of usefulness of CSs reported by all students in the pre- and post-CS instruction

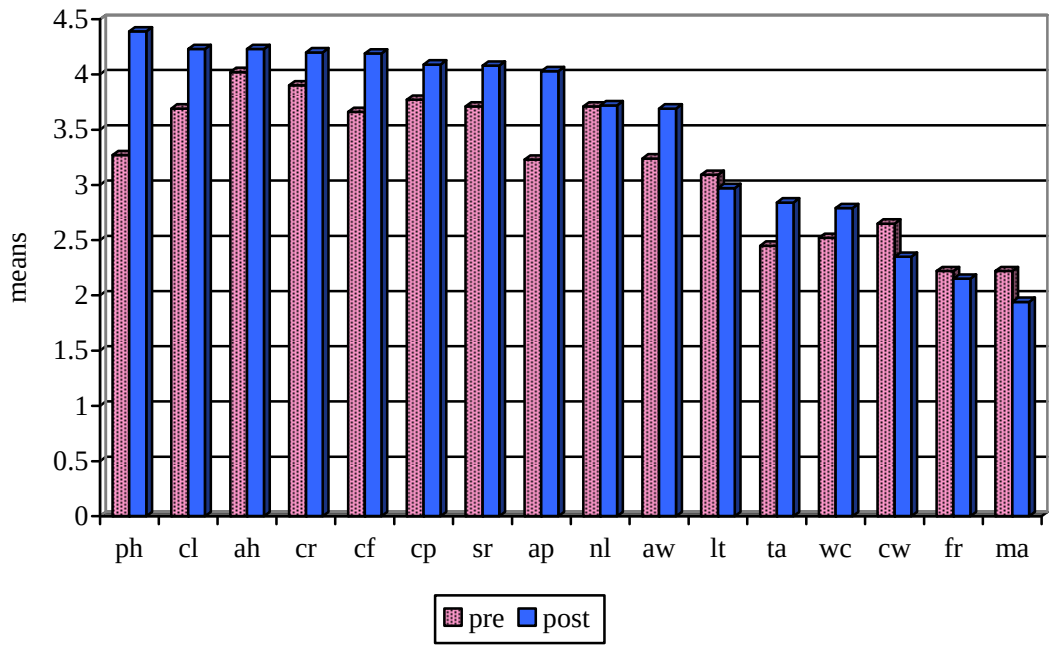
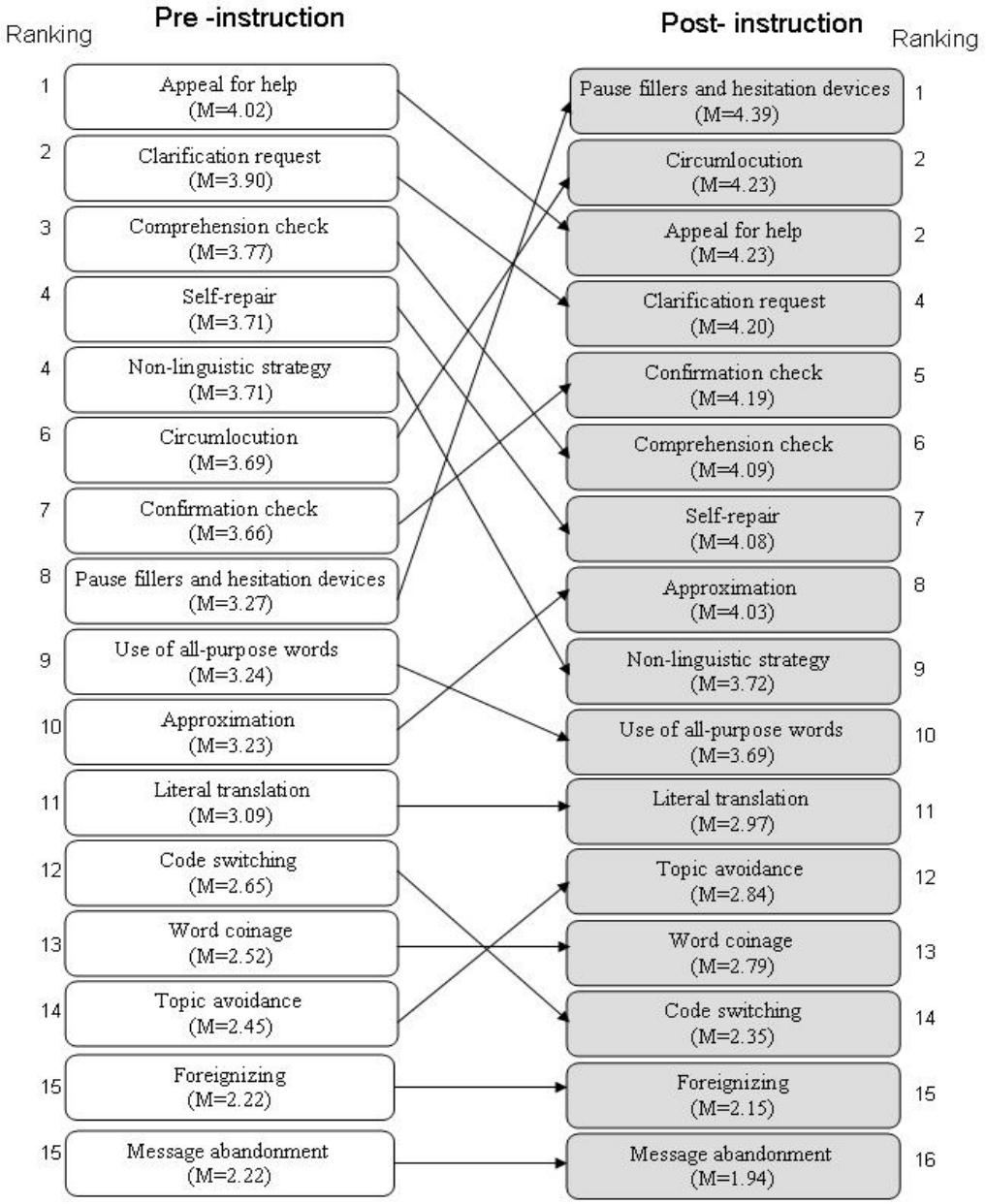


Figure 4.3 shows mean ratings of usefulness for individual CSs reported by all students before and after the CS instruction. The means of individual CSs ranged from a high of 4.39 to a low of 1.94. The high value means indicated that the students found CSs useful. After the 12-week CS instruction, it is interesting to see that reported CS usefulness increased slightly for almost every strategy. The most useful CS in the post-CS instruction was pause fillers and hesitation devices (ph, *M*=4.39) while the most useful CS in the pre-CS instruction was appeal for help (ah, *M*=4.02). One possible reason for this result is that "pause fillers and hesitation devices" are easier to remember and use, and consequently students may consider these strategies most useful after the CS instruction. However, there were some changes in students' reports of the least popular CSs in the post-CS instruction. After the12-week CS instruction, the least useful CS was message abandonment (ma, *M*=1.94) whereas the least useful CS in the pre-CS instruction was foreignizing. The comparison of ranking of usefulness of each reported CS is presented in more detail in Figure 4.4 below.

Figure 4.4 Comparison of ranking of usefulness of each reported CS between the pre- and post-CS instruction



As shown in Figure 4.4, there were some changes in the ranked CSs in the post-CS instruction. After the 12-week CS instruction, the students considered non-linguistic strategy, self-repair and comprehension check less useful for them in dealing communication difficulties. All these CSs changed their rank position by at least three

places. However, some CSs became more useful among the students after applying the CS instruction programme. The first rise in the ranking was pause fillers and hesitation devices, which rose from rank 8 to 1. In addition, circumlocution rose from 6 to 2 while confirmation check rose from 7 to 5. There were also increases in some taught CSs. For example, approximation rose from 10 to 8 and topic avoidance rose from 14 to 12. These results indicated that the 12-week CS instruction might raise students' awareness about the usefulness of some taught CSs. The teaching of some CSs might positively influence students' perceptions of usefulness of CSs.

4.2.3 Correlations between students' reports of use and usefulness of CSs before and after the CS instruction

The previous section presented students' perceptions of the usefulness of the CSs. This section examines the correlations between students' reports of strategy use and usefulness. In order to gauge the relationship between students' reports of use and usefulness of CSs, Pearson Product-Moment procedures were performed to calculate correlation coefficients of these two variables.

Correlations between students' reports of use and usefulness of CSs before the CS instruction

Before the 12-week CS instruction, correlations between strategy use and usefulness were computed and calculated. The results of mean scores and the relationship of students' reports of use and usefulness of CSs are presented in Table 4.7 below.

Table 4.7 Correlation coefficients between students' reports of strategy use and strategy usefulness before the CS instruction

Strategies	**Correlation (*r*)**	**P value (*p*)**
Comprehension check (cp) (*M*=2.65, 2.86)*	0.375	0.000**
Literal translation (lt) (*M*=2.86, 3.09)*	0.367	0.000**
Appeal for help (ah) (*M*=2.97,4.02)*	0.361	0.000**
Non-linguistic strategy (nl) (*M*=3.15, 3.71)*	0.360	0.000**
Code switching (cw) (*M*=2.69, 2.65)*	0.356	0.000**
Approximation (ap) (*M*=2.56, 3.23)*	0.349	0.000**

Strategies	**Correlation (*r*)**	**P value (*p*)**
Self-repair (sr) (*M*=2.28, 3.71)*	0.346	0.000**
Foreignizing (fr) (*M*=1.90, 2.22)*	0.343	0.000**
Pause fillers and hesitation devices (ph) (*M*=3.11, 3.27)*	0.339	0.000**
Use of all-purpose words (aw) (*M*=2.60, 3.90)*	0.328	0.000**
Clarification request (cr) (*M*=2.91, 3.90)*	0.289	0.001**
Word coinage (wc) (*M*=1.76, 2.52)*	0.272	0.002**
Circumlocution (cl) (*M*=2.19, 3.69)*	0.154	0.088
Message abandonment (ma) (*M*=2.84, 2.22)*	0.148	0.100
Confirmation check (cf) (*M*=2.48, 3.66)*	0.068	0.600
Topic avoidance (ta) (*M*=2.97, 2.45)*	0.064	0.383

*pre and post mean scores ** $p < .01$

The above findings showed that prior to the CS instruction there was a low but significant relationship between the strategy use and usefulness of the following 12 strategies: comprehension check, literal translation, appeal for help, non-linguistic strategy, code switching, approximation, self-repair, foreignizing, pause fillers and hesitation devices, use of all-purpose words, clarification request and word coinage. This means that students' beliefs about the usefulness of twelve CSs turned out to be significantly and positively correlated to their reports of use of these twelve strategies. There were correlations between what the students perceived as useful and what they thought they used (i.e., 12 CSs). The strongest positive correlation existed between the reports of use and usefulness of comprehension check ($r = 0.375$, $p = 0.000$), indicating a moderate link between what the students thought about comprehension check and how much they thought they used it. The weakest positive correlation existed between the reports of use and usefulness of word coinage ($r = 0.272$, $p = 0.002$), indicating a low link between what the students thought about word coinage and how much they said they used it. Therefore, the positive coefficients identified may indicate that students' perceptions of usefulness of the strategies would influence positively their decision to use the strategies. In contrast to the aforementioned 12 CSs, the other four items of strategy use, namely circumlocution, message abandonment, confirmation check and topic avoidance did not significantly correlate with the four items of strategy usefulness. Students' beliefs about the usefulness of these four strategies did not significantly and positively correlate to their reports of use of them (see Table 4.7). In other words, how useful the students perceived these four CSs was not related to their reported use of them. One possible explanation is that prior to the

12-week CS instruction the students may have lacked "strategic knowledge" (Wenden, 1998) about CSs. They could not identify what strategy they used and how useful it was for them. As a result, they might lack confidence and still question these four strategies.

Correlations between students' reports of use and usefulness of CSs after the CS instruction

After the 12-week CS instruction, the same questionnaire was administered to the 62 students again. Then the correlations between students' perceptions of strategy use and usefulness were computed and calculated to explore the relationships between these two variables. The results of mean scores and the relationships between students' reports of use and usefulness of CSs after the CS instruction are presented in Table 4.8 below.

Table 4.8 Correlation coefficients between students' reports of strategy use and strategy usefulness after the CS instruction

Strategies	**Correlation (*r*)**	**P value (*p*)**
Comprehension check (cp) (*M*=3.19, 4.09)*	0.355	0.000**
Literal translation (lt) (*M*=3.02, 2.97)*	0.470	0.000**
Appeal for help (ah) (*M*=3.44, 4.23)*	0.264	0.003**
Non-linguistic strategy (nl) (*M*=3.52, 3.72)*	0.398	0.000**
Code switching (cw) (*M*=2.77, 2.35)*	0.473	0.000**
Approximation (ap) (*M*=3.90, 4.03)*	0.242	0.001**
Self-repair (sr) (*M*=3.55, 4.08)*	0.177	0.049***
Foreignizing (fr) (*M*=2.27, 2.35)*	0.494	0.000**
Pause fillers and hesitation devices (ph) (*M*=4.40, 4.39)*	0.470	0.000**
Use of all-purpose words (aw) (*M*=3.06, 3.69)*	0.279	0.002**
Clarification request (cr) (*M*=3.65, 4.20)*	0.322	0.000**
Word coinage (wc) (*M*=2.20, 2.79)*	0.453	0.000**
Circumlocution (cl) (*M*=3.37, 4.23)*	0.297	0.001**
Message abandonment (ma) (*M*=3.04, 1.94)*	0.182	0.043***
Confirmation check (cf) (*M*=3.29, 4.19)*	0.453	0.000**
Topic avoidance (ta) (*M*=3.40, 2.84)*	0.388	0.000**

*pre and post mean scores ** $p < .01$ *** $p < .05$

As seen in Table 4.8, after the 12-week CS instruction there was a significant relationship between the strategy use and usefulness of all sixteen strategies. In other words, the analyses showed that students' beliefs about the usefulness of all the strategies significantly and positively correlated to their reports of use of these sixteen strategies. The correlation coefficients of students' reports of use and usefulness of CSs ranged from 0.177 (Self-repair) to 0.494 (Foreignizing). The strongest positive correlation existed between the reports of use and usefulness of foreignizing (r = 0.494, p = 0.000), indicating a moderate link between what the students thought about foreignizing and how much they thought they used it. The weakest positive correlation existed between the reports of use and usefulness of self-repair (r =0.177, p = 0.049), indicating a low link between what the students thought about self-repair and how much they thought they used it. These findings, therefore, demonstrated that after the 12-week CS instruction there was a clear relationship between what the students perceived as useful and what they thought they used. It is possible that the awareness-raising of some CSs might encourage the students to realise the types of CSs they used most and report what they really thought about these strategies.

Comparison of correlations between students' reports of use and usefulness of CSs before and after the CS instruction

In order to compare the difference of correlation coefficients in students' reports of use and usefulness of CSs in the pre-and post-CS instruction, Fisher's z-test was performed. When a z-value is not between -1.96 and +1.96 with the p-value less than 0.05 (see Pallant, 2007), the conclusion is that the two coefficients (of each individual strategy) are significantly different. The p-values (p) with z-test (Z) of coefficients in students' reports of use and usefulness of each CS before and after the CS instruction are shown in Table 4.9.

Table 4.9 Comparison of correlation coefficients between students' reports of strategy use and strategy usefulness before and after the CS instruction

Strategies	**Z***	**P value** (*p*)**
Comprehension check (cp)	0.179	0.857557
Literal translation (lt)	-0.973	0.330457
Appeal for help (ah)	0.837	0.402491
Non-linguistic strategy (nl)	-0.345	0.729922
Code switching (cw)	-1.102	0.270625
Approximation (ap)	1.123	0.261410
Self-repair (sr)	1.416	0.156865
Foreignizing (fr)	-1.430	0.152714
Pause fillers and hesitation devices (ph)	-1.222	0.221702
Use of all-purpose words (aw)	0.420	0.674537
Clarification request (cr)	-0.283	0.777068
Word coinage (wc)	-1.629	0.103290
Circumlocution (cl)	-1.174	0.240221
Message abandonment (ma)	-0.272	0.785707
Confirmation check (cf)	-2.283	0.022421**
Topic avoidance (ta)	-3.304	0.000955**

***** Test of difference between two correlation coefficients ** $p < .05$

From the above findings, the z-values of all 16 coefficients (strategies) ranged from -3.304 (Topic avoidance) to 1.416 (Self-repair), with the p-values between 0.000955 (Topic avoidance) and 0.857557(Comprehension check). It should be noted that the z-values of fourteen coefficients were between -1.96 and +1.96 (see Table4.9). That means there was no statistically significant difference in the correlation between students' reports of use and usefulness of these fourteen strategies before and after the CS instruction. In other words, there was no change in the correlation between the students' reports of use and usefulness of these fourteen strategies before and after the CS instruction. However, the z-values of two coefficients (confirmation check and topic avoidance) which were -2.283 and -3.304 with the p-value less than 0.05, showed that there was a statistical difference in the correlation between students' reports of use and usefulness of these two strategies before and after the CS instruction. There were some changes in students' reports of use and usefulness of these two strategies before and after the CS instruction.

To summarise, significant correlations were found in the current study between students' reports of use and usefulness of CSs. There were some changes in

correlations between the reports of use and usefulness of CSs before and after the CS instruction. That is, after the 12-week CS instruction a positive relationship existed between the reports of use and usefulness of all 16 CSs. What can be concluded is that the students have received instruction about CSs so they might realise the benefits of using them. When they considered these strategies useful for them, they might try them out.

4.2.4 Summary of section 4.2: Analysis of self-report strategy questionnaire on the use and usefulness of CSs

To answer research question 1, the teaching in the use of nine CSs appeared to cause some changes and positively influence students' reports of use and usefulness of the taught and non-taught CSs. The CS instruction was related to statistical increases in the self-reported use of all nine taught CSs, especially "pause fillers and hesitation devices", "approximation" and "self-repair". In addition, the findings demonstrated that the CS instruction was also associated with statistical increases in the reports of use of all seven non-taught CSs, especially, "use of all-purpose words" and "word coinage". For the perceptions of strategy usefulness, the CS instruction appeared to be associated with statistical increases for all nine taught CSs, particularly "pause fillers and hesitation devices" and "approximation". However, the findings showed that the CS instruction had the impact on the increases of perceptions of three non-taught CSs, i.e., "non-linguistic strategy", "use of all-purpose words" and "word coinage".

Regarding the relationship between students' reports of use and usefulness of CSs, the findings showed that there were some changes in correlations between the reports of use and usefulness of CSs after the CS instruction. That is, there was a positive relationship between the reports of use and usefulness of all 16 CSs after the 12-week CS instruction. The CS instruction might activate the students to try out CSs and to realise the benefits of using all these strategies. These findings of the self-report strategy questionnaire will be discussed in detail in Chapter five. The next section presents students' actual use of CSs in speaking tasks.

Section 4.3

Results of speaking tasks

4.3 Results of the speaking tasks

The previous section presented students' reported use and usefulness of CSs. This section investigates changes in students' use of CSs in the task performance. That is, the focus of this section is on the effects of the strategy intervention on students' actual use of CSs. This section has two sub-sections. Section 4.3.1 presents the frequency of use of CSs in the speaking tasks conducted with 12 students and section 4.3.2 reports an analysis of transcribed data of the speaking tasks to look in detail at some examples of the discourse data. Both sections address research question 2.

4.3.1 The frequency of use of communication strategies from the speaking tasks

To examine whether the teaching of nine specific CSs would lead to greater use of these strategies, four speaking tasks were conducted with 12 students before and after the CS instruction. The four different tasks were two interactive tasks including an oral interview and a conversation task and two speaking tasks including a cartoon description task and a topic description task (see section 3.4.2). The recorded data elicited from different speaking tasks were transcribed and coded by the researcher (see section 3.7.2). Then the researcher counted the frequency of 12 students' use of CSs from pre- and post-speaking tasks. In order to check the reliability and consistency of the coding, one Thai EFL instructor with a PhD in Applied Linguistics acted as an inter-coder. The inter-coder and the researcher independently coded 20% of the transcribed data from the speaking tasks. After coding the CSs used in the speaking tasks, the level of coding agreement was then calculated to check for reliability. The inter-coder reliability coefficients for the pre-and post-speaking tasks were 0.92 and 0.93 respectively, which indicated high coding agreement (see Appendix O).

The presentation of the findings is organised as follows:

4.3.1.1 The frequency of use of all CSs before the CS instruction

4.3.1.2 Comparison of the frequency of use of all CSs, pre- and post-CS instruction

4.3.1.1 The frequency of use of CSs before the CS instruction

All 12 students were asked to complete four speaking tasks prior to the CS instruction. Results of two main categories of CSs are included in Table 4.10. First, taught CSs refer to strategies that had been introduced and taught to the students during the CS instruction. Second, non-taught CSs refer to strategies that had not been taught in the CS instruction but which had been used by the students in the speaking tasks. The data (T/W) shown on the left hand side of the Table indicate the total raw frequency of CS use (T) in relation to the total number of words (W) produced by the twelve students. The data (T/W x 100 = F) on the right hand side indicate the frequencies per 100 words used by the students.

Table 4.10: Ranking of frequencies of the use of CSs per 100 words before the CS instruction

Ranking	CSs	T/W	T/W x 100 = F
		Pre-CS instruction	**Pre-CS instruction**
Taught CSs			
1	Pause fillers and hesitation devices (ph)	310/3737	8.30
4	Approximation (ap)	38/3737	1.02
5	Self-repair (sr)	33/3737	0.88
6	Confirmation check (cf)	29/3737	0.78
7	Circumlocution (cl)	25/3737	0.67
9=	Clarification request (cr)	12/3737	0.32
11	Topic avoidance (ta)	7/3737	0.19
13=	Comprehension check (cp)	3/3737	0.08
15	Appeal for help (ah)	2/3737	0.05
Non-taught CSs			
2	Message abandonment (ma)	78/3737	2.09
3	Code switching (cw)	64/3737	1.71
8	Non-linguistic strategy (nl)	13/3737	0.35
9=	Literal translation (lt)	12/3737	0.32
12	Word coinage (wc)	6/3737	0.16
13=	Use of all-purpose words (aw)	3/3737	0.08
	Total	**635/3737**	**17.00**

Note. T=The total raw frequency of CS use; W= The total number of words; F= The frequencies of CS use per 100 words

Taught CSs

As shown in Table 4.10, “pause fillers and hesitation devices” were the most frequently employed strategies (8.30) in the pre-speaking tasks. Other strategies were used with a low frequency such as “approximation” (1.02), “self-repair” (0.88), “confirmation check” (0.78) and “circumlocution” (0.67). The strategies with very low frequency were “clarification request” (0.32), “topic avoidance” (0.19)**,** “comprehension check” (0.08) and “appeal for help” (0.05). These results demonstrated that at this time (pre-CS instruction) the students tried to avoid communication breakdowns by relying more on themselves. They tended to make more use of time-gaining strategies like “pause fillers and hesitation devices” and self-solving strategies such as “approximation” and “self-repair”. They tended to rely less on using help-seeking strategies, i.e., “appeal for help” or “comprehension check” and “topic avoidance” at this time.

Non-taught CSs

The findings presented in Table 4.10 showed that two non-taught CSs were employed more often in the pre-speaking tasks: “message abandonment” (2.09) and “code switching” (1.71). Other non-taught strategies were used with very low frequency such as “non-linguistic strategy” (0.35), “literal translation” (0.32), “word coinage” (0.16) and “use of all-purpose words” (0.08). These results demonstrated that before the CS instruction the students were not fluent enough to speak or express their ideas in English since they more relied on “message abandonment” and “code switching” when they encountered communication difficulties.

4.3.1.2 Comparison of the frequency of use of all CSs, pre-and post-communication strategy instruction

The previous section described the frequency of use of all CSs before the CS instruction. In order to answer research question 2 and see if there were any changes in students’ use of CSs after the CS instruction, the data from the pre- and post-speaking

tasks were compared and analysed. The following is a comparison of frequencies of individual CSs used in the pre- and post-CS instruction.

Figure 4.5: Comparison of the frequencies for all CSs used by all students on the pre- and post-CS instruction

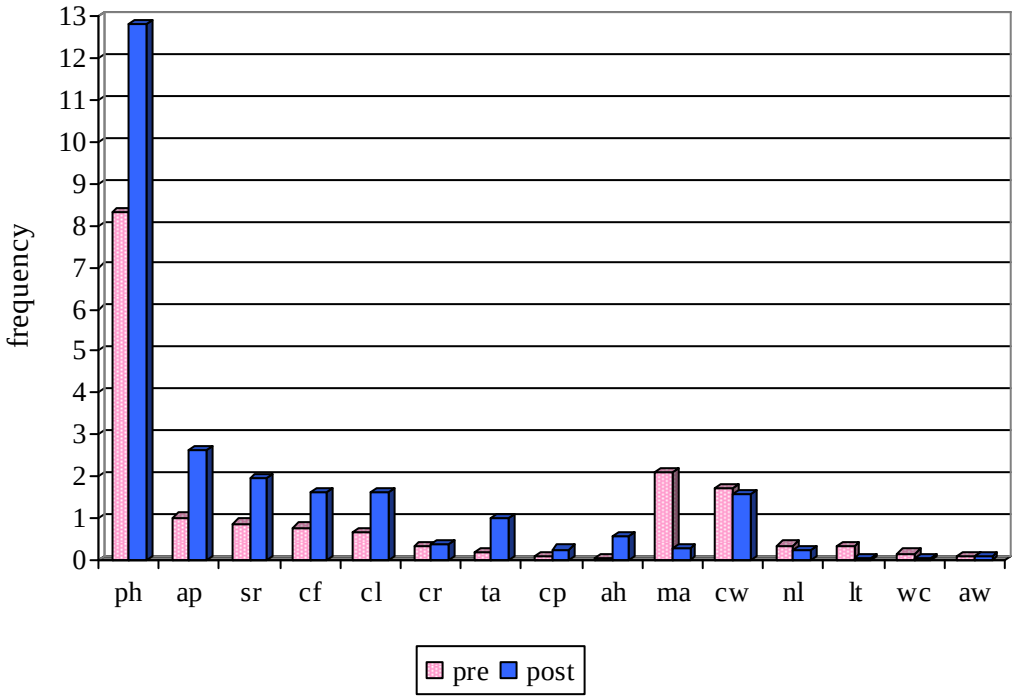


Figure 4.5 shows frequencies of use for individual CSs before and after the CS instruction. The frequencies of individual CSs ranged from a high of 12.80 to a low of 0.03. After the 12-week CS instruction, the frequencies of taught CSs increased for every strategy. The most popular CS in the pre- and post-CS instruction was “pause fillers and hesitation devices” (ph, 8.30, 12.80). However, there were some changes in the use of least popular CS. That is, the least popular CS in the pre-speaking task was “appeal for help” (ah, 0.05) while the least popular CS in the post-speaking task was “literal translation” (lt, 0.03). Table 4.11 below presents descriptive statistics to compare frequencies of use of taught and non-taught strategies in the pre- and post-speaking tasks in more detail.

Table 4.11 Comparison of frequencies of the use of CSs per 100 words before and after the CS instruction

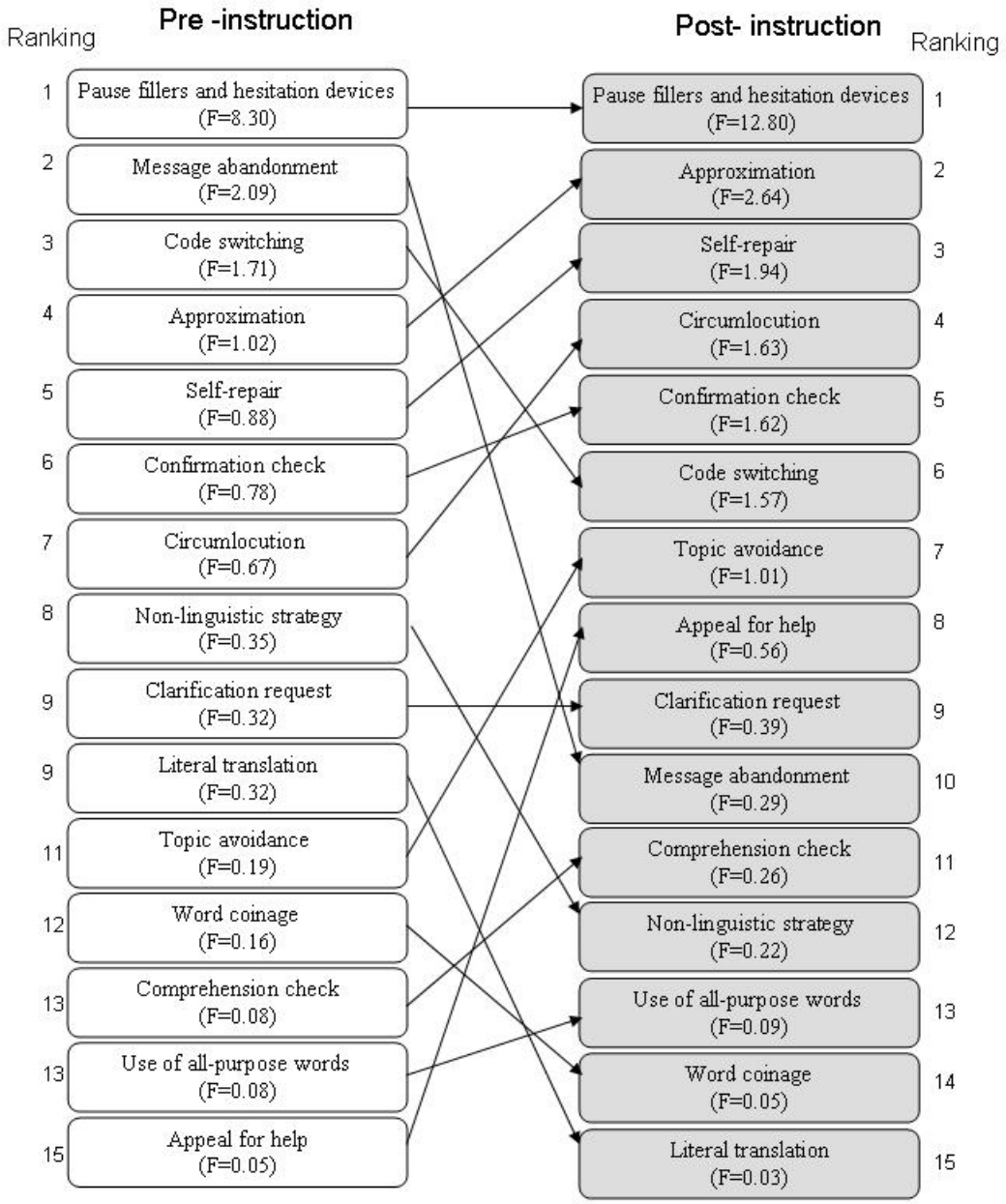
CSs	T/W		T/W x 100 = F		Pre-Post Gains
	Pre-CS instruction	Post-CS instruction	Pre-CS instruction	Post-CS instruction	
Taught CSs					
Pause fillers and hesitation devices (ph)	310/3737	752/5874	8.30	12.80	**+4.50**
Approximation (ap)	38/3737	155/5874	1.02	2.64	**+1.62**
Self-repair (sr)	33/3737	114/5874	0.88	1.94	**+1.06**
Confirmation check (cf)	29/3737	95/5874	0.78	1.62	**+0.84**
Circumlocution (cl)	25/3737	96/5874	0.67	1.63	**+0.96**
Clarification request (cr)	12/3737	23/5874	0.32	0.39	**+0.07**
Topic avoidance (ta)	7/3737	59/5874	0.19	1.01	**+0.82**
Comprehension check (cp)	3/3737	15/5874	0.08	0.26	**+0.18**
Appeal for help (ah)	2/3737	33/5874	0.05	0.56	**+0.51**
Non-taught CSs					
Message abandonment (ma)	78/3737	17/5874	2.09	0.29	**-1.80**
Code switching (cw)	64/3737	92/5874	1.71	1.57	**-0.14**
Non-linguistic strategy (nl)	13/3737	13/5874	0.35	0.22	**-0.13**
Literal translation (lt)	12/3737	2/5874	0.32	0.03	**-0.29**
Word coinage (wc)	6/3737	3/5874	0.16	0.05	**-0.11**
Use of all-purpose words (aw)	3/3737	5/5874	0.08	0.09	**+0.01**
Total	**635/3737**	**1474/5874**	**17.00**	**25.10**	**8.10**

Note. T=The total raw frequency of CS use; W= The total number of words; F= The frequencies of CS use per 100 words

As seen in the Table, the use of all nine taught CSs increased. The increase in the use of "pause fillers and hesitation devices" appeared to be particularly substantial in the post-CS instruction (+4.50). However, there were minimal changes in the frequency of "clarification request" (+0.07) and "comprehension check" (+0.18). With respect to the use of non-taught CSs, the students tended to use these strategies less than they did in the pre-CS instruction. It should be noted that only the number of "use of all-purpose words" (+0.01) increased in the post-CS instruction. However, the number of other non-taught CSs, especially "message abandonment" (-1.80) dramatically

decreased in the post-CS instruction. To further look at some changes in students' actual use of CSs, Figure 4.6 compares ranking of frequencies of the use of CSs before and after the CS instruction.

Figure 4.6 Comparison of ranking of frequencies of the use of CSs per 100 words before and after the CS instruction



Taught CSs

Figure 4.6 reports ranking of CSs used by the students in the pre- and post-CS instruction. There were both similarities and differences between the frequencies of the use of CSs in the pre- and post-speaking tasks. After the 12-week CS instruction, while the highest ranking of the frequencies of the use of taught CSs was still "pause fillers and hesitation devices" (12.80), the lowest ranking of the use of taught CSs was "comprehension check" (0.26). It seemed that the students still relied more on time-gaining strategies and self-solving strategies after the CS instruction. However**,** there were some slight changes in the ranking of seven taught CSs after the 12-week CS instruction. All these strategies slightly changed their rank position and became more popular. That is, "approximation" rose from rank 4 to 2, "self-repair" rose from 5 to 3, "confirmation check" rose from 6 to 5, "circumlocution" rose from 7 to 4, "topic avoidance" rose from 11 to 7, "comprehension check" rose from 13 to 11 and "appeal for help" rose from 15 to 8. These findings demonstrated that after the 12-week CS instruction the students had more confidence in using taught CSs. Instruction based on CSs seemed to raise students' awareness about the potential use of CSs and increase their use of CSs when facing communication difficulties.

Non-taught CSs

The findings presented in Figure 4.6 showed that the students relied on "code switching" (1.57) since they still used this strategy in the post-speaking tasks (rank 6th). However, it should be noted that the students tended to decrease their use of some non-taught CSs such as "message abandonment" (0.29), "non-linguistic strategy" (0.22), "word coinage" (0.05) and "literal translation" (0.03). It is interesting to see that "use of all-purpose words" slightly increased from 0.08 to 0.09 in the post-speaking tasks. Thus, these results demonstrated that the CS instruction might have been related to higher use of taught CSs and lower use of some non-taught CSs.

Based on the findings from the speaking tasks, what can be concluded is that the teaching of specific CSs had an impact on the increased use of taught CSs of the

students. After the 12-week CS instruction, the students greatly increased their levels of CS use, particularly “pause fillers and hesitation devices”.

This section has presented the frequencies of use of CSs in the speaking tasks. The results have shown that the teaching of specific CSs had an impact on the greater use of taught CSs of the students. The next section presents an analysis of transcribed data of the speaking tasks.

4.3.2 The analysis of transcribed data of the speaking tasks

In order to better understand students’ actual use of CSs, it is necessary to look more closely at some specific examples of the discourse data from the speaking tasks. In response to research question 2, this section reports an analysis of the discourse data from the four speaking tasks.

Analysis of the speaking tasks

The discourse data from four speaking tasks are presented and discussed in order to show the types of taught CSs used by the students. In order to determine whether the students used taught CSs**,** four different speaking tasks which were two interactive tasks including an oral interview and a conversation task and two speaking tasks including a cartoon description task and a topic description task were conducted with 12 students among the 62 students before and after the CS instruction (see section 3.4.2). Then, the recorded data elicited from students’ performance in the speaking tasks were transcribed, coded and presented according to nine taught CSs (in order of frequency). The nine taught CSs were (1) pause fillers and hesitation devices (2) approximation (3) self-repair (4) circumlocution (5) confirmation check (6) topic avoidance (7) appeal for help (8) clarification request and (9) comprehension check (see Chapter three). The following section deals with each of these CSs in turn. At times this analysis may seem repetitive. However, it is important to examine each CS in detail.

4.3.2.1 Pause fillers and hesitation devices

As mentioned in Chapter two, "pause fillers and hesitation devices" are words and phrases that the students use to fill pauses and gain time to think when they face communication problems (e.g., Well, Um, Uh, let's see, I mean). The quantitative data demonstrated that the students most frequently used these strategies while completing both pre-and post-speaking tasks. The following are some examples of students' use of "pause fillers and hesitation devices" taken from the pre- and post-speaking task recordings.

Students' use of pause fillers and hesitation devices prior to the CS instruction

The data from the pre-speaking tasks showed that the students most frequently used "pause fillers and hesitation devices" to fill pauses and gain time to think. Although there were 310 instances of "pause fillers and hesitation devices" used by the students in the pre-speaking task recordings, it should be noted that they used only short fillers such as "Um" and "Uh" and frequently paused at times of difficulty in the pre-speaking tasks. The examples of students' use of "pause fillers and hesitation devices" are shown below.

Example 1 (Task 1: Oral Interview)

1 R: I'm going to ask you about KMITNB. What is the campus like?
2 F: Um…it's small and many buildings. Uh...huh. And uh…many people
3 …uh…. (pause: 3 seconds) and **…**uh**…** (pause: 21 seconds) Uh…
4 "*Hong mun Noi*" (in English, "there are few classrooms").

(Pre-speaking task 1, p.15)

Example 2 (Task 2: Cartoon Description)

2 P: Picture 1, I see one man rides a bicycle. Uh… picture 2, I see one man
3 contact the car… (pause: 5 seconds) He can't to drive a bicycle. He falls
4 bicycle. And one man …uh… runs to help him. One man phones to the
5 hospital. Uh… (pause: 10 seconds) uh…one man one…the…his bicycle to

(Pre-speaking task 2, p.3)

Example 3 (Task 3: Topic Description)

3 K: vegetarianist. They call they is called *Jay*. In Thailand, is (pause: 6
4 seconds) October and Thai is called *Mung-Sa-Wi-Rus*. Uh… (pause: 6
5 seconds and stop talking).

(Pre-speaking task 3, p.33)

From the above examples, the students were able to use "pause fillers and hesitation devices" to fill their pauses and gain time to think when they completed the tasks. Although one-word fillers such as "um…" and "uh…" were used by the students many times in the above examples, there were also many pauses in their utterances. One possible explanation was that they were not fluent enough to speak English continuously and successfully so they paused for a long time and finally stopped talking.

To summarise, "pause fillers and hesitation devices" tended to be the most popular strategies used by the students in this study. Although the students were able to use these strategies in their pre-speaking tasks, they could use only one-word fillers and made many pauses in their utterances. Therefore, the practice of more phrases of "pause fillers and hesitation devices" may allow the students to gain time to think and employ these strategies appropriately at times of difficulty.

Students' use of pause fillers and hesitation devices after the CS instruction

As mentioned earlier, "pause fillers and hesitation devices" are the strategies that help the learners to fill pauses and gain time to think at times of difficulty. It seems that the teaching of "pause fillers and hesitation devices" has received little attention in the area of communication strategy instruction since most studies have emphasised more the teaching of achievement strategies such as "circumlocution" and "approximation" (e.g., Salamone & Marsal, 1997; Wongsawang, 2001; Rossiter, 2003; Wen, 2004). However, "pause fillers and hesitation devices" are useful since they allow the students to gain time to think and make them more confident in communicating in English. In the current study, 30 lexicalised fillers (see Appendix K) were introduced to the students, ranging from one-word utterances such as "well", "um" or "actually" to utterances like "you know" and "I mean".

Interestingly, the data showed that after the 12-week CS instruction there was a total increase of 442 instances of "pause fillers and hesitation devices" use in the post-speaking task recordings in comparison to "pause fillers and hesitation devices" use in

the pre-speaking task recordings. In addition, the students were able to use "pause fillers and hesitation devices" appropriately although this was the first time they had been taught to use them. They were more familiar and confident in using these strategies after they had the opportunity to practise using them during the 12-week CS instruction. However, it should be noted that the students employed only 6 out of 30 pause fillers and hesitation devices that were taught to them and they tried to avoid long pauses. In order to provide a clearer picture of how the students used these strategies in their talk, their use of "pause fillers and hesitation devices" has been analysed and displayed in the examples below.

Example 1 (Task 2: Cartoon Description)

1 R: Please describe the cartoon strip.
2 E: Yes. Uh… the first picture…uh…I think one day…uh…a man rides
3 bicycle. I think he goes to school because…uh…he's he
4 has…uh…backpack go with me. Ur-ie! go with him. Uh…huh. He's
5 ride…uh…bicycle along road. Uh…he go straight to three ways.

(Post-speaking task 2, pp.18-19)

Example 2 (Task 4: Conversation Task)

28 F: How much… Ur-ie! How much is cost… Ur-ie…is trip?
29 E: Um…I think…um…uh…5 thousand per person.
30 F: 5 thousand per person. Uh…I rest in 5 star hotel?
31 E: Oh!
32 F: And eat…uh…many foods. Yes.

(Post-speaking task 4, p.20)

In Examples 1 and 2, E and F used one-word fillers "um" and "uh…"many times to fill pauses and gain more time to think in their talk. They produced many one-word utterances in their talk and managed to avoid producing long pauses like they did in the pre-speaking tasks. One possible explanation for their use of one-word utterances is that the fillers "um" and "uh" might be easier and simpler for them to remember and these fillers might have been more familiar to them.

Apart from using "um" and "uh", the data showed that the students tried to use some taught fillers such as "Well" and "I see". The following examples show how they employed these fillers in Tasks 1 and 3.

Example 3 (Task 1: Oral Interview)

R: The campus means to King Mongkut Institute of Technology North Bangkok, your university. What is the campus like? Your opinion about KMITNB.

C: That…Well! Um.

R: Is it big or small…or is it good or….?

C: Oh! That's enough big for me. And the environment is so well. Um…I need more free clothes. I don't like to wear sneakers.

(Post-speaking task 1, pp.9-10)

Example 4 (Task 3: Topic Description)

B: it's…uh…happy feeling and who's them…uh…love… and ….um… I see...I think it's a…they have the family. And I plan a future I then think it's a good in my life. My life marriage and um….I think if two people not love with, I think the marriage is not.. not marriage.

(Post-speaking task 2, p.9)

From the above examples, we can see that C and B knew how to make use of "pause fillers and hesitation devices" after they attended the 12-week CS instruction. They tended to use various expressions of "pause fillers and hesitation devices" such as "uh", "um", "well" and "I see" to fill pauses as well as to gain more time to think. Interestingly, their ability to use "pause fillers and hesitation devices" laid not only in their appropriate choice of fillers but also in the application of various fillers to gain time to think. It should be noted that after the CS instruction the students might know how to apply these strategies in different situations.

In summary, the results of the post-speaking tasks showed that the students were able to use "pause fillers and hesitation devices" more frequently than they did in the pre-speaking tasks. However, they used only some pause fillers and hesitation devices that were taught to them in the CS instruction. It should be noted that the students more frequently used one-word fillers like "um" and "uh" than the utterances like "I see" in both pre- and post-speaking tasks. One possible explanation is that one-word fillers might be easier to remember and use so the students tended be more familiar to them. In addition, the other taught expressions in "pause fillers and hesitation devices" such as "Let me think" and "Hang on" were never used by the students although they were taught in the CS instruction. It is possible that these fillers were new and unfamiliar to them so they did not use these fillers in the post-speaking tasks. However, the results showed the students successfully used some taught fillers when they wanted more

time to think about an unknown word or phrase in English. They could maintain their conversation and enhance their fluency in speaking English. These results are in line with much of the previous research (Dornyei, 1995; Nakatani, 2005; Le, 2006), which found that the students tended to employ "pause fillers and hesitation devices" in order to gain time to think and maintain their conversation.

4.3.2.2 Approximation

Approximation is another strategy that the students use an alternative lexical term, such as a superordinate or a related term that expresses the closest meaning to the target word, e.g., "worm" for "silkworm" (Tarone, 1981; Tarone& Yule, 1989; Dornyei & Scott, 1997). In this study, the data demonstrated that the students also used "approximation" while performing the pre-and post-speaking tasks. The following are examples of students' use of "approximation" taken from the pre- and post-speaking task recordings.

Students' use of approximation prior to the CS instruction

In the current study, the data showed that the students used an approximation strategy in the pre-speaking tasks less frequently. There were 38 instances of approximation strategy phrases used by the students in the pre-speaking task recordings. However, it should be noted that the students tended to choose inappropriate words and this might lead to misunderstanding and confusion by the listeners, as seen in the following example.

Example 1 (Task 2: Cartoon description)

4 C: an accident… (pause: 5 seconds). His bicycle touch a the truck
5 and… he upside down and he injure. He cannot move his body.

(Pre-speaking task 2, p.9)

In Example 1, Student C tried to use alternative lexical terms to express his ideas in English. However, he seemed to use inappropriate words to express the meaning of the target words, e.g., the use of "touch" (line 4) for "bump into" and "upside down"

(line 5) for “fall down”. The use of these inappropriate words might cause the listener to misunderstand what he intended to say.

Another example of students’ use of a related term that is inappropriate is shown in Example 2 below when L tried to complete Task 4.

Example 2 (Task 4: Conversation task)

8 K: For morning we will go to the beach. Phuket.
9 L: Phuket?
10 K: Yes.
11 L: Cha-um? That’s right.
12 K: OK.
13 L: OK. Morning is…uh…transport to Cha-um.

(Pre-speaking task 4, p.33)

In Example 2, Students K and L discussed their holiday plan. L then suggested “OK. Morning is…uh…transport to Cha-um” (line 13). From this utterance, L used a related term “transport” (line 13) instead of “go by bus or coach”. However, the use of “transport” was not appropriate and might lead to misunderstanding.

In addition, some students displayed their ability to use “approximation” appropriately while performing the pre-speaking tasks. Student G, for example, attempted to express his ideas by using a related term, as seen in the following example.

Example 3 (Task 4: Conversation task)

16 H: Where do you eat?
17 G: Um…in in shop near beach.
18 H: Oh! Shop near beach…uh…I think we must…I think…uh…we…let’s
19 go to it. Let’s go there now.
20 G: Yes.

(Pre-speaking task 4, p.21)

From the above utterances, H and G discussed where they would have lunch. G then suggested the place when he stated “Um…in in shop near beach.” (line 17). From this utterance, G used a related term “shop” (line 17) instead of “restaurant” to express his ideas. A possible explanation is that he might forget the word and could not recall it so he resorted to a related term.

To summarise, the results from the pre-speaking tasks demonstrated that all the students were able to use "approximation" to refer to an unknown word in English before they attended the 12-week CS instruction. However, they tended to use inappropriate words to express the closest meaning to the target words. Therefore, the practice of more phrases of "approximation", to some extent, allows the students to use an alternative lexical term more appropriately.

Students' use of approximation after the CS instruction

As mentioned earlier, "approximation" is the strategy that allows the students to use an alternative lexical term such as a superordinate or a related term that has the closest meaning to the target word. In the current study, some useful synonyms and phrases for employment of "approximation" (see Appendix K) were introduced to the students. After the 12-week CS instruction, the frequency of "approximation" increased and the students tended to use a wide range of basic or core vocabulary they learned in class. There was a total increase of 116 instances of "approximation" use in the post-speaking task recordings in comparison to "approximation" use in the pre-speaking task recordings. In the following example, Student B used a related term when he tried to complete Task 4.

Example 1 (Task 4: Conversation Task)

38 P: And omelette.
39 B: I think you <u>do</u> fried rice and omelette with me.
40 P: OK. But now …um….I to cook the fried rice and omelette. OK?

(Post-speaking task 4, p.6)

As seen in the above example, B used "approximation" when he did not know what verb to use to express the target word in English. In using "approximation", he used an alternative term that had semantic features similar to those of the intended term. For instance, he employed the word "do" (line 39) to refer to the word "make" or "cook". B's use of the alternative term helped P, the interlocutor, understand what he meant eventually.

Apart from using related terms, the students also employed superordinate terms after the 12-week CS instruction, as seen in the following example.

Example 2 (Task 1: Oral Interview)

15 R: You don't like to wear sneakers?
16 C: Yes.
17 R: What do you want to wear?
18 C: I don't know how to call it. It's a free shoes…Um...
19 R: Sandals, right?
20 C: Maybe.

(Post-speaking task 1, p.10)

From the above example, Student C used a superordinate term "free shoes" to describe "sandals" when he stated "I don't know how to call it. It's a free shoes….Um…" (line 18). One possible explanation for his use of a general term is that a superordiate term is employed more easily than a related term. Generally, shoes and sandals share some similarities in terms of function and shape. Both of them are used for footwear and covering human feet.

Another example of students' use of superordinate term is shown in the following excerpt from Task 3 when Student C used "approximation" for describing a target word in English.

Example 3 (Task 3: Topic Description)

7 C: because I not knowledge I don't have knowledge about them. Um…but I
8 know some sometime he can eat the one of animal. They eat…um…about
9 the crab. I don't know how to call that kind. Um…I know it's only…I I

(Post-speaking task 3, p.12)

As can be seen from Example 3, Student C used a general term "one of animal" (line 8) to describe the term "oyster". In English, the word "animal" and "oyster" are related in such a way that "oyster" refers to a type of animal and "animal" is a general term that includes oyster and other types of animal. It is possible that a general term is employed more easily than a related term, which requires C to think about features similar to those of target lexical item. In addition, the use of the general term could help the listener guess the target word and understand what C meant.

In summary, the results from the post-speaking task recordings showed that the students used "approximation" much more than they did in the pre-speaking tasks. They were able to utilise both a related term like "do" and a superordinate term like

"one kind of animal" to describe the target word in English when they did not have the appropriate word to express their idea. It is possible that the teaching of some basic or core vocabulary in "approximation" might enhance students' linguistic resources. This view conforms to Tarone and Yule's (1989) remarks that ESL learners who are developing strategic competence in English are required to develop the linguistic resources like some basic vocabulary and sentences useful for describing (p.112).

4.3.2.3 Self–repair

Self-repair is the way the students make self-initiated corrections in their own speech (e.g., May I see…sorry? and Can I use this check?). In using this strategy, students correct or change their words in order to communicate the intended message when they realise their problem in completing a sentence. The following are some examples of self-repair employed by the students in the pre-and post-speaking tasks.

Students' use of self-repair prior to the CS instruction

Before the 12-week CS instruction, the data showed that the students were less aware of their mistakes when doing spontaneous speech. There were 33 instances of "self-repair" used by the students in the pre-speaking task recordings. However, it should be noted that even though they realised their mistakes, they still gave an inappropriate or insufficient message to support their correction, as seen in the following examples.

Example 1 (Task 3: Topic description)

4 B: every day I think. This group I think …<u>it</u>… (pause: 5seconds) they <u>have</u>
5 <u>a</u>...<u>they have very kind</u>…I… (pause: 5 seconds) ….I…uh…… (pause: 5
6 seconds) vegetarianism… (stop talking).

(Pre-speaking task 3, p.7)

Student B tried to correct his words by using "self-repair". In this task, B described and talked about "vegetarians". He realised that he made a mistake in his speech when he used incorrect pronoun to refer to a group of people. He, therefore, corrected his own word by changing the pronoun "it" to "they" to refer to a group of people (lines 4 and 5). However, he made a mistake again when he used an incorrect verb "<u>they have</u>

very kind..." (lines 4 and 5) for "they are very kind". This correction might help him to get the message across but it might be considered incorrect or inappropriate.

Another example of students' use of inappropriate phrases in "self-repair" is shown in Example 2.

Example 2 (Task 4: Conversation task)

25 K: OK. And sleeping
26 L: And…um…back to home back go home. OK. Yes.
27 K: Back go home. Yes.

(Pre-speaking task 4, p.33)

In Example 2, Student K employed "self-repair" to correct her own word when she said "And…um…back to home back go home." in line 26. However, her attempt to correct her own words was unsuccessful since she still made a mistake by using inappropriate words. Even though she realised the mistake she made in her speech, she could not manage to correct it appropriately when doing spontaneous speech in the pre-speaking tasks.

In summary, the results of the pre-speaking tasks showed that all 12 students used "self-repair" prior to the CS instruction. Even though they were aware of their mistake and attempted to make self-initiated correction by themselves, they still produced more error repairs in their own speech in the pre-speaking tasks.

Students' use of self-repair after the CS instruction

This section presents the results of students' use of "self-repair" after the 12-week CS instruction. In this study, there was a total increase of 81 instances of "self-repair" use in the post-speaking task recordings in comparison to "self-repair" use in the pre-speaking task recordings. The students frequently used a self-repair strategy when they realised their problem while communicating with others. In addition, it is interesting that the students were more confident in producing more repairs. Even though they made more errors, they tried to produce appropriate repairs by themselves, as seen in the following examples.

Example 1 (Task 1: Oral Interview)

12 P: I like library and computer room.
13 R: Library and computer room. Why?
14 P: I is I can find the information.
15 R: Information.

(Post-speaking task 1, p.1)

In Example 1, Student P used "self-repair" to correct her grammatical mistake when she realised there was something wrong with her speech. She tried to produce an appropriate repair when she stated "I is I can find the information." She seemed to be more aware of her mistake and tried to solve the problem by herself.

Another example of an appropriate repair used by the students is shown in the following example.

Example 2 (Task 2: Cartoon Description)

3 R: Tell me the story from the cartoon strips.
4 B: OK. Picture 1, I see the the man rides bicycle in in on the road. Picture 2,
5 the man who rides bicycle, it's can't see the truck. Uh…the man who rides
6 bicycle crash the truck.

(Post-speaking task 2, p.8)

In Example 2, Student B corrected his own mistake when he realised that he used an incorrect preposition. He then changed from "in" to "on the road" in line 4. He was more aware of the grammatical correct and also felt more concerned about the fluency of his speaking since he immediately corrected his mistake.

In the next example, the students showed more attempts to use "self-repair" to correct their own words.

Example 3 (Task 4: Conversation Task)

52 P: No. Yeah. Yeah. Yeah. Yeah. And what the what do you want to
53 drink, water, orange juice, milk,…um…Coca-cola?
54 B: Coca-cola.

(Post-speaking task 4, p.6)

From the above utterances, Students P and B discussed their plan at home. P uttered "what the what?" (line 52) and then realised that this phrase was erroneous and should

be “What do you want to drink” (lines 52 and 53). She then attempted to correct this syntactic error by herself.

In summary, the data from the post-speaking tasks revealed that the students showed more attempts to use “self-repair” when they realised that there was something wrong with their speech. They were more confident in correcting the mistake in their speech rather than ignoring it and also allowed the interlocutor to correct their mistake. Interestingly, “self-repair” in the subjects’ performance in the post-speaking tasks concerned grammatical aspects such as subject-verb agreement, tense and appropriate prepositions. It is possible that the awareness-raising of “self-repair” might make the students more confident in using this strategy when they faced oral communication difficulties in English.

4.3.2.4 Circumlocution

Circumlocution is the strategy where the students describe the property, function, characteristics, duty, purpose or example of the object or action instead of using the appropriate target language item or structure, e.g., “Something you put your food in to make it cold” (Tarone, 1981; Tarone & Yule, 1989; Dornyei & Thurrell, 1991). In using this strategy, the students tend to resort to their linguistic ability more than other strategies. In the current study, the results showed that when students lacked English vocabulary, they used simple English words to describe or exemplify the target meaning. The following are some examples taken from the pre- and post-speaking task recordings.

Students’ use of circumlocution prior to the CS instruction

Although circumlocution is often seen as the most important achievement strategy by many researchers (e.g., Tarone, 1984; Willems, 1987; Dornyei, 1995), the students less frequently used this strategy in the pre-speaking tasks in this study. There were only 25 instances of circumlocution strategy phrases used by the students in the pre-speaking task recordings. In order to better understand students’ language performance,

the following are some selected examples of students' use of "circumlocution" in the pre-speaking tasks.

Example 1 (Task 1: Oral Interview)

81 R: What does your father do?
82 P: My father is sick. He can't move.
83 R: Your father is sick right now. In the past, what did he do?
84 P: He's…uh….. (pause: 3 seconds) I don't know because he…..
85 (pause: 3 seconds).
86 R: What kind of job or what work did he do?
87 P: He worked everything.
88 R: Everything? He worked in the past, right?
89 P: Yes, he…ah …some someone …he sells …
90 R: He sells something. A seller?
91 P: Yes.

(Pre-speaking task 1, p.2)

In line 81, the researcher asked Student P her father's occupation. Instead of answering the question, P avoided talking about her father's occupation. She tried to explain that her father suffered from "paralysis" but she did not know the English word for "paralysis" (line 82). She then attempted to express the meaning of "paralysis" by turning to simple English words when she said "My father is sick. He can't move" in line 82. This explanation might help the listener understand what she meant eventually. Other examples of P's use of "circumlocution" were the utterances in lines 87 and 89 when she continued to explain her father's occupation to the interlocutor. In fact, P did not know how to say "employee" in English so she used "circumlocution" to explain this word again when she stated "He worked everything" in line 87 and "Yes, he…ah…some someone…he sells..." in line 89. However, she gave up talking when she did not know how to express the meaning of "employee" in English. These three examples revealed that P had to put more effort to communicate and make herself understood. She had to leave her messages unfinished and end her conversation at last when she could not explain the unknown words clearly (in line 89). P's lack of English vocabulary caused her to use "circumlocution" to achieve her goal. The conversation could have ended much earlier, if she had been able to explain the word "employee" clearly.

Another example of "circumlocution" is displayed in Student B's utterances when he tried to use "circumlocution" to describe his father's job in Task 1. Similarly to P, B used "circumlocution" to explain unknown words in English. In the following example, B gave some information about location and place when he did not know the word in English.

Example 2 (Task 1: Oral Interview)

68 R: Ah! I know. Including your father and mother. OK. What does your
69 father do?
70 B: Sell clothes in fashion, boutique.
71 R: Clothes, right? Where?
72 B: Market in… store…..
73 R: In department store?
74 B: Yes in department store.

(Pre-speaking task 1, p.6)

From the above conversation, B was asked about his father's job (lines 68 and 69). However, he did not know the English word for the job so he decided to describe the unknown words by giving information about products sold in his father's shop in line 70. Again, B's use of "circumlocution" was found in line 72 when he tried to describe where his father's shop situated. He did not know the English words for "department store" so he managed to give more information about the place and location by stating "Market in….store" in line 72. Although B missed some details in his description and did not convey the exact meaning of the words "department store", his utterance "Market in…store" could help the listener to understand what he meant eventually.

In summary, the data showed that the students made efforts to explain the unknown words using "circumlocution". They managed to give some information by exemplifying or describing the words. However, they tended to have more difficulties in explaining the words and they gave up talking when they were unable to explain the words in English.

Students' use of circumlocution after the CS instruction

As mentioned earlier, "circumlocution" is one main focus of CS instruction because it is often viewed as the most important achievement strategy (Dornyei, 1995: 66) that

can assist the students to express their ideas when facing a lexical deficit. Thus, the students were encouraged to practise using this strategy in the current study. Based on the post-speaking task recordings, the frequency of use of "circumlocution" increased after the 12-week CS instruction. There was a total increase of 71 instances of "circumlocution" use in the post-speaking task recordings in comparison to "circumlocution" use in the pre-speaking task recordings. The students tended to make use of a wide range of expressions in "circumlocution" to describe the unknown words. Moreover, there were more attempts to use "circumlocution" to communicate when facing communication difficulties rather than giving up explaining as in the pre-speaking tasks. The findings revealed that after the 12-week CS instruction the students were able to describe the target word by utilizing its various characteristics such as exemplification, function, location, and size. The following are the examples of "circumlocution" used in the post-speaking tasks.

In Example 1, Student C employed "circumlocution" to describe the unknown target word. The data showed that he used "circumlocution" to provide location and activities to reflect the intended meaning of the target word, as seen in the following example.

Example 1 (Task 1: Oral interview)

87 R: OK. What does your mother do?
88 C: My mother, she's …um…do something in my house about wash
89 clothes…um…cooking. Um…I don't know how to call it.
90 R: Housewife?
91 C: Oh! Yes.

(Post-speaking task 1, p.11)

From the above conversation, C was asked about his mother's career in line 87. However, he did not know the right word in English for "housewife" so he used "circumlocution" to describe the word. He described the activity and the location of the target word in his explanation when he stated "My mother, she's …um…do something in my house about wash clothes…um…cooking" (lines 88 and 89). Finally, his explanation was clear enough to make the interlocutor understand what he tried to say.

Another example of "circumlocution" used by the students was found in the following example. Student B employed "circumlocution" to explain the size and shape of the target words or objects.

Example 2 (Task 1: Oral interview)

77 R: Last question, what is your mother like?
78 B: Mother's like? She's long hair.
79 R: She has long hair.
80 B: Long hair, black hair and black eyes. Um…she's tanned skin.
81 R: She has tanned skin like you, right?
82 B: Yes. Yes. Like like me and she no tall and no short.
83 R: No tall and no short? Medium..?
84 B: Medium medium. And she no fat and no thin. Um…medium body.
85 R: She's not fat and not thin?
86 B: Yes.

(Post-speaking task 1, p.8)

In the above utterances, Student B used "circumlocution" by providing sizes to explain the unknown words in English (lines 82 and 84). Instead of saying "medium height", B stated "she no tall and no short". Again he tried to describe the word "medium build" in line 84 but he did not have those target words to express his ideas. As a result, he used "circumlocution" to explain the unknown words by saying "And she no fat and no thin" (line 84).

Apart from utilising the location of the target word to describe the unknown words, the students also used function of the object to explain the word in English, as shown in the following example.

Example 3 (Task 4: Conversation Task)

25 H: Uh…I I I I think…uh…I I will…uh…buy…uh…scuba dive.
26 G: Huh? Scuba dive?
27 H: Yes. It's used for…uh..see see see the sea see the water {use hands to show
28 "goggles"}.
29 G: Orr. Yes. Yes.

(Post-speaking task 4, p.28)

As seen in Example 3, Student H used "circumlocution" to describe "goggles" (line 27). He introduced the function of the object when he stated "It's used for…uh…see

see see the sea see the water" in line 27. This explanation of the object's function could give G a general concept of the thing and he finally understood what H meant.

In summary, the results from the post-speaking task recordings showed that the students used "circumlocution" much more than they did in the pre-speaking tasks. They showed more attempts to employ a circumlocution strategy to solve their English vocabulary deficit and explain the unknown words in English. Rather than giving up talking earlier as they did in the pre-speaking tasks, the students tended to make use of certain taught expressions in "circumlocution" and make various choices of the target word's characteristics, i.e., exemplification, function, location, activity, size, shape and colour. These results indicated that the students tended to improve their circumlocution ability since they seemed to have more advanced vocabulary knowledge to describe after the 12-week CS instruction. It is possible that the teaching of some core words or expressions may be useful for the students to solve their vocabulary deficit. This view is in line with Tarone and Yule (1989), who comment that the students who use "circumlocution" are required to use some basic or core vocabulary and sentence structures in order to describe characteristics, properties and function of a target language word (p.112).

4.3.2.5 Confirmation check

Confirmation check is the strategy where the students repeat the words that the interlocutor has said to confirm what they heard is correct or not (e.g., You mean…, right?, So you mean…?). The examples of "confirmation check" taken from the recordings of the pre-and post-speaking tasks are presented below.

Students' use of confirmation check prior to the CS instruction

Before the 12-week CS instruction, the results showed that some students were able to employ a confirmation check strategy in their talk. There were 29 instances of "confirmation check" used by the students in the pre-speaking task recordings. However, it should be noted that the students repeated only the part of the interlocutor's preceding utterances to confirm their understanding. The following are

examples of students' use of "confirmation check" which emerged in the pre-speaking tasks.

Example 1 (Task1: Oral Interview)

62 R: Have you ever been to the fitness centre?
63 P: Fitness? Fitness, here or…?
64 R: Yes, or anywhere else.
65 P: I never. (Pre-speaking task 1, p.2)

Example 2 (Task3: Topic Description)

1 R: Could you please talk about "marriage"?
2 E: "Marriage"? Uh…huh. Marriage, I think marriage means…uh…two
3 persons…uh…man and woman…uh…two persons love…uh…and…uh…

(Pre-speaking task 3, p.15)

In Example 1, Student P used a confirmation check strategy by repeating the word "fitness" (line 63) because she was not sure if the word she heard was correct or not. This strategy helped her understand the question when the interlocutor confirmed what she heard was right. In Example 2, Student E was asked to describe the abstract topic about "marriage". However, he was not sure about the word he had heard so he repeated the word "marriage" to confirm whether he was right or not in line 2. This strategy might help him feel more confident and continue his talk with the interlocutor.

To summarise, the results showed that some students were able to use "confirmation check" before they attended the 12-week CS instruction. They used "confirmation check" when they did not sufficiently understand what was said by the interlocutor. They sometimes repeated the part of the interlocutor's words or utterances if they were unsure whether they were right.

Students' use of confirmation check after the CS instruction

As mentioned earlier, "confirmation check" is the strategy that allows the students to check what they heard is correct or not. This section reveals the results of students' use of "confirmation check" after 12-week CS instruction. In the current study, some useful phrases in "confirmation check" (see Appendix K) were introduced to the students. After the 12-week CS instruction, the data showed that there was a total increase of 66 instances of "confirmation check" use in the post-speaking task

recordings in comparison to "confirmation check" use in the pre-speaking task recordings. The students tended to be more confident in using some taught phrases in "confirmation check" when they did not understand and were unsure what interlocutors have said to them. The following are some examples of students' use of some taught phrases in "confirmation check" after the CS instruction.

Example 1 (Task 1: Oral Interview)

103 R: So your mother is a teacher in the pre-primary school or in the kindergarten.
104 OK. What is your mother like?
105 D: Um…sorry you you ask me about she looks like?
106 R: Yeah.

(Post-speaking task 1, p.15)

From the above conversation, Student D used the taught expressions in "confirmation check". Since she was not sure about the question, she attempted to rephrase the question according to her understanding when she stated "Um…sorry you you ask me about she looks like" (line 105). This repeat would make the interlocutor understand and restate her question.

Apart from Example 1, the students also used "confirmation check" when they tried to refer to the response of the interlocutor's utterances to confirm their understanding, as seen in Example 2 below.

Example 2 (Task 4: Conversation Task)

20 B: But I I don't like play game online. I like play computer game manual, not
21 online.
22 P: Oh! It it's like Play two (Play station two)?
23 B: Yes. Yes. Yes. Uh…huh. I don't like online game.

(Post-speaking task 4, p.5)

From the above example, Students B and P discussed their plan at home and B talked about a computer game. However, P was not sure about the kind of game B mentioned to. Thus she employed a confirmation check strategy by repeating the words and checking her understanding when she stated "Oh! It it's like Play two" (line 22). Finally, she was confirmed by B that what she had heard was correct and this made her more confident in continuing her conversation.

In Example 3, another pair of students talked about their plans at the beach and one of them used a confirmation check strategy in his talk by repeating all or part of the interlocutor's preceding utterances.

Example 3 (Task 4: Conversation Task)

11 G: Oh! Yes. I I like. Uh…after I eat seafood and you we…uh…I and you go to
12 to the the beach. You want go to the beach?
13 H: You you mean…uh…before eat seafood, they what do you do? (laugh)

(Post-speaking task 4, p.28)

From the above conversation, Student G suggested that they would go to the beach after they finished their meal. However, Student H wanted to check whether he was right or not about the plan so he rephrased G's utterances. Even though H misunderstood a bit about the plan, they ignored it and continued their conversation.

In summary, the results from the post-speaking tasks showed that a confirmation check strategy was used by all students when they did not sufficiently understand what was said by their interlocutor. They repeated all or part of the interlocutor's utterances and sometimes provided other words. In addition, they showed more attempts to use some taught phrases in "confirmation check" in the post-speaking tasks. The teaching of "confirmation check" might give the students more confidence in using this strategy in order to continue their conversation and negotiate the meaning with their interlocutor.

4.3.2.6 Topic avoidance

Topic avoidance is the strategy that the students avoid talking about particular topics because they may require vocabulary or structures which they do not know (e.g., "I can't talk about this" or "Let's change the topic"). In using this strategy, specific topics or words are avoided to the best of the learners' ability (Bialystok, 1990: 40). The following are the examples elicited from the recordings of the pre-and post-speaking tasks.

Students' use of topic avoidance prior to the CS instruction

In the pre-speaking tasks, the data showed that the students rarely used "topic avoidance". There were only 7 instances of "topic avoidance" used by the students in the pre-speaking task recordings. In order to better understand students' language performance, the following are some examples of students' use of "topic avoidance" in the pre-speaking tasks.

Example 1 (Task 1: Oral Interview)

69 R: How about your mother?
70 D: Teacher.
71 R: In what subject?
72 D: Uh….. (pause: 5 seconds). I don't know……. (pause: 5 seconds)

(Pre-speaking task 1, p.12)

As seen in Example 1, Student D tried not to talk in more specific detail about her mother's job because she did not know any vocabulary or structure to use in that topic. Therefore, she decided to stop talking about it by stating "I don't know" (line 72). In her retrospective verbal report, D also revealed that she avoided talking about her mother's job because she was unsure about the question and she did not know the English word for the courses taught by her mother.

Topic avoidance was also found in Task 3 when the students were asked to describe a given abstract topic.

Example 2 (Task 3: Topic Description)

8 G: Nuts…um… (pause: 9 seconds)…uh….have (pause: 12) have…uh…
9 vegetarians have have have a calcium…uh…vitamin (pause: 15 seconds
10 and give up talking).

(Pre-speaking task 3, p.21)

From the above example, Student G was unable to continue his speaking since he did not know how to express his ideas and explain abstract topic "vegetarianism" (lines 9 and 10). In his retrospection, G revealed that he mentioned about vitamin because he did not know how to call some kinds of vegetables in English. Finally, he kept silent for a long time, decided to stop talking and ended the conversation.

In summary, the data showed that "topic avoidance" was used less frequently by the students in the pre-speaking task recordings. In using this strategy, the students simply did not respond at all by stating "I don't know", changed the topic and abandoned a message when they could not express their ideas in English. However, it should be noted that the students seemed to be unfamiliar with "topic avoidance" since sometimes they still kept silent and paused for a long time.

Students' use of topic avoidance after the CS instruction

This section presents the results of students' use of "topic avoidance" in the post-speaking tasks. The data showed that the students increased their use of "topic avoidance" after the 12-week CS instruction. There was a total increase of 52 instances of "topic avoidance" use in the post-speaking task recordings in comparison to "topic avoidance" use in the pre-speaking task recordings. The students tended to be more aware of using this strategy when they wanted to maintain a conversation with their interlocutors. The following are examples of "topic avoidance" used by the students after the CS instruction.

In Example 1, H employed "topic avoidance" in his talk when he could not explain what he wanted in Task 1.

Example 1 (Task 1: Oral Interview)

23 H: I I I don't like…uh…environment.
24 R: Environment?
25 H: Yeah. Uh….because…um…it's…it's…uh…because
26 it's…uh…I…uh…I…uh… (laugh) (pause: 3 seconds) <u>I nothing.</u>
27 R: OK. You have no idea, right? Where do you like going on the campus or
28 where do you like to go to?

(Post-speaking task 1, p.29)

From the above example, H was asked what he did not like about his university. He then tried to answer this question by mentioning about "environment". Even though he tried to express his ideas in more detail, he still could not complete his message. However, he decided to give up talking by saying "I nothing" (line 26). This attempt signalled the listener to shift to a new question or issue and helped both of them to maintain their conversation.

Apart from H's utterances, the analysis of the speaking tasks revealed that the use of "topic avoidance" proved to be useful when the students felt they lacked vocabulary to get their message across, as seen in Example 2.

Example 2 (Task 2: Cartoon Description)

15 P: …van hospital is coming to help him. And I can see the picture4…um…the
16 hospital man. I don't know he's a doctor, I don't know…uh…I can call him
17 the hospital man?

(Post-speaking task 2, p.4)

As can be seen from Example 2, Student P attempted to describe the cartoon pictures as much as she could. However, she could not complete her message because she was unsure about the vocabulary to use. Therefore, she avoided talking about that word and stated "I don't know" twice in line 16. She, then, gained more time to think. Finally, the interlocutor understood and waited for her answer.

There was also some evidence of students' use of "topic avoidance" in Task 3 when the students were asked to describe an abstract topic.

Example 3 (Task 3: Topic Description)

5 C: … Ur-ie! They will…um…move close to the God. Um...(pause: 3 seconds)
6 I don't know how to explain it because I not knowledge I don't have
7 knowledge about them…Um…but I know some sometime he can eat
8 the one of animal. They eat..um…about the crab. I don't know how
9 to call that kind. Um…I know it's only…I I don't know for it more
10 than that. Um…I finish this topic now.

(Post-speaking task 3, p.12)

In this task, Student C was asked to talk about the given topic "vegetarianism". Since this topic was difficult to explain, C tried to gain more time to think about what he wanted to say by avoiding talking about the topic in his first utterances (lines 6 and 7). Finally he continued his talk and ended his conversation after he had nothing to say more about the topic (lines 9and 10). Although he could not finish his messages, his use of "topic avoidance" made the interlocutor understand him. Thus, the use of "topic avoidance" proved to be useful for students' lack of linguistic knowledge and gave them more time to think.

To summarise, the results of the post-speaking tasks showed that students' use of "topic avoidance" increased after the 12-week CS instruction. The students attempted not to keep silent or give up talking when they did not know how to express their ideas in English. They seemed to be more familiar with "topic avoidance" and tried to use it to gain more time to think and maintain their conversation. For example, they sometimes said "I don't know", changed the topic, and abandoned the message when it was difficult to express the ideas in English for something. They sometimes pretended not to understand what the interlocutor said and asked the interlocutor back. It is possible that using "topic avoidance" might provide students with more time to think and they could remain in the conversation. This view conforms to Dornyei's (1995) remarks that the teaching of CSs like "topic avoidance" may provide the students with "a sense of security in the L2 by allowing them room to manoeuvre in times of difficulty" (p.80). At least, using "topic avoidance" may encourage the students to try and remain in the conversation and achieve their communication goal (Dornyei, ibid: 80).

4.3.2.7 Appeal for help

Appeal for help is the strategy where the students ask for assistance from the interlocutor when they face communication problems (e.g., What do you call…?, How do you say…?). In using this strategy, the students may consult any source of authority such as a native speaker, an experimenter, or a dictionary (Bialystok, 1990: 42). The examples of "appeal for help" taken from the recordings of the pre-and post-speaking tasks are presented below.

Students' use of appeal for help prior to the CS instruction

Prior to the 12-week CS instruction, the results showed that the students hardly used an appeal for help strategy in their talk. There were only 2 instances of "appeal for help" used by the students in the pre-speaking task recordings. The following are the examples of students' use of "appeal for help" taken from the pre-speaking task recordings.

Example 1 (Task 1: Oral Interview)

15 R: How about the places? The places?
16 D: The places? Uh…… (pause: 5 seconds) I don't know the places. How
17 do you spell?

(Pre-speaking task 1, p.11)

In this task, Student D tried to answer the question but it seemed that she was unsure about the question. Therefore, she asked the researcher to spell the word again when she stated "How do you spell?" in lines 16 and 17. This direct asking made the listener understand what D wanted so she repeated her question again.

Another example of an appeal for help strategy is displayed in the following example. Student N tried to ask for assistance from the interlocutor in Task 3.

Example 2 (Task 3: Topic Description)

6 N: but…uh…slim {use his hands to show the word "slim"}.
7 And… (pause: 3seconds) have a …uh... What does it mean *Prayote*
8 in English?
9 R: Useful?
10 N: Yes. Useful for…uh…for health for….

(Pre-speaking task 3, p.27)

From the above utterances, Student N asked the researcher for assistance since he did not know the word "useful" in English. In lines 7 and 8, he switched to Thai word when he stated "What does it mean *Prayote* in English?" Although his question was unclear and grammatically wrong, he showed his attempt to ask for assistance. Finally, he could continue his talk with the interlocutor.

The above examples showed that prior to the CS instruction "appeal for help" was less frequently used by the students to solve their communication problems. It seemed that the students were not accustomed to asking for help and they were not proficient enough to ask the questions back when they did not know or did not understand the particular words.

Students' use of appeal for help after the CS instruction

There was a total increase of 31 instances of "appeal for help" use in the post-speaking task recordings in comparison to "appeal for help" use in the pre-speaking task recordings. The students tended to be more confident in using this strategy when they wanted to maintain their conversation with interlocutors. In addition, they tried to use more taught phrases in "appeal for help" when they faced a difficulty in getting their meaning across. The following are examples of "appeal for help" employed by the students after the CS instruction.

Example 1 (Task 1: Oral Interview)

87 R: OK. What does your mother do?
88 C: My mother, she's …um…do something in my house about wash
89 clothes…um…cooking. Um…I don't know how to call it.
90 R: Housewife?
91 C: Oh! Yes.

(Post-speaking task 1, p.11)

As seen in Example 1, C did not know the English word for "housewife" so he tried to express his ideas and then asked the interlocutor for help when he stated "I don't know how to call it" in line 89. His effort of explanation and direct asking helped him to succeed in getting his messages across eventually.

Apart from C's utterances, there was also some evidence of "appeal for help" used by other students, as seen in Example 2.

Example 2 (Task 2: Cartoon Description)

8 N: Um…uh…the man is a…um…what does it mean…uh… {use hands for
9 "crash"}?
10 R: Crash?
11 N: Crash. Yeah. The man is crash the truck but…uh…the one man he calls to
12 the hospital. Yes,…uh…and hospital car hospital comes to here

(Post-speaking task 2, p.34)

In Example 2, Student N described four cartoon pictures. However, he did not know the word "crash" in English. Therefore he asked the interlocutor for help when he asked "what does it mean…uh" (lines 8 and 9). Finally, he was successful in getting

the message across since the interlocutor understood what he meant and offered him assistance.

Interestingly, an appeal for help strategy tended to be accompanied by code-switching sometimes. That is, the students were likely to switch to Thai so that their interlocutors would know the words they did not have English vocabulary for, as seen in Example 3 below.

Example 3 (Task 3: Topic Description)

4 F: Uh…huh. Chinese Lent Festival don't eat…uh…meat, milk…uh…huh…
5 eggs and them go to temple, Chinese Chinese temple. Uh…huh. Uh… and
6 them don't…in Thai what would you call *Pa Ti Bhat*? (In English,
7 practice)
8 R: *Pa Ti Bhat*? Practice?

(Post-speaking task 3, pp.23-24)

From the above example, Student F asked the interlocutor for assistance when he did not have the English word for "practice". He then asked the researcher for help when he said "what would you call *Pa Ti Bhat*?" in line 6. Since such a term seemed to be difficult to explain in English, he switched to Thai so that the researcher would know the word in English. Finally, he could get the meanings across and continued his talk.

To summarise, these findings showed that the students tended to be more accustomed to using direct asking since they increased their use of "appeal for help" after the CS instruction. They made more use of some taught direct asking in "appeal for help", for example, "what would you call..." and "I don't know how to call it". It is possible that the teaching of "appeal for help" may give the students more confidence in speaking English. In addition, rather than giving up talking, they seemed to put more efforts to ask for assistance from the interlocutor and continued their talk.

4.3.2.8 Clarification request

Clarification request is the strategy where the students used to request the explanation of an unfamiliar meaning structure (e.g., Again, please! or Pardon?). The examples of

clarification request taken from the recordings of the pre-and post-speaking tasks are presented below.

Students' use of clarification request prior to the CS instruction

In the current study, the data showed that the students less frequently employed "clarification request" in their talk. There were only 12 instances of "clarification request" used by the students in the pre-speaking task recordings. The following are the examples of students' use of "clarification request" in the pre-speaking tasks.

Example 1 (Task 1: Oral Interview)

10 R: OK. What do you think about KMITNB? I mean for example,
11 the places, buildings.
12 B: No, it… Again again.

(Pre-speaking task 1, p.5)

As seen in Example 1, Student B used "Again, again." to ask the interlocutor to clarify and repeat her words since he did not understand the question. It should be noted that B used "Again, again." instead of using a more appropriate expression "Again, please!" when he tried to request the explanation.

Besides, sometimes the students used long phrases or sentences to ask for explanation from the interlocutor, as seen in Example 2 below.

Example 2 (Task 1: Oral Interview)

44 R: What are your hobbies?
45 N: What does it mean "hobby"?

(Pre-speaking task 1, pp.5-6)

In Example 2, Student N used "clarification request" to ask for explanation of an unfamiliar word "hobby" when he asked "What does it mean hobby?" Since he knew that his interlocutor was more proficient in English than him, he asked her to clarify and explain the word for him. These results showed that before the CS instruction, some students could employ "clarification request" though they have never learned to use this strategy.

In summary, the data showed that some students were able to use "clarification request" before they attended the CS instruction class. However, there was one case in which the use of "clarification request" might be considered inappropriate. That is, one student said "Again, again." rather than "Again, please!" to ask for clarification from the interlocutor. However, the use of "Again, again." was acceptable and understandable since the interlocutor agreed to clarify and repeat her words.

Students' use of clarification request after the CS instruction

In the current study, there was a total increase of 11 instances of "clarification request" use in the post-speaking task recordings in comparison to "clarification request" use in the pre-speaking task recordings. These results showed that the students hardly used "clarification request" when they faced communication problems. The following are examples of "clarification request" employed by the students after the 12-week CS instruction.

Example 1 (Task 1: Oral Interview)

32 R: In Engineering building. OK. What are your classes like? What are
33 your classes like?
34 H: Uh… (pause: 5 seconds) I I think that…um…it's (pause: 5 seconds)
35 um…<u>Could you explain the meaning?</u>

(Post-speaking task 1, p.29)

In this example, Student H employed "clarification request" to ask the interlocutor to explain the unfamiliar meaning of the question "What are your classes like?" Since he was confused and did not understand the question, he stopped explaining and asked "Could you explain the meaning?" in line 35. From this example, it seemed that H felt more confident in using the taught expression in "clarification request" when he used it to ask the interlocutor back.

In Example 2, the students showed more attempts to use phrases of "clarification request" they learned from the CS instruction class.

Example 2 (Task 1: Oral Interview)

28 R: Alright. Where do you like going on the campus?
29 N: Um…uh…I don't understand. Please speak again.

(Post-speaking task 1, p.32)

As seen in Example 2, Student N employed a clarification request strategy in his talk when he stated "I don't understand. Please speak again." In this case, Student N did not understand the researcher's question so he asked the researcher to clarify the question immediately. These results suggest that the practice of "clarification request" might make the students feel more confident in taking risks to use the taught strategies when they had communication difficulties.

The use of "clarification request" was also found in students' performance in Task 4, as seen in Example 3.

Example 3 (Task 4: Conversation Task)

23 B: Yes. Yes. Yes. Uh…huh. I don't like online game.
24 P: What's the kind of game?
25 B: Um…
26 P: Action?
27 B: Action and Sport Sport games.

(Post-speaking task 4, p.5)

In Example 3, Students P and B discussed a kind of game they would play at home. In line 24, P was not sure what game B mentioned so she asked B to explain and specify the kind of game they would play together. P solved her communication problem by applying the phrases in "clarification request" she has studied. Finally, she could maintain the conversation with her interlocutor.

To summarise, the data from the post-speaking tasks revealed that the students showed more attempts to use "clarification request" after they attended the CS instruction. They tended to use "clarification request" more appropriately and became more confident in using this strategy when they made it clear that they did not understand the interlocutor's words or utterances. They, for example, stated "Could you explain the meaning?" and "I don't understand. Please speak again." However, the students tended to less frequently make use of "clarification request" although they had already

received the CS instruction. One possible explanation was that they rarely used "clarification request" in their talk. In addition, it was possible that the nature of tasks might influence and affect the students' use of "clarification request". That is, the students tended to use "clarification request" in an oral interview and a conversation task more frequently than they did in a cartoon description task and a topic description task.

4.3.2.9 Comprehension check

Comprehension check is the strategy where the students ask questions to check whether the interlocutor understands what they have said or not (e.g., Right?, OK?, Do you understand?). The examples of "comprehension check" taken from the recordings of the pre-and post-speaking tasks are presented below.

Students' use of comprehension check prior to the CS instruction

Before the CS instruction, the results showed that the students hardly employed "comprehension check" in their talk. There were only 3 instances of "comprehension check" used by the students in the pre-speaking task recordings. In order to understand more about students' use of "comprehension check", the following are the examples which emerged in the pre-speaking tasks.

Example 1 (Task 4: Conversation Task)

25 D: How do you go by bus, by car, by….?
26 C: By train?
27 D: By train. Yeah.
28 C: OK?
29 D: Yeah, I want to go to, I want to go to.

(Pre-speaking task 4, p.10)

As seen in Example 1, Students D and C discussed how to go to the beach. C suggested that they should go to the beach by train. However, D was reluctant to agree with C's suggestion. Therefore, C used a phrase "OK?" (line 28) to check whether D agreed or understood what he has said or not. Finally, D agreed with him and repeated that she really wanted to go by train.

The similar phenomenon of students' use of "comprehension check" is shown in Example 2. Two students talked about their plan at home.

Example 2 (Task 4: Conversation Task)

15 L: Have lunch? Yeah.
16 K: Yes. (Both of them pause for 4 seconds)
17 L: Have lunch. Um… and sing a song with my friend. OK?
18 K: OK. And late afternoon swimming.

(Pre-speaking task 4, p.33)

From Example 2, Students L and K talked about their plan at home. In confirming K's comprehension, L suggested his plan and stated "OK?" (line 17) to check whether K understood what he said or not. Finally, K's answer made L more confident in continuing his conversation. It should be noted that the phrase "OK?" tended to be useful and familiar to the students before they received the CS instruction.

In summary, the results of the pre-speaking tasks revealed that "comprehension check" was rarely used by the students and only four students in this study were able to use this strategy. From the above examples, the students employed only the word "OK?" in order to check whether the interlocutor understood what they said. It is possible that "comprehension check" was new to them so they were not familiar with using this strategy in their conversation.

Students' use of comprehension check after the CS instruction

In the present study, there was a total increase of 12 instances of "comprehension check" use in the post-speaking task recordings in comparison to "comprehension check" use in the pre-speaking task recordings. The students used "comprehension check" when they tried to make themselves clearly understood by the interlocutor. The following are examples of "comprehension check" employed by the students after the 12-week CS instruction.

Example 1 (Task 1: Oral Interview)

108 R: Your family is small. Alright. What does your father do?
109 P: Uh…my father is…uh… paralytic, P-A-R-A-L-Y-T-I-C.
110 R: Paralytic.

111 P: He can't move.

(Post-speaking task 1, p.3)

As seen in Example 1, Student P tried to explain her father's sickness to the interlocutor. However, she was not sure whether the interlocutor understood what she said or not so she decided to spell the word "paralytic" (line 109). From this example, P showed her attempts to confirm the interlocutor's comprehension by expressing herself more clearly.

Another example of students' use of "comprehension check" is shown in Example 2 below.

Example 2 (Task 4: Conversation Task)

15 P: Play games. Game computer.
16 B: Computer?
17 P: Uh…it's a game online. Do you know?
18 B: That that's a good idea.

(Post-speaking task 4, p.5)

From the above conversation, Students P and B discussed the kind of computer game they would play together. It seemed that B did not understand what P meant. Therefore, P repeated her words again and used the expression "Do you know?" to confirm B's understanding. Finally, B understood what P tried to tell him and they continued their talk.

In Example 3, the students tried to employ "comprehension check" to maintain their conversation and check the interlocutor's comprehension.

Example 3 (Task 4: Conversation Task)

41 D: OK. Um…when when we start?
42 C: Um…a on this Saturday. Alright?
43 D: Saturday? Yeah. OK. Start on Saturday.

(Post-speaking task 4, p.13)

As seen in Example 3, Student C used a taught expression in "comprehension check". He stated "Alright?" in order to check whether D clearly understood what he said. Finally, D got what C meant. She then repeated and rephrased C's words to confirm her understanding. Interestingly, both D and C could maintain their conversation and

were more confident in applying some expressions they learned from the CS instruction.

In summary, the data from the post-speaking tasks showed that the students were more confident and more familiar with using a comprehension check strategy since they increased their use of this strategy in their task performance. They tended to make use of some taught expressions in "comprehension check" such as "Alright?" and "Do you know?" In using this strategy, the students might feel more confident in discussing and making themselves clearly understood by the interlocutor.

4.3.2.10 Summary of section 4.3: Analysis of speaking tasks

In this section, the analysis of students' performance in four speaking tasks has been presented and discussed to reveal the types of taught CSs employed by the students. That is, students' performance in employing nine taught CSs, which were pause fillers and hesitation devices, approximation, self-repair, circumlocution, confirmation check, topic avoidance, appeal for help, clarification request and comprehension check, was investigated to see whether they could use them more frequently and effectively after the 12-week CS instruction. Overall, the results have shown that the students successfully used nine taught CSs in the CS instruction. They transferred all nine taught CSs to their speech while performing the four speaking tasks after they received the 12-week CS instruction. The findings from the present analysis supported the value of teaching CSs.

Regarding "pause fillers and hesitation devices", the students most frequently employed these strategies in both pre-and post-speaking tasks. They seemed to successfully use these strategies to gain more time to think about an unknown word or phrase in English. In addition, they used these strategies to maintain their conversation, fill pauses and enhance their fluency in speaking English.

With respect to "approximation", the data have shown that all the students were able to employ this strategy appropriately. This can be seen in their ability to select a

related term or superordinate term when they lacked an English word to express their ideas.

Considering “self-repair”, the students more frequently used this strategy to correct mistakes they made in their own speech in post-speaking tasks. They became more aware of accurate and appropriate use of English language and grammar in their own utterances. In addition, they were more confident in using this strategy when they faced communication difficulties in speaking English.

As for “circumlocution”, the data have shown that all the students tended to improve their circumlocution ability after they received the CS instruction. The success of students’ use of “circumlocution” can be seen from their selection of certain characteristics and properties that can describe target words in English appropriately and efficiently. Rather than giving up talking, they attempted to use “circumlocution” to get the meaning across when faced vocabulary deficits. These results conform to Dornyei’s (1995) remarks that “the success of a circumlocution does not depend on its length on the speech rate it delivered at but rather on whether the listener can identify the target word described” (p.70).

As shown in the data, the utilisation of “topic avoidance” increased after the 12-week CS instruction. The students seemed to be more familiar with “topic avoidance” and used it to gain more time to think, solve their communication breakdown and remain in the conversation.

In terms of “appeal for help”, the students increased their use of this strategy after they received the CS instruction. The results have shown that they were more confident in directly asking for assistance from their interlocutor when they lacked an English word or phrase to express their ideas.

With regard to the success of using “confirmation check”, “comprehension check” and “clarification request”, the students were more confident in using these strategies to continue their conversation, make themselves clearly understood and try to negotiate the meaning with the interlocutor after the 12-week CS instruction. However, it should

be noted that the success of using these strategies depended not only on the students themselves but also whether the interlocutors could understand what meaning the students tried to convey.

This section has reported the analysis of discourse data from students' performance in the four speaking tasks. The next section presents findings of retrospective verbal reports.

Section 4.4

Results of retrospective verbal reports of 12 students before and after communication strategy instruction

4.4 Retrospective verbal reports of 12 students before and after the CS instruction

The previous section presented the impact of the CS instruction on students' actual use of CSs in the task performance. This section goes beyond the initial evidence by investigating the students' thought processes while completing the speaking tasks. The study on retrospective verbal reports aims to provide possible answers for research question 3: Can the students identify the types of communication strategies they use in the speaking tasks? If yes, how do they explain their reasons for strategy use in the retrospective verbal reports? This method can provide the researcher with some useful information regarding how and why learners choose some specific strategies. The presentation of the retrospective verbal reports consists of two main parts. The first part describes the procedure for the retrospective verbal reports. The second part presents the findings of the reported strategy use in the speaking tasks to reveal what students thought when they faced communication difficulties and how they reacted to their communication problems.

4.4.1 The procedures of the retrospective verbal reports

As described in Chapter three, twelve students were asked to verbally report and review their performances. To minimise memory loss, they were individually interviewed by the researcher soon after the completion of the task. During the retrospective verbal reports, the videotaped sessions were played back to the students. They had been told that they would be invited to comment on their behaviour at any time they wanted while watching their videotaped performances in the pre-and post-speaking tasks. Occasionally, the researcher paused the videotape and asked a recall question like "What was at the back of your mind at that moment?" Each retrospective verbal report was conducted in Thai to facilitate reporting and was audio-taped. There were 96 individual retrospective verbal reports (from 4 different tasks) altogether. Then the 96 retrospective verbal reports were translated into English and transcribed for analysis (see section 3.7.3). The transcripts were coded for the appearance of CSs by using the taxonomy presented in Chapter three.

A similar process as before was undertaken to assess the reliability in coding the retrospective verbal data. The inter-coder reliability coefficients for the retrospective verbal reports before and after the CS instruction were 0.81 and 0.91 respectively, which indicated the high coding agreement (see Appendix O).

4.4.2 Findings of retrospective verbal reports

4.4.2.1 The frequency of reported communication strategies from the retrospective verbal reports

This section presents the frequency of CSs reported by 12 students in the retrospective verbal reports before and after the CS instruction. The purpose of presenting these findings was to examine whether the teaching of nine specific CSs would increase students' ability to identify types of CSs in their retrospective verbal reports.

Findings by the whole sample of taught and non-taught CSs

Table 4.12 below compares the frequencies of 12 students' verbal reports of CSs coded as "taught" and "non-taught" strategies.

Table 4.12 Comparison of total frequencies of reported CSs coded as "taught" and "non-taught" CSs in the pre- and post- CS instruction.

CSs	Frequencies	
	Pre-CS instruction	Post-CS instruction
Taught CSs	24	274
Non-taught CSs	85	9
Total frequencies	109	283
Mean frequency per student	9.08	23.58

As seen in Table 4.12, the total frequency of taught and non-taught CSs reported in the pre- and post-CS instruction was 109 and 283 respectively. The mean frequency count per student (bottom of Table 4.12) ranged from 9.08 (pre-CS instruction) to 23.58 (post-CS instruction). Regarding the taught CSs, the data showed that there was a

substantial increase in reported use after the 12-week CS instruction (24 in pre-CS instruction, 274 in post-CS instruction). With respect to the non-taught CSs, there was a substantial decrease in reported use after the CS instruction period (85 in pre-CS instruction, 9 in post-CS instruction). In general, strategy training had impacts on increasing the identification of taught CSs during the retrospective verbal reports. The students could identify and talk about the types of CSs they used in the post-speaking tasks. By contrast, the training did not result in the increase of non-taught CSs as there was a dramatic decrease in students' reported use of these strategies. In other words, the CS instruction seemed to raise general strategic awareness of taught strategies other than that of non-taught strategies.

Findings by individual, taught CSs

This section will look at findings pertaining to individually taught strategy reported by the students. Table 4.13 below shows the frequencies of 12 students' verbal reports of CSs coded as "taught" in the pre- and post-CS instruction.

Table 4.13 The frequencies of 12 students' verbal reports of CSs coded as "taught" in the pre-and post-CS instruction

CSs	Frequencies	
	Pre-CS instruction	Post-CS instruction
Taught CSs		
Approximation (Ap)	14	84
Circumlocution (Cl)	5	47
Pause fillers and hesitation devices (Ph)	1	41
Appeal for help (Ah)	1	33
Topic avoidance (Ta)	2	23
Confirmation check (Cf)	0	20
Clarification request (Cr)	1	12
Self-repair (Sr)	0	12
Comprehension check (Cp)	0	2
Total	24	274

Overall, the students reported using six taught CSs in the pre-CS instruction and nine taught CSs in the post-CS instruction. With respect to the frequency of individual strategy use, the raw scores in Table 4.13 showed that the students increased their

reports of use of all taught CSs. The frequency of "approximation" (14 in pre-CS instruction, 84 in post-CS instruction) was much higher than that of the other eight strategies. One possible explanation for this result is that "approximation" might already exist in students' repertoire so the students were aware of their use of this strategy. In addition, the teaching of some basic and core vocabulary might enhance students' strategic awareness of "approximation". However, the students reported less use of "comprehension check" in the retrospective verbal reports (0 in pre-CS instruction, 2 in post-CS instruction). These findings seemed to lend evidence that the CS instruction might have had an impact on raising students' awareness of some taught CSs such as "approximation", "circumlocution" and "pause fillers and hesitation devices" (84, 47, and 41 respectively in post-CS instruction). Also, the CS instruction might motivate students to try out more types of taught strategies.

Findings by individual, non-taught CSs

The purpose of this section was to find out whether the CS instruction appeared to raise general awareness of non-taught strategy use. In general, the earlier section revealed that the students tended to increase their reports of use of taught CSs and decrease their reports of use of non-taught CSs (see Table 4.12). This section will look in more detail at the findings of individual non-taught strategies reported by the students. Table 4.14 below shows the frequencies of 12 students' verbal reports of CSs coded as "non-taught" in the pre- and post-speaking tasks.

Table 4.14 The frequencies of 12 students' verbal reports of CSs coded as "non-taught" in the pre-and post-CS instruction

CSs	Frequencies	
	Pre-CS instruction	Post-CS instruction
Non-taught CSs		
Message abandonment (Ma)	62	1
Code switching (Cw)	15	5
Non-linguistic strategy (Nl)	5	3
Literal translation (Lt)	2	0
Word coinage (Wc)	1	0
Total	85	9

As seen in Table 4.14, five different types of non-taught CSs were identified in the retrospective verbal reports of the twelve students. With respect to individual strategy use, the frequency of "message abandonment" (62 in pre-CS instruction, 1 in post-CS instruction) was a lot higher than that of the other four strategies. However, the data showed that the students dramatically decreased the frequency of the identification of the non-taught CSs in the post-CS instruction. Therefore, it seemed that the overall decrease in the reports of use of the non-taught CSs was probably due to the influence of the awareness-raising of the taught CSs.

Based on the quantitative findings of the retrospective verbal reports, what can be concluded is that the teaching of specific CSs might have had an impact on the greater reports of taught CSs. After the 12-week CS instruction, the students greatly increased their reports of taught CSs, particularly "approximation", "circumlocution" and "pause fillers and hesitation devices". This section has presented the quantitative findings of the retrospective verbal reports. The next section reports an analysis of transcribed data of the retrospective verbal reports.

4.4.2.2 The analysis of transcribed data of the retrospective verbal reports

Prior to the 12-week CS instruction, the data showed that the students reported "message abandonment" the most, followed by "code switching", "approximation", "non-linguistic strategy", "pause fillers and hesitation devices" and "circumlocution" to solve their communication problems. After the 12-week CS instruction, the second retrospective verbal reports were conducted with the same twelve students. The data revealed that the students showed their awareness of using nine CSs they had learned in the CS instruction. They reported their use of the taught CSs in their retrospection when they faced communication problems. They could use the terminology to describe the taught CSs and talk about the types of CSs they used in the performance of the tasks. Fourteen different types of CSs were identified by the researcher from the twelve subjects (see Table 4.15). The number of types of CSs reported by the individuals ranged between 7 and 11. The results showed that they most frequently reported their use of "approximation" to solve their communication problems.

In Table 4.15, a cross-case comparison between the 12 students is presented in order to look in detail at what each student reported about CSs in the pre-and post-speaking tasks. Each cell under "Taught CSs" (on the left hand side) presents frequency and types of taught CSs reported by the 12 students in the pre-and post-speaking tasks. Each cell under "Non-taught CSs" (on the right hand side) presents frequency and types of non-taught CSs.

Table 4.15 A cross-case comparison of the number of different types of CSs reported across the range of 12 students

	Taught CSs					**Non-taught CSs**					
	Frequency of reported CSs		**Types of reported CSs**		**Total number of types of CSs**	**Frequency of reported CSs**		**Types of reported CSs**		**Total number of types of CSs**	**Grand total number of types of CSs**
Student	**Pre**	**Post**	**Pre**	**Post**		**Pre**	**Post**	**Pre**	**Post**		
P	3	28	2	7	**7**	6	1	2	1	**2**	**9**
B	2	21	2	6	**6**	10	0	2	0	**2**	**8**
C	4	20	2	8	**8**	5	0	2	0	**2**	**10**
D	0	22	0	8	**8**	7	1	3	1	**3**	**11**
E	2	30	1	6	**6**	4	0	1	0	**1**	**7**
F	2	18	2	7	**7**	12	2	3	1	**3**	**10**
G	2	21	2	7	**7**	5	2	2	1	**2**	**9**
H	1	20	1	6	**6**	7	0	1	0	**1**	**7**
N	4	27	3	9	**9**	15	2	2	2	**2**	**11**
J	2	14	1	7	**7**	5	0	2	0	**2**	**9**
K	1	27	1	6	**6**	4	1	2	1	**2**	**8**
L	1	26	1	7	**7**	5	0	2	0	**2**	**9**

As can be seen in the Table, the students varied in their ability to report their thought and in the range of reported CS use. The shaded cells in the Table show the students with the highest and the lowest strategic awareness. Of 12 students, Student N showed the highest ability to identify CSs when he reported 11 different types of CSs (48 instances of CSs) in his retrospection during the pre-and post-speaking tasks. His intentions and reasons behind his use of CSs were rich and detailed. However, Student J demonstrated the lowest ability to identify CSs since he referred to nine different types of CSs and reported 21 instances of CSs in his retrospection. His comments on the use of CSs were brief.

To look in more detail, the following section provides the examples of qualitative findings of retrospection reported by four students, one with high ability to identify CSs, two with moderate ability to identify CSs and one with low ability to identify CSs.

1. Student N (High ability to identify CSs; wide strategy range)

Student N demonstrated high strategic awareness of reporting CSs. His comments were generally rich and clear. Overall, he referred to eleven different types of CSs (9 taught CSs and 3 non-taught CSs) and identified 48 instances of CSs in his retrospection during the pre-and post-speaking tasks. The number of different types of taught CSs that he identified increased dramatically while that of non-taught CSs decreased after the CS instruction. Prior to the CS instruction, he reported three taught CSs (i.e., approximation, appeal for help and clarification request) and two non-taught CSs (i.e., message abandonment and non-linguistic strategy) to solve his communication problems. Table 4.16 shows N's reports of types of CSs in the retrospection prior to the 12-week CS instruction.

Table 4.16: Student N's reports of types of CSs in the retrospective protocol before the CS instruction

Retrospective Verbal Reports	
Approximation	*Example 1:* -"I originally wanted to say "the field, football field" but I didn't know how to say it in English so I used "stadium" instead." (N:T1)
Appeal for help	*Example 2:* -"… I try to say "health" so I asked whether it is health or healthful." (N: T3)
Clarification request	*Example 3:* -"I asked whether hobby was the free time activity." (N:T1)
Message abandonment	*Example 4:* -"I wanted to say "to collect the dead body or to rescue him." But I couldn't express this idea in English at that time so I paused and said he died in order to finish his talk." (N:T2)
Non-linguistic strategy	*Example 5:* -" I couldn't think of an English word for "hit" so I used my hands to show the action of "hit" and made a sound "Toom" to imitate its sound…." (N:T2)

From the above examples, the data indicated that Student N was aware of the problems that arose during the tasks and that he tried to solve those problems by using some strategies. For example, N reported his strategic behaviours by using "approximation" to deal with his lexical deficits in Example 1. He revealed that he used an alternative term which expressed the meaning as closely as the target lexical word. This can be confirmed by the explanation of his use of the word "stadium" for the word "football field" in Example 1. In addition, N continued to identify his strategic use of other two taught CSs which were "appeal for help" ("…I try to say "health" so I asked whether it is health or healthful.") and "clarification request" ("I asked whether hobby was the free time activity.") shown in Examples 2 and 3. Apart from reporting three taught CSs, N also reported two non-taught CSs, as seen in Examples 4 and 5. In Example 4, N was aware of his problems when he said "I couldn't express this idea in English at that time." He, then, reported his strategic behaviours to solve the problems by pausing and finishing his talk. These comments showed N making use of "message abandonment" for not expressing his ideas when he did not know how to say something in English. Finally, N was aware of his use of a non-linguistic strategy when he tried to describe the word "hit" in English. However, he could not think of an English word to express this idea so he used sound imitation and gesture to express the action of "hit". These comments showed that N was aware of his use of "non-linguistic strategy" and believed that it could help the interlocutor to understand what meaning he tried to convey.

Prior to the CS instruction, Student N reported five CSs, i.e., approximation, appeal for help, clarification request, message abandonment and non-linguistic strategy. After the 12-week CS instruction, he reported ten different types of CSs. Of ten CSs, eight strategies which were approximation, circumlocution, appeal for help, topic avoidance, confirmation check, comprehension check, clarification request and pause fillers and hesitation devices have been taught in the CS instruction class. However, he still relied on "message abandonment" and "non-linguistic strategy" which have not been taught in this study. Table 4.17 shows N's reports of types of CSs in the retrospection after the 12-week CS instruction.

Table 4.17: Student N's reports of types of CSs in the retrospective protocol after the CS instruction

Retrospective Verbal Reports	
Approximation	*Example 1:* -" First, I used approximation because I didn't know how to say the words "five groups of food" in English so I just said "five groups" here…"(N:T3)
Appeal for help	*Example 2:* - "I was confused with the meaning here so I murmured to myself and decided to ask you for what does it mean." (N:T1)
Circumlocution	*Example 3:* -"At that moment, I paused for a while because I wanted to say that I liked eating vegetable. I wanted to explain that I eat not only vegetable but also all kinds of food. At that time I didn't know how to say "I like eating vegetable" so I tried to explain more that I eat not only vegetable but also five groups of food." (N:T3)
Topic avoidance	*Example 4:* - "At first, I wanted to say after I moved out from the dorm, I rarely do exercise. But I didn't know how to say this so I said I didn't have free time." (N:T1)
Confirmation check	*Example 5:* - "Just now I used question to check but my interlocutor didn't reply me. He then mentioned what to do when we reached the place….." (N:T4)
Comprehension check	*Example 6:* - "I heard that he said he would go to Pi-Pi Island so I answered him like that. I was unsure so I checked by saying "OK?" (N:T4)
Clarification request	*Example 7:* -"First, I asked you to repeat what you said because I did not understand it." (N:T1)
Pause fillers and hesitation devices	*Example 8:* - "I think I used pause fillers most frequently." (N:T4)
Message abandonment	*Example 9:* - "I stop talking for a long time to think here…."(N:T3)
Non-Linguistic strategy	*Example 10:* - "Yes, I used body language here." (N:T2)

As shown in Table 4.17, after the CS instruction N was more aware of his intention to resolve the problems strategically by reporting more types of CSs. Interestingly, he relied more on some taught CSs. In Example1, N was explicit about his lexical deficits as soon as he began when he said "First, I used approximation because I didn't know how to say the words "five groups of food" in English…" He then reported his

strategic use of “approximation” by using terms “five groups” for the words “five groups of food”. In Example 2, N revealed that he was aware of using “appeal for help”. He started with his own oral limitations and problems when he said “I was confused with the meaning here so I murmured to myself.” He then decided to ask for help from the interlocutor. N also reported his use of “circumlocution” to solve the problems during oral communication tasks as seen in Example 3. In this case, he used “circumlocution” to make himself clear when he said “I tried to explain more that I eat not only vegetable but also five groups of food.” These comments of N showed that the reason behind his use of “circumlocution” was to provide more explanation and description to reach his communication goal. Moreover, N revealed that he also recognised his use of “topic avoidance” as reflected in Example 4. He commented that he avoided talking about the topic because he did not know how to express his ideas in English. Therefore, he used “topic avoidance” to remain in the conversation. Apart from topic avoidance, N also commented on his use of “confirmation check” as shown in Example 5. He revealed that he used this strategy to ask and check what the interlocutor said to him. In Example 6, N made comment on his use of “comprehension check”. He revealed that he was not sure whether his interlocutor understood what he said or not so he decided to check by saying “OK?” These comments of N indicated that he explicitly recognised what could be achieved by the strategic use of “comprehension check”. He seemed to be aware of making himself clearly understood by checking the interlocutor’s understanding so that he could maintain the conversation. Moreover, he reported using “clarification request” to enable him to overcome his communication problems as reflected in Example 7. He seemed to be aware of the importance of using “clarification request” in order to facilitate his understanding when he said “First, I asked you to repeat what you said because I did not understand it.” Apart from “clarification request”, N also referred to “pause fillers and hesitation devices” as shown in Example 8. However, it should be noted that not much detail was given to throw light on “pause fillers and hesitation devices”. That is, he did not go into detail the reason behind his choice of these strategies. Regarding non-taught CSs, N reported using “message abandonment” and “non-linguistic strategy” when he could not come up with other solutions for his communication problems, as seen in Examples 9 and 10. Nonetheless, his comments on these two non-taught strategies were brief.

In summary, N clearly showed high strategic awareness of identifying CSs in his talk. He reported eleven different types of CSs in his retrospection during the pre-and post-speaking tasks. He elaborately commented on his need to try out some taught CSs to cope with his communication problems in the post-speaking tasks. In addition, he could reflect and discuss his on-task thoughts including problems and strategic solution to the problems in detail. The CS instruction appeared to stimulate N's awareness of using all nine taught CSs. In the following sections, two other students with moderate ability to reflect on their thoughts during the retrospective verbal reports are discussed.

2. Student B (moderately identify CSs; wide strategy range)

Among the twelve students, Student B demonstrated moderate strategic awareness of reporting CSs. He referred to eight different types of CSs (6 taught CSs and 2 non-taught CSs) and identified 33 instances of CSs in his retrospection during the pre-and post-speaking tasks. Like N, the number of different types of taught CSs identified increased while that of non-taught CSs decreased after the CS instruction. Before the CS instruction, he reported two taught CSs (i.e., approximation and circumlocution) and two non-taught CSs (i.e., message abandonment and code switching) in his retrospection. Table 4.18 shows B's reports of types of CSs in the retrospection prior to the 12-week CS instruction.

Table 4.18: Student B's reports of types of CSs in the retrospective protocol before the CS instruction

Retrospective Verbal Reports	
Approximation	*Example 1:* - "In the picture 4, <u>big car means truck.</u> I'd like to say that the truck driver call the police to cooperate with the ambulance to help the cyclist." (B:T2)
Circumlocution	*Example 2:* -" I want to say that selling boutique fashion clothing for women like car boot at the department store but I don't know the exact word. So I tried to explain it." (B:T1)
Message abandonment	*Example 3:* -"I wanted to say they like to go to the temple and they have calm and quiet minds there but I couldn't think of the English words to express this idea. So I paused for a long

Retrospective Verbal Reports	
	time and thought about this." (B:T3)
Code switching	*Example 4:* - "I think in Thai not in English and I cannot say it in sentences so I speak in Thai." (B:T4)

As shown in Table 4.18, B explicitly recognised the problem of his lexical deficit when he said "In the picture 4, big car means truck…" in Example 1. He then reported his strategic use of "approximation" by using a related term "big car" for the word "truck" in his retrospection. In Example 2, he tried to cope with his lexical deficit (car boot) by providing more explanation and description of the word when he said "I want to say that selling boutique fashion clothing for women like car boot at the department store but I don't know the exact word. So I tried to explain it." These comments of B showed that he tried to employ "circumlocution" to overcome his lexical deficit in English. Apart from "approximation" and "circumlocution", B also reported his communication problems when he said "I wanted to say they like to go to the temple and they have calm and quiet minds there but I couldn't think of the English words to express this idea.", as shown in Example 3. He, then, reported that he paused for a long time in order to think about the English words he wanted to use. His comments seemed to indicate that he was aware of the strategic need for abandoning message and pausing so that he could have time to recall the words. Finally, the retrospective interview with B revealed that he turned to a code switching strategy when he did not know how to express his ideas in English as seen in Example 4.

Before the CS instruction, B reported four CSs. After the 12-week CS instruction, he reported six taught CSs including circumlocution, approximation, pause fillers and hesitation devices, topic avoidance, confirmation check and self-repair. Table 4.19 shows B's reports of types of CSs in the retrospection after the 12-week CS instruction.

Table 4.19: Student B's reports of types of CSs in the retrospective protocol after the CS instruction

Retrospective Verbal Reports	
Circumlocution	*Example 1:* -"Overall I think I disjointedly speak English. I still couldn't say in sentences and had to think about what to say next. But I think I used circumlocution to solve the problems while I couldn't think of the English word for something." (B: T1).
Approximation	*Example 2:* - "Here, I said "around home" because I wanted to say that it's near my house." (B:T1)
Pause fillers and hesitation devices	*Example 3:* -"Yes. I tried to say more. Sometimes I spoke English disjointedly and I couldn't express myself. But I used "um…" in pause fillers and hesitation devices to solve this problem."(B:T1)
Topic avoidance	*Example 4:* -"I had no idea for what to say more so I skipped it." (B:T2)
Confirmation check	*Example 5:* - "I think I used confirmation check and…." (B:T4)
Self-repair	*Example 6:* -"I was wrong when saying this. Actually I wanted to say "can't go"." (B: T4)

As seen in Table 4.19, after the CS instruction B was more aware of his communication problems and relied more on some taught CSs. In Example 1, B noticed his problems when he reported that he spoke English disjointedly, could not speak in sentences and had to think about what to say later in English. However, he revealed that he attempted to cope with these problems and reach communication goals by turning to "circumlocution". Apart from "circumlocution", he also identified what could be achieved by the strategic use of "approximation", as seen in Example 2. He reported his lexical deficit as soon as he began when he revealed that he used the word "around home" as an alternative word at that time. These comments of B reflected his intention to use "approximation" to cope with the lack of target language word. In Example 3, B still believed that he sometimes spoke English disjointedly and he could not express his ideas well in English. However, this time he reported using "pause fillers and hesitation devices" to cope with such problems. In Example 4, the comments of B indicated that he was aware of his use of "topic avoidance". He made use of "topic avoidance" when he could not think of what to say next and wanted to skip an unfamiliar topic. In Example 5, B's retrospection revealed that he recognised

his use of “confirmation check” in his task performance after the 12-week CS instruction. However, he did not explain the intention behind his use of this strategy. Finally, he reported using “self-repair” when he explained “I was wrong when saying this. Actually I wanted to say ‘can’t go’”, as shown in Example 6.

In summary, B showed moderate strategic awareness of reporting CSs. He reported eight types of CSs in his retrospection during the pre-and post-speaking tasks. Although he was more aware of his limitations, problems and choices of some taught CSs during the post-speaking tasks, he commented briefly on the intentions and reasons behind his use of CSs. Compared with N, B’s comments were not long, which might be related to his level of strategic awareness and his ability to report his thoughts. Similarly to B, K showed moderate awareness of reporting CSs, as discussed in the following section.

3. Student K (moderately identify CSs; wide strategy range)

Student K demonstrated moderate strategic awareness of reporting CSs. She referred to eight different types of CSs (6 taught CSs and 2 non-taught CSs) and could identify 33 instances of CSs in her retrospection during the pre-and post-speaking tasks. Her comments were generally rich and clear. In the pre-speaking tasks, she reported one taught CS (approximation) and two non-taught CSs (message abandonment and code switching) to solve her communication problems. Table 4.20 shows K’s reports of types of CSs in the retrospection prior to the 12-week CS instruction.

Table 4.20: Student K’s reports of types of CSs in the retrospective protocol before the CS instruction

Retrospective Verbal Reports	
Code switching	*Example 1:* -“At that time, I wanted to say “head of a family” in English but I didn’t know how to say these words in English. So I said “Por Baan” which is Thai words instead.” (K:T1)
Message abandonment	*Example 2:* -“For question 2, I was thinking about this idea in Thai in my head but I couldn’t think of English words to use. I was confused so I kept silent and gave up talking.” (K:T1)

Retrospective Verbal Reports	
Approximation	*Example 3:* -"I said that he rode his bike on the road and reached a junction. Then his bike hit the truck. I didn't know how to call "truck" in English so I used the word "car" for the word 'truck'." (K:T2)

From the above examples, Student K was oriented towards "code switching", "message abandonment" and "approximation" while completing the pre-speaking tasks. Regarding non-taught CSs, K revealed that she turned to "code switching" as her resource when she did not know how to express her ideas in English. She revealed that she switched to Thai because she did not know how to say the words "head of a family" in English at that time. Apart from "code switching", she also reported her use of "message abandonment" to cope with her communication problems as seen in Example 2. She stated that she could not think of English words to express her ideas so she kept silent and gave up talking. Her comments indicated that she solved her communication problems by using "message abandonment". Regarding taught CSs, she reported using only "approximation" to deal with her lexical deficits as seen in Example 3. She revealed that she used an alternative term which expressed the meaning as closely as the target lexical word. This can be confirmed by the explanation of her use of the word "car" for the word "truck".

Before the CS instruction, Student K reported "code switching", "message abandonment" and "approximation" in her retrospection. After the 12-week CS instruction, she reported seven different types of CSs. Of seven CSs, six strategies were taught CSs (approximation, pause fillers and hesitation devices, circumlocution, topic avoidance, clarification request and self-repair). However, she still relied on "code switching" which has not been taught in this study when she reported using it in the post-speaking tasks. Table 4.21 shows K's reports of types of CSs in the retrospection after the 12-week CS instruction.

Table 4.21: Student K's reports of types of CSs in the retrospective protocol after the CS instruction

Retrospective Verbal Reports	
Approximation	*Example 1:* -"Yes, I didn't know how to say the word. I thought "it is a good thing to teach people to make merits but I couldn't think of the English words for "make merits" at that time. So I used another alternative term "good" instead because I couldn't explain more." (K:T3)
Pause fillers and hesitation devices	*Example 2:* - "I used pause fillers most frequently. At that time I thought in Thai in my head but I couldn't express my ideas in English." (K:T3)
Circumlocution	*Example 3:* -"I wanted to say "go for a walk" but I couldn't think of the English words so I tried to explain more." (K:T1)
Topic avoidance	*Example 4:* - "Actually, I wanted to explain that the vegetarians would wear white clothes. And when the Lent lasted they would be out of the Lent but I couldn't think of the English words to express this idea so I skipped it." (K:T3)
Clarification request	*Example 5:* - "I didn't understand your question so I asked you to explain more." (K:T1)
Self-repair	*Example 6:* - "Yes, I corrected by changing "hungry" to "angry"." (K:T1)
Code switching	*Example 7:* - "And I sometime used Thai words." (K:T3)

As shown in Table 4.21, after the 12-week CS instruction K explicitly recognised what could be achieved by using some CSs. In Example 1, she was obviously aware of her lexical deficit when she said "Yes, I didn't know how to say the word." She then reported making use of "approximation" by using a related term "good" for the words "make merits" in her retrospection. K also revealed that she was most frequently reliant on "pause fillers and hesitation devices" when she could not express her ideas in English as shown in Example 2. Apart from reporting "approximation" and "pause fillers and hesitation devices", K reported "circumlocution" during the post-speaking tasks, as seen in Example 3. She clearly indicated that she tried to explain more about the target word "go for a walk" because she could not think of such words at that time. These comments of K showed that the reason behind her use of "circumlocution" was to provide more explanation and description of the unknown words in English. In

Example 4, K was more explicit about the intention behind her use of "topic avoidance". She reported using "topic avoidance" in order to skip mentioning about the unknown word in English when she said "And when the Lent lasted they would be out of the Lent but I couldn't think of the English words to express this idea so I skipped it." In Example 5, K showed her awareness of using "clarification request" in her performance in Task 1. She revealed that she asked her interlocutor to explain or clarify when she did not entirely understand what the interlocutor meant. Last but not least, she reported using "self-repair" when she tried to correct her mistake by herself as shown in Example 6. Finally, K still relied on "code switching" when she could not come up with other solutions for her communication problems, as seen in Example 7.

In summary, similarly to B, K reported eight different types of CSs during the pre-and post-speaking tasks. Her reports about the intention and reasons behind her use of some CSs were consistently explicit and detailed. She became more aware of the need to employ some CSs to cope with her communication problems when she reported more taught CSs in her retrospection during the post-speaking tasks. In contrast to N, K and B, J showed low ability to identify his comments on CSs, as discussed in the following section.

4. Student J (low ability to identify CSs)

Student J demonstrated rather low ability to identify CSs. He referred to nine different types of CSs (7 taught CSs and 2 non-taught CSs) and reported 21 instances of CSs in his retrospection during the pre-and post-speaking tasks. His comments were generally brief. However, similarly to Students N, B and K, the number of different types of taught CSs identified by J increased while that of non-taught CSs decreased after the CS instruction. In the pre-speaking tasks, he reported one taught CS (approximation) and two non-taught CSs (message abandonment and code switching) to solve his communication problems. Table 4.22 shows J's reports of types of CSs in the retrospection prior to the 12-week CS instruction.

Table 4.22: Student J's reports of types of CSs in the retrospective protocol before the CS instruction

Retrospective Verbal Reports	
Message abandonment	*Example 1:* -"I wanted to say "our library provides a lot of books and resources and subscription databases on the Internet and Websites." At that point, I couldn't think of English words to express this idea and to say "our library provides various sources and resources" so I gave up talking." (J:T1)
Code switching	*Example2:* - "…I think I've few knowledge of this topic so I cannot continue the situation. Firstly, I think in Thai then I describe in Thai…" (J: T3)
Approximation	*Example 3:* - "I said "shell" here for "a kind of shellfish" in English." (J: T4)

Student J started with his communication problems and explained how he solved the problems by using "message abandonment" as shown in Example 1. He stated that he could not think of English words to express his ideas in English for "our library provides various sources and resources" so he gave up talking. These comments showed J making use of "message abandonment" for giving up talking when he was not able to find appropriate words in English. In Example 2, he commented on his use of "code switching" when he said "…I think I've few knowledge of this topic so I cannot continue the situation. Firstly, I think in Thai then I describe in Thai…" These comments of J showed that he turned to "code switching" as his resource when he did not know how to express his ideas in English. Regarding one taught strategy, he commented on his use of "approximation" as seen in Example 3. He reported his lexical deficit when he used "shell" for "shellfish". These comments of J reflected his intention to use "approximation" to cope with the lack of target language word.

Before the CS instruction, Student J reported three CSs in his retrospection. After the 12-week CS instruction, he reported seven different types of taught CSs including appeal for help, approximation, pause fillers and hesitation devices, circumlocution, topic avoidance, confirmation check and clarification request. Table 4.23 shows J's reports of types of CSs in the retrospection after the 12-week CS instruction.

Table 4.23: Student J's reports of types of CSs in the retrospective protocol after the CS instruction

Retrospective Verbal Reports	
Appeal for help	*Example 1:* - "I think I used appeal for help and for this one I had to imagine about the picture. I couldn't think of the English word and also I was so nervous." (J:T3)
Approximation	*Example 2:* -"I used the word "car" for the word "ambulance" here." (J:T2)
Pause fillers and hesitation devices	*Example 3:* - "Yes, we used pause fillers many times because we rarely use English. When we couldn't think of what to say, we used pause fillers to signal to the interlocutor to wait us." (J:T4)
Circumlocution	*Example 4 :* -"I wanted to explain that there are many buildings but not many trees here." (J: T1)
Topic avoidance	*Example 5:* - "I wanted to say "almost everyday" but I'm not sure so I don't talk about it." (J: T1)
Confirmation check	*Example 6:* -"…I think I asked you back to check…." (J:T1)
Clarification request	*Example 7:* -"Yes, I asked you to explain more." (J:T1)

As shown in Table 4.23, after the CS instruction J was more aware of his problems and intention to resolve the problems strategically by reporting more types of taught CSs. In Example 1, J reported using "appeal for help" in his retrospection. He reported his problems ("I couldn't think of the English word and also I was so nervous.") and his intention to resolve the problems by asking for assistance from his interlocutor ("I think I used appeal for help and for this one I had to imagine about the picture."). In Example 2, he was explicit about his lexical deficits when he said "I used the word "car" for the word "ambulance" here". However, he did not go into detail about his intention behind the use of "approximation". In Example 3, he tended to be more aware of the importance of using "pause fillers and hesitation devices" in maintaining his talk and keeping the interlocutor waiting for him. Apart from "pause fillers and hesitation devices", J also commented on his use of "circumlocution" as shown in Example 4. He tried to provide more explanation and description for his ideas when he said "I wanted to explain that there are many buildings but not many trees here."

These comments of J showed that he tried to employ “circumlocution” to overcome his lexical deficit in English. In Example 5, J also reported using “topic avoidance” when he tried to avoid talking about the word “almost every day”. Finally, he briefly reported his intention of using “confirmation check” (“I think I asked you back to check….”) and “clarification request” (“Yes, I asked you to explain more.”) to negotiate meaning and maintain his conversation as shown in Examples 6 and 7.

In summary, J demonstrated rather low ability to identify CSs. Although he could identify the strategies he used to complete the tasks, he briefly explained his intention and reasons for the use of such strategies. Interestingly, the strategy instruction seemed to motivate him to try out more taught strategies since he could identify what could be achieved by using all these strategies in his retrospection.

4.4.3 Summary of 4.4: Analysis of retrospective verbal reports

In this section, the findings from retrospective verbal reports have been presented and discussed to reveal students’ intention and reasons behind their use of CSs in each task performance. The presentation of the analysis of retrospective verbal reports consisted of three main parts: the procedure for the retrospective verbal reports, the findings of frequency of retrospective verbal reports and the analysis of transcribed data from the retrospective verbal reports.

During the pre-speaking tasks, the results have shown that all twelve students reported their oral communication problems and their use of eleven CSs. Of eleven strategies, the students reported using six taught CSs including approximation, circumlocution, pause fillers and hesitation devices, appeal for help, topic avoidance and clarification request. Regarding non-taught CSs, they reported using message abandonment, code switching, non-linguistic strategy, literal translation and word coinage. It is interesting that prior to the CS instruction the students most frequently reported “message abandonment” (62 instances) to solve their communication problems.

With respect to students’ intention and reasons behind their use of CSs in the post-speaking tasks, the results have shown that the students seemed to be more aware of

the taught CSs. They reported using nine taught CSs and three non-taught CSs. It is interesting that the number of different types of taught CSs identified by all students increased while that of non-taught CSs decreased after the CS instruction.
They most frequently reported “approximation” and least frequently reported “message abandonment” in the post-speaking tasks. Thus, it can be concluded that the teaching of these nine CSs might encourage the students to become aware of using and reporting these taught CSs in the post-speaking tasks. In addition, it should be noted that their reports about the strategy use were almost consistent with their actual performance in the post-speaking tasks. That is, they most frequently reported “approximation” and less frequently reported “message abandonment”.

Regarding individual students, the quantitative findings from retrospective verbal reports have shown that the students reported a wide range of CSs in their retrospection during the pre-and post speaking tasks. The number of types of CSs reported by the individuals ranged between seven and eleven (see Table 4.15). Student N demonstrated the highest ability to identify CSs when he reported 48 instances of CSs (eleven types of CSs) during the pre-and post speaking tasks. His comments about the intention and reasons behind his use of CSs were rich and more detailed. However, Student J showed the lowest ability to identify CSs since he reported 21 instances of CSs (9 types of CSs) in his retrospection during the pre-and post speaking tasks. Overall, all the students seemed to be more aware of their limitations, problems and their use of some taught CSs during the post-speaking tasks. However, they commented briefly on the intention and reasons behind their use of CSs. In terms of qualitative findings, the CS instruction was related to changes in students’ reports of taught CSs. That is the students could talk about the terminology of CSs they used. Most importantly, they could explain their thought process, i.e., “why” and “how” they used the taught CSs to cope with their communication problems during the task performance.

In the next section, students’ attitudes towards the teaching of nine specific communication strategies and its usefulness are presented.

Section 4.5

Students' attitudes towards the teaching of nine specific communication strategies and its usefulness

4.5 Students' attitudes towards the teaching of nine specific CSs

The previous section discussed the analysis of retrospective verbal data to gain insights into students' thought process of strategy use. In this section, the data collected from the attitudinal questionnaire were analysed to obtain students' attitudes towards the teaching of nine specific communication strategies and its usefulness and to provide possible answers for research question 4: What are Thai students' attitudes towards the teaching of communication strategies? This questionnaire was filled out by 62 students after the 12-week CS instruction. It consisted of six open-ended questions regarding students' perceptions of the usefulness of CS instruction (see Appendix E). The questions are presented in Table 4.24.

Table 4.24 Questions asked in the attitudinal questionnaire

	Questions
1	How did you feel when you received the communication strategy instruction in class?
2	Did you find the instruction of communication strategies useful? In what ways?
3	What did you like about the instruction of communication strategies?
4	What didn't you like about the instruction of communication strategies?
5	Do you think the instruction of communication strategies improved your English speaking skill?
6	Other comments, including how the sessions we have done on the communication strategy instruction could have been improved?

To analyse the data from this questionnaire, students' responses to these open-ended items were translated into English since the questionnaire itself was written in Thai to encourage the students to write their opinion as much as possible. The responses of all students were read to gain overall perceptions of individual students. Then the researcher identified patterns that emerged from students' responses, grouped the responses into categories as suggested by the responses themselves and tallied them. In total there were 62 students who responded to the questionnaire. However, some students gave more than one comment for one question so the total number of responses to a question may be larger than the number of students responding that item. The following section presents and discusses students' responses to each question.

Question 1: *How did you feel when you received the communication strategy instruction in class?*

This question gave the students the opportunity to comment on anything they felt relevant to the CS instruction. The results showed that the students reported four types of feelings, as seen in Table 4.25.

Table 4.25 Feelings about the CS instruction

Students' opinions	*N	%
Useful /good	46	71.88
Liked / enjoyed	16	25.00
Hardly attracted the attention	1	1.56
Uneasy	1	1.56

* As some respondents gave more comments for the question, the figures do not necessarily add up to the n for that group.

From Table 4.25, most students expressed positive feelings and opinions on the CS instruction. The majority of the students (N=46) felt that the instruction was useful and good for them in various ways, as one student commented *"The training was good and very useful. If we rarely use English in our daily life, we won't be good at it. I think the taught strategies gave us more choices for communicating in English. We won't keep silent anymore if we face communication problems" (S60).* In addition, some students made reference to their experiences in the instruction class when they described *"The instruction was good because I learned how to use circumlocution, approximation for the unknown words in English. It is useful for the actual conversation. Unless I study these strategies, I won't know how to speak English" (S34)* and "*I think the teaching of communication strategies is very useful. Although we may know these expressions before, we have never learned how to use them. But this course provided us how to use these strategies in the actual situation" (S35).* From these comments, the students found the CS instruction useful and good because they could apply all these taught CSs to real-life situations.

With respect to the second type of feeling about the CS instruction, the results showed that 16 students indicated that they liked and enjoyed the instruction. For example, one student commented *"I liked the training and I enjoyed studying the strategies. It was*

not boring" (S14). However, some students also mentioned the reasons they liked and enjoyed the instruction in more detail, for example, some commented *"I enjoyed the training and I think I can apply it to the real-life communication" (S5)* and *"I liked the course because I have learned the new techniques and I became more confident in using all these taught strategies and expressions" (S48).*

While most students showed only their positive feelings about the CS instruction, two students expressed both positive and negative feelings about this instruction. For instance, one student commented *"It was useful to learn how to use these strategies but the training hardly attracted my attention" (S23).* Another started with the negative feeling, followed by the positive one when he commented *"Sometimes I felt uneasy when I couldn't catch some sentences or I didn't get what the teacher asked me to do. Anyway I liked the way the teacher encouraged me to speak English" (S36).* From these comments, the students seemed to realise how useful and enjoyable the CS instruction was for them but a small minority still had some negative feelings about this instruction.

Question 2: *Did you find the instruction of communication strategies useful? In what ways?*

Regarding the usefulness of the instruction of CSs, all the students agreed that this instruction was useful for them. They mentioned six advantages they received from this instruction, as shown in Table 4.26.

Table 4.26 Students' opinions on the usefulness of the CS instruction

Opinions on the usefulness of the CS instruction	*N	%
Applying these strategies to the actual situation and solving their oral communication problems	24	36.92
Improving their speaking skill	17	26.15
Enhancing their fluency	9	13.85
Giving them more confidence	7	10.77
Expanding their English knowledge and providing more speaking techniques	6	9.23
Helping them get the meaning across	2	3.08

* As some respondents gave more comments for the question, the figures do not necessarily add up to the n for that group.

Firstly, 24 students commented that the CS instruction was useful because it could be applied to real situations and to solve oral communication problems. For example, some students commented that this instruction was useful because *"we can use it in the actual situation. If we face the communication problems, these strategies may help us solve the problems and make ourselves understood while speaking English" (S31)* and *"we can apply these strategies if we face the English speaking problems in the workplace and if we have to contact to the foreigners" (S38).*

Secondly, the CS instruction would help them improve their English speaking. Seventeen students supported this idea when they commented *"…this training helped me to better communicate in English with my interlocutor" (S4)* and *"Yes, it was useful because I can apply what I have learned from the instruction of communication strategies to improve my English conversation and make me comprehend what the interlocutor says" (S61).*

Thirdly, nine students commented that the CS instruction enhanced their fluency in speaking English. For instance, one student commented that the CS instruction was useful because *"…these communication strategies help us solve the communication problems. Moreover, they can help us maintain our English conversation continuously and keep saying what we want" (S60).* In addition, other students acknowledged the usefulness of the CS instruction when they reported, for example, *"…it was useful. If we don't know how to make use of these communication strategies, perhaps we may pause and give up speaking English eventually" (S11)* and *"it was so useful since all these strategies can be used as techniques for the English conversation and they may help us continue talking with the interlocutor without pausing" (S14).* As seen in these comments, S11, S14 and S60 confirmed that the CS instruction was useful because it helped them speak English fluently. The use of the taught CSs helped them continue their talk with the interlocutor. They could avoid pausing when they made use of some CSs they learned in class.

Fourthly, seven students indicated that the CS instruction gave them more confidence in speaking English. One student, for example, found the CS instruction useful because *"…these strategies make us more confident in speaking and expressing our*

ideas in English" (S40). Moreover, some students supported this advantage when they commented *"… it was useful because I have applied what I have learned from this course to my conversation with the foreigner I found at Panthip Mall. I felt that I was more confident in speaking English with that person after learning these strategies" (S53)* and *"it was so useful for me. After learning the communication strategies, I felt more confident in speaking and communicating in English" (S28)*. From these responses, the students pointed out that the CS instruction gave them more confidence in speaking and expressing their ideas in English.

Fifthly, six students added that the CS instruction could expand their English knowledge and provide more speaking techniques, as seen in some students' comments *"Yes, it was useful. I have learned more vocabulary, expressions and sentences for English conversation. Moreover, it provided me more chances for practising English conversation" (S18)* and *"Yes, it was useful because it expanded our English knowledge" (S41)*. From these comments, the students reported that the CS instruction was useful because they had the chance to learn and practise using more vocabulary, expressions and sentences for English conversation. In addition, the CS instruction was useful because it could expand their English knowledge.

Lastly, two students commented that some taught CSs like "circumlocution" could help them get the meaning across and express their ideas in English. Both of them commented *"Yes, it was useful. I can use some strategies like using circumlocution to explain the unknown word in English" (S43)* and *"Yes, it was useful because these strategies help us describe and explain the unknown words in English" (S51)*. In other words, some taught CSs were useful because they could help the students get their meaning across and express their ideas in English if they could not think of some English words.

Question 3: *What did you like about the instruction of communication strategies?*

When asked what they liked about the CS instruction, the students mentioned six specific aspects. However, while most students gave some comments on what they liked about the CS instruction, two students had no comments, as shown in Table 4.27.

Table 4.27 What the students liked about the CS instruction

Comments	*N	%
The taught CSs	29	43.94
The opportunity to practise speaking English	13	19.70
Teacher and teaching method	11	16.67
Materials and hand-outs	5	7.57
The content of the instruction	4	6.06
Class atmosphere	2	3.03
No comment	2	3.03

* As some respondents gave more comments for the question, the figures do not necessarily add up to the n for that group.

From Table 4.27, 29 students responded that they liked the taught CSs. Some comments of the students were expressions in favour of overall taught CSs they received in class, as one student commented *"I liked to learn all taught strategies because I could use them in the English conversation. These strategies could also help me keep my conversation going and make myself understood when I couldn't think of the word" (S46).* Others expressed their preference for some taught CSs such as "topic avoidance", "approximation", "appeal for help", "pause fillers and hesitation devices" and "circumlocution". For example, some students expressed their preference for "pause fillers and hesitation devices": *"I liked pause fillers and hesitation devices the most because I sometimes paused and kept silent for a long time when I couldn't think of the English word. So I think this strategy is very useful for me" (S30)* and *"I liked learning pause fillers because when I faced the speaking problems, I could say Um or Uh to gain time to think" (S50).* Others preferred many taught CSs, as some students commented *"I liked many taught CSs such as approximation, the strategy for gaining time to think and the strategy that I could ask the interlocutor whether he/she understood what I said or not" (S28)* and *"I liked learning circumlocution, approximation and appeal for help" (S44).*

Moreover, 13 students reported that one thing they liked about the CS instruction was the opportunity to practise speaking English. For example, some students commented *"I liked that we could practise speaking with our pair. It was like we were in the actual situation and also we could see some examples from other pairs" (S10)* and *"I liked that I could make a conversation with my interlocutor. I could explain and give*

some examples and also compose the English sentences by myself" (S14). These comments indicated that the students were very pleased with the practice of English speaking in class. They seemed to realise how the instruction was important and useful for them in practice.

There were 11 students who were in favour of the teacher and the teaching method in the CS instruction. Some students, for example, commented *"I liked that the teaching method was not too serious and strict. In addition, the teacher was so familiar to the students" (S27)* and *"I liked that the instruction was informal, relaxing and the students were able to ask or answer the questions" (S47).* As shown in these comments, the students showed their positive feelings about the teacher and the teaching method. These comments indicated that the informal and relaxing CS instruction class and teacher could encourage them to be more active and confident in speaking English in class.

Regarding materials and hand-outs, five students reported that they liked the materials and hand-outs of the CS instruction the most, as seen in some students' comments *"I liked the materials and hand-outs of the instruction" (S22)* and *"…I liked that the teacher provided the hand-outs for the students and also gave examples for how to use all these strategies" (S16).* From these comments, the students seemed to realise the importance of materials and hand-outs providing in the CS instruction. They thought that the instruction materials and hand-outs contained some useful examples of how to use CSs.

With respect to other comments, four students reported that they liked the content of the CS instruction the most, as seen in the following comment: *"I liked the content of the instruction because it was very good and useful" (S1).* From these comments, the student was in favour of the content of CS lessons he received. The reason was that he learned new techniques and methods which might be useful for his English communication. There were also two students who were in favour of the class atmosphere, as seen in one student's comment *"I liked the class atmosphere. It was funny and I learned English a lot from the class" (S12).* The interesting point from this

student's comment was that he enjoyed the CS instruction class and showed his active involvement in class activities.

Question 4: What didn't you like about the instruction of communication strategies?

When asked what they did not like about the CS instruction, 34 students reported "None/ Nothing", that is, they liked everything about the CS instruction. However, the rest of the students mentioned four main areas they did not like about the CS instruction, as seen in Table 4.28.

Table 4.28 What the students did not like about the CS instruction

Comments	*N	%
None/nothing	34	50.45
The application of some CSs	10	14.92
The instruction session	9	13.43
Their listening and speaking ability	7	10.45
The opportunity to practise speaking English	7	10.45

* As some respondents gave more comments for the question, the figures do not necessarily add up to the n for that group.

From Table 4.28, 10 students reported what they did not like about the CS instruction was the application of some CSs. They questioned whether they could use the taught CSs in the actual situation since they found that some CSs like "topic avoidance" and "self-repair" were complicated to use. One student, for example, commented about "topic avoidance": *"I didn't like the strategy that we could use to change the topic because my speaking skill was so poor and I didn't think I could talk about other topics" (S30)*. Another reported *"I didn't like using self-repair" (S44)*. From these comments, the students seemed to have negative feelings about the application of "topic avoidance" and "self-repair". This might result from the fact that these two strategies were new to them and they could use other taught strategies to solve the problems. Therefore, they considered these two strategies complicated to use in the actual situation.

With respect to the instruction session, nine students reported that the instruction session was very short and limited. They suggested that the session should be lengthened so that they could have more time to learn and practise using the taught

CSs. One student, for instance, expressed his opinion *"I think the instruction period was so short so it was so difficult to memorise expressions" (S24)*. This comment of the student suggested that since all these CSs were new to the students, more time should be added to the CS instruction session so that they could practise using them.

Moreover, seven students reported that they considered their ability in listening and speaking English not good enough so they had more difficulties in speaking and listening English in class. For example, some students commented *"I didn't like when I was asked by the teacher and I didn't get so I couldn't answer the questions" (S12)* and *"Sometimes some friends and I couldn't think of the English words and this made me so stressed" (S18)*. These comments of the students indicated that the students perceived themselves poor at speaking and listening English. They seemed to have negative feelings and lack confidence while they practised using CSs in the CS instruction class.

Lastly, seven students reported that they did not like having less opportunity to practise speaking English in class. One student, for example, commented *"I didn't like that the students have less chance to practise in front of the class and there should be more examples of expressions in the hand-outs" (S15)*. Another student mentioned about English speaking practice and the assignment *"I think the teacher should assign more assignments so that I could improve my speaking skill" (S35)*.

Question 5: Do you think the instruction of communication strategies improved your English speaking ability?

When asked whether the CS instruction improved their English speaking ability or not, all students agreed that it improved their speaking ability in various ways, as seen in Table 4.29.

Table 4.29 Students' opinions on the relations between the CS instruction and their improvement in speaking ability

Opinions	*N	%
Learning some speaking techniques and expanding English knowledge	25	34.72
Being more confident in speaking English	16	22.22
Solving oral communication breakdowns	12	16.67
Speaking English continuously and keeping the conversation going	11	15.28
Other	8	11.1

* As some respondents gave more comments for the question, the figures do not necessarily add up to the n for that group.

Of the 62 students, 25 answered that the CS instruction improved their English speaking ability because they had learned some speaking techniques and this instruction expanded their English knowledge. For example, one student reported that the CS instruction expanded his English knowledge: *"Yes, it did. I've never studied these strategies before so I think this instruction expanded my English knowledge" (S26)*. Other students recognised that the CS instruction provided them new English speaking techniques, as one student commented *"Yes, because I have learned new strategies from this course and I could apply them to the daily life. This instruction improved my English speaking ability" (S27).*

Moreover, 16 students commented that the CS instruction improved their English speaking ability because they became more confident in speaking English. For instance, one student commented *"Yes. Previously, I was so shy and was not confident in speaking English with foreigners because I couldn't think of some English words and sometimes the foreigners couldn't understand what I tried to say. However, after learning how to use communication strategies, I became more confident in speaking English" (S29).* Another student responded *"Yes, my English conversation skill was improved. Using some taught strategies made my interlocutor understand what I tried to say and I was more confident in responding in English" (S61).*

About 12 students responded that the CS instruction improved their English speaking ability because it helped them solve oral communication breakdowns. For example, one student commented *"Yes, because it can help me solve the problems while*

speaking English with the foreigner" (S10). Other students revealed how they used some taught CSs to solve their communication breakdowns: *"Yes, because I knew a small number of English words so using these taught strategies to ask the interlocutor for help is a good idea" (S9).*

According to11 students, the CS instruction improved their English speaking ability because it helped them speak English continuously: *"Yes, because I could speak English continuously" (S5).* Other students commented that the CS instruction helped them keep the conversation going: *"Yes, it improved my English speaking skill since it helped me keep the conversation going when I couldn't think of the right word to use" (S25).*

Yet, the rest of the students found that the CS instruction improved their English speaking ability since they had the chance to practise speaking English and using the taught CSs in class. One student, for instance, commented on this idea: *"Yes because I had the chance to practise speaking English and using these strategies in class. I think this improved my speaking skill" (S35).*

Question 6: *Other comments, including how the sessions we have done on the communication strategy instruction could have been improved?*

Considering other comments and suggestions for improvement of the CS instruction, the students gave many useful comments about the CS instruction, as seen in Table 4.30. However, there were nine students who answered "No comment" in response to this question.

Table 4.30 Other comments about the CS instruction

Comments	*N	%
Nothing should be improved. The training was good	17	25.76
There should be more examples, quiz, materials and assignments.	17	25.76
The instruction session should be lengthened	7	10.61
The students should be more active	5	7.57
The CS instruction was useful	5	7.57
The CS instruction should include more CSs	2	3.03

Comments	*N	%
The CS instruction should be a compulsory course	2	3.03
Other	2	3.03
No comment	9	13.64

* As some respondents gave more comments for the question, the figures do not necessarily add up to the n for that group.

About 17 students said that the CS instruction was good and nothing should be improved. One student, for example, commented *"Overall, the instruction was good. Nothing should be improved" (S13).* Another student also gave more specific comments about the CS instruction and the teacher: *"Nothing should be improved because the instruction was very good and the teacher was so familiar to the students and led the course more interesting" (S42).*

However, 17 students commented that the CS instruction should provide more examples, quiz, materials and assignments. For example, one student commented about the examples in the given hand-outs: *"There should be more examples of the taught strategies so that I can apply them to the actual situations" (S61).* Other students mentioned about the quiz *"There should be some quiz and tests so that the students will be more active to participate in class activities" (S23),* the materials *"There should be more teaching materials"* (S49) and assignments *"There should be more assignments. For example, the students are assigned to interview foreigners and recorded so that they can practise speaking English" (S35).*

With respect to the CS instruction session, seven students commented that the session should be lengthened. For example, one student commented *"The instruction period should be extended so that we can practise using these strategies more" (S29).* Another student suggested *"The instruction hours should be extended so that we can learn other kinds of communication strategies for English conversation" (S33).*

Five students suggested that the students should be more active in learning and practising in class. For instance, one student commented *"The students should be more active to respond to the teacher in class" (S6).* Another student supported this idea when he commented *"The students should be more active to have their parts in class" (S16).*

Another useful comment indicated by five students was that the CS instruction was useful for them. One student, for instance, commented how he found the CS instruction useful: *"I think that the teaching of communication strategies was very useful for the students who faced the communication breakdowns. After the instruction, they may feel more confident in speaking English and using these strategies despite pausing or keeping silent all the time. I believe that these strategies are certainly useful for us" (S46)*.

However, the rest of the students additionally commented that the CS instruction should include more CSs, the teaching of CSs should be taught as a compulsory course and some classmates should be more punctual.

4.5.1 Summary of section 4.5: Analysis of students' attitudes towards the teaching of nine specific communication strategies and its usefulness

To answer research question 4, the results of the attitudinal questionnaire have shown that the students seemed to support the CS instruction. With respect to their feelings about the CS instruction, most students found this instruction good and useful for them. Some reported that they enjoyed and liked this instruction.

Regarding the usefulness of the CS instruction, all of the students agreed that the teaching of CSs was useful for them in various ways. Most students thought that they could apply these taught CSs to solve their oral communication problems in English as well as to improve their English speaking skill. Some students suggested that learning these CSs enhanced their fluency, gave them more confidence, expanded their English knowledge and helped them get the meaning across.

When asked what they liked about the CS instruction, most students reported that they liked the taught CSs, the practice of speaking English in class and teacher and teaching method. Some students reported that they liked materials and hand-outs, the content of the CS instruction and the class atmosphere.

With respect to things they did not like about the CS instruction, most students commented that they liked everything about this instruction. However, some students answered that they questioned the application of some CSs. Others reported that they did not like that the instruction session was short, their listening and speaking ability in English were not good enough and they had less opportunity to practise speaking English.

As for the improvement of their English speaking ability, all students agreed that their speaking was improved after attending the CS instruction. They had the chance to learn some new speaking techniques, became more confident in speaking English, solved the communication breakdowns by themselves, spoke English continuously and had the chance to practise speaking and using the CSs.

Considering other comments or suggestions for the CS instruction, some students thought that the instruction was good so nothing should be improved. However, other students asked for more examples, quiz, materials and assignments. Some students suggested that the instruction sessions should be longer and the students should be more active in class activities since this instruction was useful. The findings of attitudinal questionnaire on the teaching of CSs and its usefulness will be discussed in more detail in Chapter five.

4.6 Summary of research findings

In this chapter, findings from each of the research instruments were presented (i.e., self-report strategy questionnaire, attitudinal questionnaire, speaking tasks and retrospective verbal reports). This section is to put the results from these instruments together in order to answer the four research questions. Only key findings from each instrument will be reported to provide an overall picture of the effects of the strategy intervention on students' actual use of CSs, perceptions about CSs and attitudes towards the CS instruction. The key findings will be organised under the research questions posed below.

Research Question 1: Does the teaching of specific communication strategies alter Thai students' reports of the use and usefulness of communication strategies?

With respect to research question 1, the findings indicated that the explicit teaching of CSs raised students' awareness of strategy use since they reported more use of CSs after receiving the CS instruction. It is significant to note that some taught CSs became more useful, according to students' perceptions after the CS instruction programme. For example, the students tended to report more use of "pause fillers and hesitation devices", "approximation," "clarification request" and "self-repair" in the questionnaire. As for attitudes towards the usefulness of CSs (research question 1), there was clear evidence to support the CS instruction. The findings indicated that the students found the taught strategies in the CS instruction useful, especially "pause fillers and hesitation devices" (section 4.2). However, other taught strategies such as "appeal for help" and "circumlocution" were also considered to be useful for the students since they were most likely to use them to compensate the linguistic gaps in their oral production.

Research Question 2: Does the teaching of specific communication strategies lead to greater use of the taught communication strategies? If yes, how do the students use these taught communication strategies while performing the speaking tasks?

The analysis of the four speaking tasks (section 4.3) has shown, to some extent, the students successfully used nine taught CSs in the CS instruction. They showed their ability to use the nine CSs they had been taught, especially "pause fillers and hesitation devices" when they faced communication problems. It can be concluded that the students transferred all nine taught CSs to their speech while performing the four speaking tasks after they received the 12-week CS instruction. The findings from the present analysis support the value of teaching CSs. The results from the speaking tasks indicated that the CS instruction could promote the greater use of taught CSs. The students made use of taught CSs, particularly "pause fillers and hesitation devices" when they used these strategies most often in the speaking tasks.

Research Question 3: Can the students identify the types of communication strategies they use in the speaking tasks? If yes, how do they explain their reasons for strategy use in the retrospective verbal reports?

To answer research question 3, the findings from the retrospective verbal reports have shown that the students tended to be aware of the nine taught CSs when they commented about what they were thinking while completing the post-speaking tasks (section 4.4). They reported their communication problems and mentioned their awareness of the strategic need of the taught CSs to solve these problems. They seemed to be aware of using "approximation" the most because they most frequently reported using this strategy in their retrospection in the post-speaking tasks.

Research Question 4: What are Thai students' attitudes towards the teaching of communication strategies?

Regarding research question 4, the students clearly supported the teaching of these CSs. The findings indicated that the students found the CS instruction useful for them (section 4.5). They also showed positive feelings and attitudes towards the CS instruction. Most students were satisfied with the CS instruction class. However, some students suggested that the instruction session should be lengthened and there should be more materials and examples of CS usage.

4.7 Chapter conclusion

This chapter has presented a range of analyses of the self-report strategy questionnaire, four speaking tasks, retrospective verbal protocols and attitudinal questionnaire. Overall, the findings from all research instruments showed that the CS instruction might be associated with changes in students' use and perceptions of nine taught CSs, in both quantitative and qualitative aspects. The results from the self-report strategy questionnaire, the speaking tasks and the retrospective protocols demonstrated that the explicit teaching of communication strategies raised students' awareness of strategy use and promoted the greater use of taught communication strategies. The findings of the attitudinal questionnaire indicated that the students showed positive feelings and attitudes towards the communication strategy instruction. Based on the findings, there are a number of issues regarding teaching EFL learners' use of CSs. The issues include the effects of awareness-raising of strategy use, differences between the use of taught and non-taught CSs and students' perceptions and attitudes towards the CS instruction. The next chapter discusses these issues in more detail.

CHAPTER FIVE
INTERPRETATION AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

5.1 Introduction

In the previous chapter, the findings demonstrated that CS instruction was related to changes in students' perceived and actual use of CSs. This chapter concerns discussion of the major findings and is divided into four sections. Section one presents the impact of strategy intervention on students' reports of use and usefulness of CSs in the questionnaire responses. Section two critically discusses the impact of strategy intervention on students' use of CSs in action. Section three emphasises students' reports of task performance and use of CSs in retrospective verbal reports. The chapter ends by discussing students' attitudes towards the CS instruction.

5.2 The impact of strategy intervention on students' reported use and usefulness of communication strategies in the questionnaire responses

The first issue is about the effects of teaching CSs on students' reports of use and usefulness of CSs in the self-report strategy questionnaire. The purpose of discussing these findings is to gain knowledge about the influence of CS instruction over the students' self-reported use and usefulness of taught and non-taught CSs in general. Particularly, key findings regarding the impact of the CS instruction on students' reported use and usefulness of taught CSs in the questionnaire responses are highlighted. The key research question addressed in this section is "Does the teaching of specific communication strategies alter Thai students' reports of the use and usefulness of communication strategies?" To answer this question, the current study shows the following findings.

Key findings from self-report strategy questionnaire

Taught CSs (see sections 4.2.1 and 4.2.2)

- There was a statistically significant increase in the reported use and usefulness of all nine taught CSs after the 12-week CS instruction.
- There were increases in the ranking of the reported use of six taught CSs (i.e., pause fillers and hesitation devices, clarification request, approximation, confirmation check, self-repair and circumlocution).
- There were increases in the ranking of the reported usefulness of five taught CSs (i.e., pause fillers and hesitation devices, circumlocution, confirmation check, approximation, and topic avoidance).
- There were decreases in the ranking of the reported use of three taught CSs (i.e., appeal for help, topic avoidance and comprehension check).
- There were decreases in the ranking of the reported usefulness of four taught CSs (i.e., appeal for help, clarification request, comprehension check and self-repair)

Non-taught CSs (see sections 4.2.1 and 4.2.2)

- There was a statistically significant increase in the reported use of all seven non-taught CSs after the 12-week CS instruction.
- There was a statistically significant increase in the reported usefulness of three non-taught CSs (i.e., non-linguistic strategy, use of all-purpose words and word coinage) after the 12-week CS instruction.
- There was a statistically significant decrease in the reported usefulness of four non-taught CSs (i.e., literal translation, code switching, message abandonment and foreignizing) after the 12-week CS instruction.
- There was an increase in the ranking of the reported usefulness of "foreignizing".
- There were dramatic decreases in the ranking of the reported use of five non-taught CSs (i.e., non-linguistic strategy, literal translation, message abandonment, code switching and use of all-purpose words).
- There were dramatic decreases in the ranking of the reported usefulness of four non-taught CSs (i.e., non-linguistic strategy, use of all-purpose words, code switching and message abandonment).
- There were no changes in the ranking of the reported use of two non-taught CSs (i.e., foreignizing and word coinage).
- There were no changes in the ranking of the reported usefulness of two non-taught CSs (i.e., literal translation and word coinage).

With respect to both types of CSs (taught and non-taught CSs), the CS instruction was related to changes in students' reports of use and usefulness of all 16 strategies. Significantly, the CS instruction was associated with increases in reports of use and usefulness of all nine taught strategies after the 12-week CS instruction. Most importantly, it should be noted that there were some changes in the ranking of the reported use and usefulness of some CSs in the questionnaire responses after the CS instruction. It is possible that the CS instruction promotes students' reporting of more use of taught CSs but less use of non-taught CSs in general.

5.2.1 Taught communication strategies

On the basis of the findings from the questionnaire responses, it seemed that the CS instruction was related to the increases in students' reports of use and usefulness of nine taught CSs after the 12-week CS instruction. In addition, correlations were found between students' reported use and their perceptions of usefulness of the taught CSs. The teaching of nine specific CSs positively influenced students' perceptions of use and usefulness of CSs. The most probable reason for these results is that the explicit teaching of CSs can raise the students' general awareness of the taught CSs. They, therefore, tended to report more use and usefulness of nine taught CSs in the present study. The value of raising students' strategic awareness in teaching CSs is supported by previous researchers (e.g., Lam, 2004; Nakatani, 2005). Lam (ibid.) supports that explicit strategy training raises the students' level of strategic awareness (p.230). Similarly, Nakatani (ibid.) suggests that learners' strategic awareness can be developed through raising their awareness of managing and supervising specific strategy use (p.87). In the current study, it is clear that the increase in students' strategic awareness was related to the explicit instruction of nine taught CSs. Through such an instruction, the students learned not only what type of CSs to use but also how to use them appropriately.

As for the reports of use of individual taught CSs, there were some changes in the ranking for individual CSs in the questionnaire responses after the CS instruction. That is, the rankings for some taught CSs increased after students received the CS instruction. These strategies are "pause fillers and hesitation devices", "clarification request", "approximation", "confirmation check", "self-repair" and "circumlocution". This result implies that all these strategies might be the most teachable and popular strategies of the students in the present study when coping with their problems in speaking English. However, there were decreases in the ranking of reported use of some taught CSs, namely "appeal for help", "topic avoidance" and "comprehension check" after the 12-week CS instruction. One possible explanation is that awareness-raising of nine CSs might not be sufficient to result in students' sustained use of the three aforementioned strategies so the students reported less use of them in the post-CS instruction. In addition, due to the limited practice time provided for individual

strategies, the students might not pay much attention to these strategies and also might consider them less important than other taught strategies (i.e., pause fillers and hesitation devices, clarification request, approximation, confirmation check, self-repair and circumlocution).

Regarding the reports of usefulness of individual taught CSs, the findings showed that there were increases in the ranking of reported usefulness of five taught CSs, namely "pause fillers and hesitation devices", "circumlocution", "confirmation check", "approximation", and "topic avoidance". These strategies were reported as being more useful and ranked higher by the students after the CS instruction. These results demonstrated that there was a clear correlation between what the students perceived as useful and what they thought they used in the questionnaire responses. That is, the students also reported more use of these strategies after they received the 12-week CS instruction. However, there were decreases in the ranking of reported usefulness of four taught CSs, i.e., "appeal for help", "clarification request", "comprehension check" and "self-repair". After the CS instruction, the students considered these strategies less important than other taught CSs. In other words, they reported using these strategies less frequently and considered them less useful in the post-questionnaire. It can be concluded that while students' perceptions about CSs may influence their use of these strategies, their use of the strategies may also reinforce their beliefs and perceptions about the usefulness of the strategies. This view is supported by Zhang and Goh's (2006) study, which showed that there were significant correlations between the students' knowledge about strategies and their perceived use of them. They remarked that "people usually have some perceptions or thoughts before they take certain actions" (Zhang & Goh, ibid: 214). The concepts of learners' perceptions or beliefs about effective strategies are also reflected in Wenden's (1998, 2001) view about "strategic knowledge". He explains that strategic knowledge refers to "general knowledge about what strategies are, why they are useful, and specific knowledge about when and how to use them" (Wenden, 1998:519). Therefore, the students in the current study probably believed in the usefulness of all taught CSs so they reported more use of these strategies after the CS instruction.

Compared with findings in previous research, the aforementioned findings of the current study were slightly different from Lam's (2004) research study. Lam's (ibid.) study examined the impact of the oral communication strategy training on students' perceived strategy use and effectiveness. Her data were collected from two classes in a secondary ESL classroom in Hong Kong. The taught strategies were "resourcing", "paraphrasing", "using self-repetition", "using fillers", "using self-correction", "asking for repetition", "asking for clarification" and "asking for confirmation". Her findings showed that oral communication strategy training appeared to be associated with statistically significant increases in the self-reported use and effectiveness of one taught strategy, i.e., "resourcing". She concluded that "resourcing" might enable the students to cope with their problem of resource deficits during speech processing. They, therefore, reported high uptake of this strategy in the post-questionnaire. The current study offers more empirical evidence for Lam's findings regarding students' reports of use and usefulness of variety of types of taught strategies. That is, there were statistical increases in the self-reported use of all nine taught CSs, especially "pause fillers and hesitation devices", "clarification request", "approximation", "confirmation check", "self-repair" and "circumlocution" and the CS instruction was associated with statistical increases in the self-reported usefulness of all nine taught CSs, particularly "pause fillers and hesitation devices", "circumlocution", "confirmation check", "approximation", and "topic avoidance". These different results can be explained by several reasons. Firstly, the students in this study may be more aware about the taught CSs than those in Lam's. Secondly, the CS instruction may draw the students' attention to the taught CSs. Lastly, the CS instruction may develop their linguistic and strategic knowledge.

So far the discussion above indicates that explicit focusing on the CS instruction is required in order to raise students' strategic awareness. Such awareness is necessary for developing students' strategic use of CSs. Therefore, it is worth providing awareness-raising instruction and practices that assist the students to develop their strategic awareness of some useful CSs.

5.2.2 Non-taught communication strategies

The previous section discussed the impact of the CS instruction on students' reports of use and usefulness of nine taught CSs in the questionnaire responses. In this section, the impact of the CS instruction on students' reports of use and usefulness of non-taught CSs are further discussed. After the 12-week CS instruction, the findings from the questionnaire responses indicated that the CS instruction seemed to impact on some changes in students' reports of use and usefulness of all seven non-taught strategies. The CS instruction impacted on non-taught CSs in a different way when compared with that of taught CSs. That is, in general there were no consistent increases in their reports of the use and usefulness of non-taught CSs after the CS instruction.

Considering the reports of use of individual non-taught CSs, there were dramatic decreases in the ranking of reported use of most non-taught CSs. These strategies were non-linguistic strategy, literal translation, message abandonment, code switching and use of all-purpose words. In addition, the findings showed that there were no changes in the ranking of reported use of two non-taught CSs, namely foreignizing and word coinage. That is, the students still reported less use of these two strategies in the questionnaire responses after the 12-week CS instruction. One possible explanation is that the students' attention may be shifted from the non-taught to taught CSs. After the CS instruction the students considered the non-taught CSs less important than the taught CSs they had learned over the 12-week period. These results lend support to the importance of awareness-raising of the taught CSs in the CS instruction. That is, the decreasing ranking of use of some non-taught CSs might result in the increased ranking of use of the taught CSs.

Regarding students' perceptions of usefulness of individual non-taught CSs, there were dramatic decreases in the ranking of reported usefulness of most non-taught CSs, i.e., non-linguistic strategy, use of all-purpose words, code switching and message abandonment. These strategies were reported as being less useful and ranked lower by the students after the CS instruction. However, it should be noted that only "foreignizing" was ranked higher in the post-questionnaire and there were no changes

in the ranking of reported usefulness of two non-taught CSs, i.e., literal translation and word coinage. These findings demonstrated that the students considered these strategies less important than the taught CSs they had learned for 12 weeks. Such strategies were used less frequently and considered less useful by the students in the post-questionnaire responses. One possible explanation is that the awareness-raising in the CS instruction may not spread from taught to non-taught CSs. That is, there were no consistent increases in students' reported use and usefulness of non-taught CSs in the post-questionnaire. This result is consistent with that in Lam's (2004) research study, which showed that the strategy training might not automatically spread from target to non-target strategies (p.234). As a result, there were steady decreases in the reported use and usefulness of non-taught strategies in questionnaire responses after the strategy training.

Based on the aforementioned discussion, two points are worth noting. First of all, the findings from the current study suggest that the students' attention can be shifted from the non-taught to taught CSs. After the 12-week CS instruction, the students in the current study increased awareness and enthusiasm for the taught CSs. This result suggests that it is possible to teach and encourage the students to use some useful CSs in the CS instruction. Secondly, the current study raises one key issue in CS instruction as to whether the CS instruction should be implicit or explicit focusing. The findings of this study lend support to the explicit teaching of CSs. The explicit teaching, describing, and discussing CSs in the classroom can raise students' strategic awareness and thus enable them to use CSs appropriately and efficiently at times of difficulty.

5.3 The impact of strategy intervention on students' use of communication strategies in action

The second focus of the current study was to investigate whether the teaching of nine specific CSs would lead to greater use of these strategies. Firstly, key findings in relation to the frequencies of actual use of taught CSs are discussed. It is followed by the discussion of transcribed data from the speaking tasks to gain insights into students' actual use of individually taught CSs in more detail. Finally, key findings

regarding the frequencies of use of non-taught CSs are discussed. The key research question addressed in this section was "Does the teaching of specific communication strategies lead to greater use of the taught communication strategies? If yes, how do the students use these taught communication strategies while performing the speaking tasks?" The following are the key findings concerning the impact of the CS instruction on the actual use of taught and non-taught CSs in the speaking tasks.

Key findings from speaking tasks

Taught CSs (see section 4.3.1)

- The students showed more dramatic and consistent increases in their use of nine taught CSs in the post-speaking tasks, particularly "pause fillers and hesitation devices".
- There were increases in the ranking of use of seven taught CSs (i.e., approximation, self-repair, circumlocution, confirmation check, topic avoidance, appeal for help and comprehension check).
- There were no changes in the ranking of use of two taught CSs (i.e., pause fillers and hesitation devices and clarification request).

Non-taught CSs (see section 4.3.1)

- The students showed dramatic decreases in their use of five non-taught CSs in the post-speaking tasks (i.e., code switching, message abandonment, non-linguistic strategy, word coinage and literal translation).
- There was a slight increase in their use of "use of all-purpose words".
- The students did not use "foreignizing" in their task performance.
- There were dramatic decreases in the ranking of use of five non-taught CSs (i.e., code switching, message abandonment, non-linguistic strategy, word-coinage and literal translation).
- There was an increase in the ranking of use of "use of all-purpose words".

In general, the CS instruction was associated with changes in students' actual use of both taught and non-taught CSs. In particular, the CS instruction was related to increases in students' actual use of nine taught CSs and decreases in their use of non-taught CSs in the post-speaking tasks. The detailed discussion of the changes in the students' use of CSs in the speaking tasks is presented as follows.

5.3.1 Taught communication strategies

With regard to the frequency of the strategy use, the CS instruction was related to changes in the use of taught CSs. That is, the findings showed higher frequencies and

more consistent increases in students' use of all nine taught CSs in the post-speaking tasks. Overall, the students tried out more types of taught CSs in the post-speaking tasks. Among nine taught CSs, "pause fillers and hesitation devices" was most frequently used in the pre-and post-speaking tasks. This result was in line with that in self-report strategy questionnaire in which "pause fillers and hesitation devices" was reported as being used most frequently by the students after the CS instruction. That is, there was a clear correlation between what the students thought they used and what they actually used. The findings also showed that there were some slight increases in the ranking of seven taught CSs, namely approximation, self-repair, circumlocution, confirmation check, topic avoidance, appeal for help and comprehension check. The most probable reason for high uptake of these strategies is that the teaching of some specific CSs may raise students' awareness of the taught CSs and then activate them to use these strategies more frequently during post-speaking tasks. This view is also supported by Nakatani (2005), who suggested that training focused on conscious practice in using CSs tended to improve learners' communication during stimulated tasks (p.87). She supports the argument that EFL learners who lack metacognitive skills should consciously employ their interlanguage system to control their performance and to maintain interaction. To achieve such goals, "learners' strategic competence can be developed through raising their awareness of managing and supervising specific strategy use" (Nakatani, 2005:87). In the current study, the findings from the speaking tasks demonstrated that the high use of nine taught CSs was the result of the awareness-raising in the CS instruction. After receiving the 12-week CS instruction, the students increased their use of the taught CSs to maintain their conversation and to solve conversation problems during the post-speaking tasks. They seemed to develop their strategic competence to a stage at which they could manipulate the taught CSs appropriately and flexibly during their performance in the post-speaking tasks. That is, they were able to employ a particular strategy or a set of taught strategies in combination so as to enhance their speaking task performance. Without the explicit CS instruction, the students probably were not aware which potential CSs they could use and how to use them appropriately. This information is valuable for English language teachers in Thailand. When the CS instruction is implemented, careful attention should be given to develop and enhance students' strategic awareness of using CSs. The CS instruction programme should supplement

awareness-raising discussions and feedback of the taught CSs. That is, the students should be given opportunities to evaluate their strategy use at the end of the lesson. A close examination of the impact of awareness-raising of individual taught CS in this study is further discussed in the following section.

The impact of the CS instruction on individual taught CSs

As for the use of individual taught CSs, the CS instruction was associated with obvious increases in the frequency of use of all nine taught CSs. In the current study, the nine CSs selected for teaching were: "pause fillers and hesitation devices", "approximation", "self-repair", "circumlocution", "confirmation check", "topic avoidance", "appeal for help", "clarification request" and "comprehension check". The following section discusses the impact of the strategy intervention on nine specific CSs to find out which strategies seem to be the most teachable. The findings might give useful information to review and develop the framework of CS selection.

Firstly, "pause fillers and hesitation devices" was the taught CS on which the students in the current study most frequently used in the post-speaking tasks and reported using in the questionnaire responses. One possible reason for the high use of "pause fillers and hesitation devices" is that it enables the students to gain time to think and remain in the conversation when they face communication problems. This view is supported by Dornyei (1995), who remarks that instead of giving up message, "pause fillers and hesitation devices" may provide the students with the sense of security in the L2 by giving them more time to think in times of difficulty (p.80). In addition, "pause fillers and hesitation devices" are included in Dornyei and Kormos's (1998) concept of time-gaining mechanisms which L2 speakers may apply in order to "keep the communication channel open and provide more time and attentional resources" (p.368). They suggest that L2 speakers are usually aware that to remain in the conversation they must avoid lengthy silences, which may end the conversation or put off the interlocutor (p.368). This situation is similar to the students in the present study. They frequently turned to "pause fillers and hesitation devices" when they wanted to gain more time to think and remain in the conversation. Compared with findings in previous study, the findings of the present study were consistent with Le's (2006)

research study. The present study showed that the students more frequently used one-word fillers such as “um”, “uh” and “well” when they faced a vocabulary gap. One possible reason is that one-word fillers may be easier to remember and use so the students more frequently turned to such words in their talk. However, the findings of the present study demonstrated that the students less frequently used other fillers such as “I see what you mean”, “To be honest” and “Hang on” in their talk. It is possible that these long fillers are more difficult to remember and quite new to the students. They, therefore, never used these fillers even though they were taught to use them in class. The other reason may be related to the limited practice time provided to individual strategies. The students, therefore, might have less chance to learn to use each strategy in class time. Based on these results, what can be suggested is that it may be effective to introduce “pause fillers and hesitation devices” as a fundamental communication strategy for Thai students. For one thing, this strategy does not cause the memory to be overloaded but is processed at a surface level. In addition, it enables the students to reach their communicative goal under real-time constraints and maintain their conversation.

Secondly, “approximation” was the second most frequently use strategy in the post-speaking tasks. This strategy is aimed to facilitate speech production by helping the students use an alternative lexical term that expresses the closest meaning to the target word. Before receiving the CS instruction, the students less frequently used this strategy in their talk. However, after the CS instruction the students showed more attempts to use this strategy. One possible reason for the increased use of “approximation” is that it enables the students in the present study to cope with the problem of vocabulary deficits during the initial phase of speech production. However, the finding of students’ increased use of “approximation” in the current study is contrast to that of Wen’s (2004) research work. Wen (ibid.) found that there was no salient difference of approximation use between the pre- and post-test. She then explained that approximation might already exist in the students’ repertoire before training. However, it should be noted that the students’ strategic awareness of “approximation” may be enhanced and developed through the practice of more useful lexical terms. The practice of more phrases in “approximation” is supported by Tarone and Yule (1989). They stress that “ESL learners who are developing strategic

competence in English are required to develop the linguistic resources like some basic vocabulary and sentences useful for describing" (p.12). The current study, therefore, introduced some basic and core vocabulary to the students in order to enhance their linguistic resources. It is possible that the instruction of such useful vocabulary might lead to the increased use of "approximation" in the present study. Therefore, it may be desirable to introduce "approximation" as a basic strategy for Thai students. The findings of this study suggest that it is useful to teach synonyms and antonyms in an approximation strategy to the students at the initial stage. In this way, the students are able to internalize some basic and core vocabulary and find an alternative term to use at times of difficulty.

Thirdly, "self-repair" was found useful among the students in the present study since they also increased using this strategy in the post-speaking tasks. "Self-repair" in the students' discourse is related to both linguistic and grammar aspects such as subject-verb agreement, tense and appropriate prepositions. This view conforms to Levelt's (1983, 1989) and Dornyei and Kormos's (1998) four main types of psycholinguistic mechanisms underlining self-repair in L2. According to Dornyei and Kormos (1998), four types of self-repair are error repair, appropriacy repair, different-repair and rephrasing repair (p.371). In the current study, the findings showed that the students tended to produce error repair and appropriacy repair when they realised that they provided erroneous, inadequate or inappropriate information in their utterance and then tried to repair it. In addition, it appeared that the confidence in using "self-repair" in the post-speaking tasks was related to the CS instruction. This is because the students immediately corrected their mistake with more confidence during speech processing. However, this finding is different from that of Lam's (2004) study. That is, Lam's study found that there was no consistent increase in students' use of "self-repair". The strategy training in Lam's study might not have impacted on the students' use of "self-repair". One plausible reason is that the students might consider this strategy less useful than "resourcing" so they rarely used it when facing communication problems. Nonetheless, the findings from the current study lend support to the potential of teaching appropriate "self-repair" to the students. For one thing, raising students' awareness of using self-repair is useful and desirable because this strategy promotes the students to take risks in correcting their mistake with more

confidence. As mentioned previously, “self-repair” in the students’ discourse was associated with both linguistic and grammar aspects. Therefore, the guiding of how to correct the linguistic and/or grammatical errors, e.g., subject-verb agreement, tense and appropriate prepositions may be useful for the students.

Fourthly, “circumlocution” was the fourth most frequently use strategy in the post-speaking tasks. This strategy helps students to describe the property, function, characteristics, duty, purpose or example of the object or action when they lack the appropriate target language item or structure (Tarone, 1981; Tarone & Yule, 1989; Dornyei & Thurrell, 1991). In the current study, the students increased their use of “circumlocution” and made use of a wide range of expressions taught in “circumlocution” to describe the unknown words in English. They showed more attempts to describe the target language word by providing exemplification, function, location, and size. This result lends support to Wen’s (2004) study. Wen (ibid.) found that the students utilised examples and descriptions to explain abstract notions. It is possible that the teaching of some core words or expressions may be useful for the students to solve gaps in communication and also keep the flow of conversation. They, therefore, increased their use of this strategy in the post-speaking tasks. This finding is in line with Tarone and Yule (1989), who remark that the use of “circumlocution” requires some basic or core vocabulary and sentence structures in order to describe characteristics, properties and function of a target language word (p.112). Based on these findings, the students may benefit from learning how to utilise “circumlocution”. This strategy is important because it enables the students to tackle problems at different stage of speech processing. That is, it enhances the students’ linguistic development in describing and explaining the target language item when they do not have the appropriate words to express themselves.

Fifthly, “confirmation check” was more frequently used by the students after the 12-week CS instruction. The aim of teaching “confirmation check” is to help students to confirm their understanding and negotiate meaning with the interlocutor. In the present study, the results showed that, in order to check for confirmation, the students tended to repeat all or part of the interlocutor’s utterances. They sometimes tried to use some phrases in “confirmation check” they learned in class. It is possible that the

teaching of “confirmation check” might increase students’ confidence in negotiating meaning with the interlocutor and help them to develop their conversational interaction. This finding is in line with that of Nakatani’s (2005) research work, which found that the strategy training might impact on the students’ increased use of “modified interaction” (i.e., confirmation check, comprehension check and clarification request). In the current study, the students used “confirmation check” to trigger more and better L2 output from the interlocutors. This strategy is, therefore, an essential strategy that helps the students to negotiate meaning with their interlocutors and keep the conversations going.

Sixthly, “topic avoidance” was another taught strategy which was found useful among the students in the current study. According to Faerch and Kasper (1983), learners have two possible strategies in general for solving a communication problem: avoidance strategies in which they avoid the problem, and achievement strategies through which they find an alternative solution. With avoidance strategies, the students tend to avoid talking about particular topics for which the vocabulary is not known. Compared with findings in previous studies, the findings of the present study were distinct from those in Wannaruk’s (2002) study, which found that the students less frequently used “topic avoidance”. The present study showed that the students increased their use of “topic avoidance” after receiving the CS instruction. It is possible that the students in the present study might realise the usefulness of using “topic avoidance” when they did not know how to express their ideas in English. The other reason of students’ increased use of “topic avoidance” may be that this strategy enables them to gain more time to think and remain in the conversation. As suggested by Dornyei (1995), the teaching of CSs like “topic avoidance” may provide the students with “a sense of security in the L2 by allowing them room to manoeuvre in times of difficulties” (p.80). Instead of giving up talking, the students may try to keep the conversation going and achieve their communicative goal (Dornyei, 1995: 80). In line with this view, the present study suggests that it is possible to activate students to use “topic avoidance” to cope with their communication problems. At least this strategy enables the students to reach their communicative goal under real-time constraints and remain in the conversation. However, more attention should be given to develop students’ appropriate use of “topic avoidance”. That is, the students should

be guided and informed both advantages and disadvantages of using this strategy so that they can use it appropriately and effectively at times of difficulties.

Seventhly, “appeal for help” was also used by the students in the present study. This strategy enables the students to ask the interlocutor for help in order to express themselves more effectively in the target language. In the current study, the findings showed that the students slightly increased their use of “appeal for help” in the post-speaking tasks. This finding is different from that in Pornpibul’s (2005) research work, which showed that the students most frequently used “appeal for help” when they encountered the communication difficulty. One possible explanation for this difference is that the students in the present study might solve the communication problems by themselves since they showed more attempts to try out other new taught strategies (e.g., pause fillers and hesitation devices, approximation and self-repair). In addition, the students in the current study might not be accustomed to asking questions when they did not understand the particular words. Therefore, it is necessary to provide more time for the students to practise the use of “appeal for help”. In this way, the students should be guided how to use the question structures and practise using these questions in real-life situations.

Eighthly, among nine taught strategies “clarification request” was less frequently used by the students in the present study. The aim of using “clarification request” is to trigger more L2 output from the interlocutor. The results of the present study showed that the students were inclined to use clarification request more frequently than confirmation check in the post-speaking tasks. They used this strategy in order to request the explanation of an unfamiliar meaning structure from the interlocutor. These results are consistent with those of Lee’s (1996) research work, which found that the students tended to use clarification requests rather than using confirmation checks in their talk. One plausible reason is that the students might want to trigger more and better L2 output from their interlocutor. In addition, “clarification request” facilitates the employment of different question forms. For example, the students in the present study tended to use “wh” questions when they asked for clarification from their interlocutor. Therefore, it is useful to teach the students how and when to use question forms in “clarification request” appropriately because this strategy enables

the students to remain in their conversation and make them more confident in negotiating meaning in English.

Lastly, “comprehension check” was least frequently used by the students in this study. In general, this strategy is aimed to help students to check whether the interlocutor understands what they have said or not and call for the mutual understanding between the speaker and the interlocutor. As mentioned previously, the students in the current study rarely used this strategy when they negotiated meaning with their interlocutor. One possible reason is that they might be unfamiliar with using this strategy and that it might be new to them. In addition, the students used “comprehension check” in order to make them clearly understood by the interlocutor. They tended to make use of some taught phrases in “comprehension check” such as “Alright?” and “Do you know?” Accordingly, it may be useful to teach “comprehension check” to the students because this strategy may build up students’ confidence in speaking and keeping their conversation going.

In summary, the aforementioned discussion indicates that the nine taught CSs proposed in this study are teachable and desirable for the students. While previous studies (e.g., Salamone & Marsal, 1997; Rossiter, 2003; Wen, 2004) focused on teaching a few achievement strategies such as circumlocution or approximation, this study suggested teaching more types of CSs. Teachers may also include other types of CSs such as appeal for help, self-repair, topic avoidance, pause fillers and hesitation devices, confirmation check, clarification request and comprehension check. It is useful to introduce these strategies as fundamental strategies to develop students’ strategic competence. At the initial stage, the teachers may start with the teaching of some basic and easy strategies such as pause fillers and hesitation devices, approximation or self-repair. Then, they may introduce more advanced strategies such as circumlocution, confirmation check, topic avoidance and so on. However, the teachers may make an adjustment based on their actual teaching context and situations. So far this section has provided evidence in support of teaching nine taught CSs. The next section further discusses the impact of the CS instruction on students’ actual use of non-taught CSs.

5.3.2 Non-taught communication strategies

The findings in the present study suggest that the CS instruction might impact on non-taught CSs in a different way when compared with that on taught CSs. That is, the students dramatically decreased their use of most non-taught CSs in the post-speaking tasks. The following section discusses the findings on non-taught CSs used by the students in more detail.

Firstly, the findings suggest that the explicit teaching of nine specific CSs might impact on the decreased use of five non-taught CSs (i.e., code switching, message abandonment, non-linguistic strategy, word coinage and literal translation) and result in the increased use of the taught CSs in the post-speaking tasks. This result is in line with that in Lam's (2004) study, which showed that the steady decreases in reporting of non-target strategies might be influenced by the strategy instruction. One possible explanation is that the explicit focus on the taught CSs may activate only students' strategic awareness of the taught CSs but not that of non-taught CSs. The students, thus, increased their use of CSs they had learned in class. The explicit strategy instruction is supported by Dornyei (1995), who discussed that the awareness-raising of explicit strategy instruction might help learners to retain and transfer the strategy use. Cohen (1998) also supports the idea that an explicit teaching of language learning and language use strategies enables students to find their ways to success (p.67). In addition, Manchon (2000) suggests that explicit strategy instruction can be carried out by raising students' awareness of the value and benefits of strategy use (p. 17).

Secondly, the findings showed that the students slightly increased their use of one non-taught strategy "use of all-purpose words" (e.g., the overuse of "thing" or "stuff") in the post-speaking tasks. They sometimes resorted to this strategy when they seemed to be unsure about an appropriate or correct term for something. According to Dornyei (1995), the students use this strategy to "extend a general, empty lexical item to contexts" where specific words are unavailable (p.58). It is possible that the use of "all-purpose words" is rather simple and not new to the students. They, therefore, were able to use this strategy although they had never been taught how to use it. This

finding suggests that “use of all-purpose words” can be taught and tried out in future CS instruction.

Lastly, the findings revealed that none of the students in the present study used “foreignizing” in their speaking task performance. This strategy is aimed to help learners to use an L1 (Thai) word by adjusting it to L2 pronunciation or adding to it an L2 suffix. However, the students might consider this strategy less useful for them to solve their communication problems. In addition, there might be a large linguistic distance between L1 (Thai) and L2 (English) and this might cause the native speaker of English to misunderstand what the students tried to say. Rababah (2001) suggests that L1 language based-strategies like “foreignizing” should not be taught when the language learners want to enhance their language learning.

What is stated above raises a key issue regarding the CS instruction programme. That is, without the CS instruction, it is unlikely to activate students’ strategic awareness of using CSs in general. To illustrate, the current study indicates that the explicit focusing on nine taught CSs may activate only students’ strategic awareness of these taught strategies but not that of non-taught CSs. Therefore, it raises the issue whether it is desirable to raise students’ awareness of using both taught and non-taught CSs in the CS instruction programme. On the basis of the findings from the current study, one non-taught CS that can be taught to the students is “use of all-purpose words”. This strategy was found useful since it helped the students to cope with their lack of appropriate target language term. The teaching of this strategy may yield benefits to the students.

To summarise, the discussion on the findings elicited from the speaking tasks has contributed to the understanding of the impact of the CS instruction on students’ actual use of taught and non-taught CSs and the CS instruction in general. The next section discusses the findings on the impact of the CS instruction on students’ ability to identify and comment on their use of CSs in more detail.

5.4 Students' reports of task performance and use of communication strategies in retrospective verbal reports

The focus of this section is to discuss the findings from retrospective verbal reports. The retrospective verbal reports yielded insights about student's CS use as well as some useful comments and feedback on the strategy use. The key research question addressed in this section is "Can the students identify the types of communication strategies they use in the speaking tasks? If yes, how do they explain their reasons for strategy use in the retrospective verbal reports?" The following are the key findings regarding students' reports of task performance and use of CSs in retrospective verbal reports.

Key findings from retrospective verbal reports

Pre-speaking tasks (see section 4.4.2)

- The students commented on their oral communication problems and their use of eleven CSs.
- The students reported six taught CSs (i.e., approximation, circumlocution, pause fillers and hesitation devices, appeal for help, topic avoidance and clarification request) and five non-taught CSs (i.e., message abandonment, code switching, non-linguistic strategy, literal translation and word coinage).
- The students most frequently reported message abandonment to solve their communication problems in their retrospection.

Post-speaking tasks (see section 4.4.2)

- The students seemed to be more aware about taught CSs.
- They reported using nine taught CSs (i.e., approximation, circumlocution, pause fillers and hesitation devices, appeal for help, topic avoidance confirmation check, clarification request, self-repair and comprehension check) and three non-taught CSs (i.e., code switching, non-linguistic strategy and message abandonment).
- They most frequently reported approximation and least frequently reported message abandonment in the post-speaking tasks.
- The number of different types of taught CSs identified by all students increased while those of non-taught CSs decreased after the CS instruction.
- There were increases in the frequency of the reports of nine taught CSs but decreases in the frequency of the reports of non-taught CSs.

CSs reported by individual students during pre-and post-speaking tasks (see section 4.4.2.2)

- The students reported a wide range of CSs in their retrospection during the pre- and post-speaking tasks.

- The number of types of CSs reported by the individuals ranged between seven and eleven.
- Overall, the students seemed to be more aware of their limitations, problems and their use of some taught CSs during the post-speaking tasks.
- Student N demonstrated the highest ability to identify CSs and his comments about the intention and reasons behind his use of CSs were rich and more detailed during the pre-and post-speaking tasks.
- Student J showed the lowest ability to identify CSs in his retrospection during the pre-and post-speaking tasks.

Overall, the findings in general demonstrated the CS instruction influenced the increase in students' ability to identify and comment on their use of CSs. In particular, there were increases in the frequency of the reports of nine taught CSs but decreases in the frequency of the reports of non-taught CSs. This result was consistent with that in the speaking tasks. That is, the students' reports about the use of CSs were almost consistent with their actual use of CSs in the speaking task performance. In addition, the students were able to report their communication problems and show their awareness of strategic need for using the taught CSs during the speaking task performance. With respect to individual students, the findings revealed that the students varied in their ability to report their thought and in the range of reported strategy use. These findings brought up several interesting points regarding the impact of the CS instruction on students' strategic knowledge, strategic thinking and individual differences in identifying CSs.

In the first place, it can be argued that the CS instruction may be associated with the impact on students' strategic knowledge of strategy use. There was clear evidence from the retrospective verbal reports that the students enhanced their knowledge about the CSs they used in the post-speaking tasks. To illustrate, the students were able to identify all types of taught CSs they used in the post-speaking tasks. They could use the terminology of the taught CSs and talk about the types of CSs they used in their task performance after they received the CS instruction. These findings are in line with those in Lam's (2004) and Nakatani's (2005) research work, which showed that the strategy instruction might raise students' awareness of strategic knowledge and enhance their ability to identify the types of taught strategies. In addition, these

findings provide empirical evidence for Wenden's (1998) concept of strategic knowledge. According to Wenden (ibid.), strategic knowledge is general knowledge learners have acquired about "what strategies are, why they are useful, and specific knowledge about when and how to use them" (p.519). He further explained that what the learners "may actually use or think they use or should use can also be viewed as evidence of their strategic knowledge" (Wenden, ibid: 519). Strategic knowledge is important because it helps the students to develop awareness of the taught CSs. The findings from the current study indicated that the CS instruction possibly equipped students with strategic knowledge of the taught CSs. The students, therefore, were able to talk about the strategies they used in the post-speaking tasks.

In addition, the CS instruction might have an impact on students' strategic thinking. In the current study, the students showed their ability to reflect on their strategic thoughts and behaviour when they tried to cope with problems during the post-speaking tasks. They could think back and comment on their oral task performance in detail. They explained their on-task thoughts including problems and strategic solutions to the problems. These findings lend support to Lam's (2004) study, which found that during the retrospective verbal reports the students could reflect on and discuss thought processes during their task performance. In addition, the data from retrospective verbal reports provide language teachers the understanding on EFL learners' strategic thinking and communication problems in the speaking tasks. The teachers may use this information to develop students' strategic awareness and strategic competence.

The findings from the retrospective verbal reports also showed that students varied in their ability to identify the strategy use. That is, the students reported a wide range of CSs in their retrospection and the number of types of CSs reported by the individuals ranged between seven and eleven. Student N, for example, demonstrated the highest ability to identify CSs during the pre-and post-speaking tasks. He identified 48 instances of CSs (9 taught CSs and 3 non-taught CSs) he used in the speaking task performance. His intention and reasons behind his use of CSs were rich and detailed. On the other hand, Student J showed the lowest ability to identify CSs in his retrospection during the pre-and post-speaking tasks. He identified and reported 21 instances of CSs (7 taught CSs and 2 non-taught CSs) in his retrospection. His

explanation and comments on the use of CSs were generally brief. These findings raise the issue that the CS instruction may have different impacts on individual students' reports of use of CSs. As suggested by Ehrman, Leaver and Oxford (2003), "one person differs from another in their styles, strategies and motivations…" (p.325). Therefore, the students may vary greatly in their use of CSs to cope with their communication problems. This information is useful to language teachers and learners. When the CS instruction is implemented, learner differences in style and strategy use should be taken as a basis for the framework of the taught strategies.

In summary, the findings from the retrospective verbal reports demonstrated that the CS instruction had impacts on students' strategic knowledge, strategic thinking and individual differences in identifying CSs. Strategic knowledge is important since it enables the students to develop their strategic awareness of the taught CSs. In addition, the findings of this study indicate that the understanding of students' strategic thinking and communication problems is essential to develop students' strategic awareness and strategic competence. Finally, this study demonstrated that the students varied greatly in their use of CSs to cope with their communication problems. These findings lend support to the focus on individual differences in style and strategy use in the CS instruction.

5.5 Students' attitudes towards the CS instruction

The previous section discussed the impact of CS instruction on students' reports of task performance and the use of communication strategies. This section further addresses research question 4: What are Thai students' attitudes towards the teaching of communication strategies? The results from the attitudinal questionnaires voiced students' attitudes and reflections on the teaching of nine CSs. Some of their reflections had been debated in previous research work and some of them were new discoveries. Overall, students had positive feelings about the teaching of these nine CSs. To start with, the issues of students' feelings and attitudes towards the CS instruction are discussed as follows.

Students' feelings towards the CS instruction

Regarding students' feelings towards the CS instruction in general, the majority of the students found this instruction good and useful for them and some of them reported they enjoyed and liked this instruction. This result corresponds to Dornyei's (1995) study which found that students' general attitudes towards the training of CSs were positive. In the current study, students' positive feelings might derive from their learning experience gained from the CS instruction over a 12-week period. That is, the students in the current study were encouraged to employ CSs through activities and follow six types of procedures for teaching communication strategies described by Dornyei (1995). Thus, they might experience and be aware of these strategies. In addition, the CS instruction programme included awareness-raising discussions and feedback about the use and usefulness of CSs. Such activities may, therefore, promote students' positive feelings towards the CS instruction.

With respect to what students liked about the CS instruction, the students favoured: (1) the taught CSs, (2) the practice of speaking English in class, (3) teacher and teaching method, (4) materials and hand-outs and, (5) the content of the CS instruction and the class atmosphere. These findings provide more empirical evidence to support Le's (2006) study which explored what the students and teacher thought about strategy instruction. Le (ibid.) found that most students showed positive attitudes to the content of the lessons and discussion tasks. In contrast to the findings of the current study, the students in Le's study failed to yield their opinions in favour of other components of the CS instruction. As suggested by Ellis (1985), students may vary in their attitudes and preferences of teaching style and course materials (p.103). Thus, the students in the current study might express different preferences for CS instruction when compared to those in Le's study.

As for things students did not like about the CS instruction, most students commented that they liked everything about this instruction. However, the rest of the students were dissatisfied with the application of some CSs, the length of instruction session, their listening and speaking ability in English and less opportunity to practise speaking English. Such dissatisfaction may derive from several reasons. Firstly, the students

seemed not to be familiar with the CS instruction programme so they might question about the application of CSs. Secondly, they might have negative feelings and lack confidence in speaking English. Lastly, the focus on teaching a variety of CSs might result in limitations on the amount of practice and the opportunity to practise speaking English in class. However, the feedback from the students yielded benefits for the revision of the CS instruction programme for future research.

The relations between students' improvement in speaking ability and the CS instruction

With respect to the improvement of their English speaking ability, all students agreed that their speaking was improved after attending the CS instruction for several reasons. That is, they had the chance to learn some new speaking techniques, become more confident in speaking English, solve communication breakdowns by themselves, speak English continuously and practise speaking and using the CSs. Such reasons may be influenced by the attempts to increase students' self-efficacy and self-confidence in using CSs in the CS instruction. The concepts of self-efficacy and self-confidence are supported by Dornyei (2001b), who discussed how to increase the learners' self-confidence in learning a foreign language. According to Dornyei (2001a), self-efficacy is "an individual's judgement of his or her ability to perform a specific action" (p.22). That is a high sense of self-efficacy builds up the achievement of students' behaviour. In the current study, the students' self-efficacy was increased when they believed that their speaking ability was improved and developed after receiving the 12-week CS instruction. In addition, Dornyei (2001a) mentioned the importance of increasing students' self-confidence in foreign language classrooms. He suggested the ways to increase students' self-confidence (Dornyei, 2001b:130). For example, students' self-confidence can be increased by "providing regular exercises of success and emphasising what learners can rather than cannot do" (Dornyei, 2001b:130). Therefore, the present study suggests that students' self-confidence in using CSs can be increased by promoting their own positive attitudes towards themselves and providing them with chances to practise and take risks in strategy use.

Usefulness of the CS instruction

In terms of the usefulness of the CS instruction, all of the students in the present study thought that the instruction of CSs was useful for them in various ways. Most students believed that they could apply these taught CSs to solve their oral communication problems in English as well as to improve their English speaking skill. Some students suggested that learning these CSs enhanced their fluency, gave them more confidence, expanded their English knowledge and helped them to get the meaning across. These findings lend more support to those of Le's (2006) study. In Le's (ibid.) study, the students reported four main advantages of strategy teaching session: "helping them get the meaning across, giving them more confidence, enhancing their fluency, and helping them teach English more efficiently in the future" (p.198). Such perceptions about the usefulness of the CS instruction may be applied to the criteria in evaluating and revising the strategy training programme and provide insightful feedback for the CS instruction programme in future research.

To summarise, three points from attitudinal questionnaires are worth noting. First of all, the findings from the current study suggest that the CS instruction programme should include awareness-raising discussions and feedback about the use and usefulness of CSs. These activities promote students' positive feelings towards the CS instruction. In addition, the findings of this study lend support to increasing students' self-confidence in using CSs. In this way, the CS instruction may promote students' positive attitudes by providing them with opportunities to practise and take risks in using CSs. Lastly, students' feedback on the usefulness of the CS instruction is useful because it can be used as the basis for evaluating and revising the CS instruction in further research work.

5.6 Summary of Chapter five

In this chapter, the key findings from four research instruments and research questions have been discussed and interpreted with plausible reasons. The quantitative and qualitative data analysis revealed that the explicit CS instruction was beneficial and positively affected students' use and perceptions of CSs. The findings are consistent

with some previous research and provide new empirical evidence that the CS instruction is possible and desirable among the language learners. In light of these findings, several issues were discussed and interpreted.

The first issue is about the effects of teaching CSs on students' reports of use and usefulness of CSs. With respect to both types of CSs (taught and non-taught CSs), the CS instruction was related to changes in students' reports of use and usefulness of all 16 strategies. More importantly, the CS instruction was associated with increases in reports of use and usefulness of all nine taught strategies and decreases in those of non-taught CSs after the 12-week CS instruction. These results lend support to the importance of awareness-raising of the taught CSs in the CS instruction. That is, the decreasing ranking of use of some non-taught CSs might result in the increasing ranking of use of the taught CSs.

Secondly, key findings in relation to the impact of the CS instruction on students' actual use of taught CSs have been discussed. The findings showed that the CS instruction was associated with changes in students' actual use of both taught and non-taught CSs. In particular, the CS instruction was related to increases in students' actual use of nine taught CSs and decreases in their use of non-taught CSs in the post-speaking tasks. "Pause fillers and hesitation devices" was most frequently used in the pre-and post-speaking tasks. This result was in line with that of self-report strategy questionnaire in which "pause fillers and hesitation devices" was reported using most frequently by the students after the CS instruction. Thus, there was a clear correlation between what the students thought they used and what they used in actual.

Thirdly, the retrospective verbal protocols yielded insights about student's CS use as well as some useful comments and feedback on the strategy use. Overall, the findings demonstrated that the CS instruction influenced the increase in students' ability to identify and comment on their use of CSs. They were able to report their communication problems and show their awareness of strategic need for using the taught CSs. In terms of individual students, the findings revealed that the students varied in their ability to report their thought and in the range of reported strategy use. These findings brought up several interesting points concerning the impact of the CS

instruction on students' strategic knowledge, strategic thinking and their ability to identify CSs.

Lastly, the results from attitudinal questionnaires revealed students' attitudes and reflections towards the teaching of nine taught CSs. Overall, students had positive feelings about the teaching of these nine CSs in general. In terms of the improvement of their English speaking ability, all students agreed that their speaking was improved after attending the CS instruction. The CS instruction appeared to increase students' self-efficacy and self-confidence in using CSs.

CHAPTER SIX
CONCLUSION

This chapter draws together the key aspects of the present study. Following the introduction of the chapter, the first section presents the summary of this study. Section two focuses on the implications of the study. The limitations of the study are included in section three and suggestions for further research are addressed in section four. The chapter ends with the concluding statements.

6.1 Summary of the study

This study examines the effects of explicit teaching of nine CSs on strategy perceptions and strategy use of Thai learners of English at King Mongkut's University of Technology North Bangkok (KMUTNB). To conduct this research, the researcher was inspired by her EFL teaching experience as well as the implications recommended by previous CS training studies in the field. As explained in Chapter one, most Thai students still have problems in their English speaking ability despite many years of learning English. Given the importance of English speaking ability for Thai university students, the current study was undertaken to introduce some useful CSs for coping with problems in speaking English.

The study began by presenting a historical overview and trends of CSs in relation to the field of second language learning and teaching. Then, the definitions of CSs in relation to the context of the present study were presented. Two major approaches were proposed to conceptualise and classify CSs, namely the interactional view and psycholinguistic view. While the former defines CS as a mutual attempt by participants in a communicative situation to maintain communication, the latter views CS as a cognitive process of the speaker with a focus on comprehension and production. The arguments in favour of and against teaching CSs as well as the issue of how to teach CSs have been discussed to propose the methods of teaching CSs. In reviewing the empirical research concerning CSs and CS instruction, there are several unsolved issues that require further investigation.

Since the review of literature suggested that there appeared to be no information on training CSs to Thai students, the current study adopted an interventionist study to find out the impact of such training on the speaking performance of Thai students. Both quantitative and qualitative techniques were used to find out whether it was possible to teach some specific CSs to Thai students and how such teaching impacted on students' use and perceptions of taught CSs. Sixty-two fourth year students majoring in Engineering at King Mongkut's University of Technology North Bangkok participated in this study. All the students received a 12-week communication strategy-based instruction and 12 students were asked to complete four speaking tasks and retrospective verbal reports. Four research questions were addressed and data were collected from a self-report strategy questionnaire, an attitudinal questionnaire, transcription data of four different speaking tasks and retrospective protocols.

With respect to research question 1, the findings indicated that the explicit teaching of CSs might raise the students' awareness of strategy use since they reported more use of CSs after receiving the 12 week-CS instruction. It should be noted that some taught CSs became more useful among the students after applying the CS instruction programme. For example, the students tended to report more use of "pause fillers and hesitation devices", "approximation", "clarification request" and "self-repair" in the questionnaire. As for attitudes towards the usefulness of CSs, there was clear evidence to support the CS instruction. The findings indicated that the students considered the taught strategies in the CS instruction useful, especially "pause fillers and hesitation devices". These results are consistent with some previous studies (e.g., Dornyei, 1995; Wannaruk, 2002; Weerarak, 2003; Pornpibul, 2005) which showed that "pause fillers and hesitation devices" was considered to be the most useful strategy. However, other taught strategies such as "appeal for help" and "circumlocution" were also considered to be useful for the students since they were most likely to use them in their oral production.

Regarding research question 2, the analysis of the four speaking tasks has shown, to some extent, the students successfully used nine taught CSs in the CS instruction. They showed their ability to use the nine CSs they had been taught, especially "pause fillers and hesitation devices" when they faced communication problems. Thus, it

might be concluded that the students transferred all nine taught CSs to their speech while performing the four speaking tasks after they received the 12-week CS instruction. CS instruction could promote the greater use of taught CSs. The value of raising students' awareness of CSs has been confirmed in recent studies (Kebir, 1994; Dornyei, 1995; Lam, 2004; Wen, 2004; Nakatani, 2005; Le, 2006).

To answer research question 3, the findings from the retrospective verbal reports have shown that the students tended to be more aware of the nine taught CSs when they commented about what they were thinking while completing the post-speaking tasks. They reported their communication problems and mentioned their awareness of the strategic need of the taught CSs to solve these problems. Particularly, they seemed to be aware of using "approximation" the most because they most frequently reported using it in their retrospection in the post-speaking tasks.

As for research question 4, the students clearly supported the teaching of these CSs. The findings indicated that the students found the CS instruction useful for them. They also showed positive feelings and attitudes towards the CS instruction. Most students were satisfied with the CS instruction class. However, some students suggested that the instruction session should be lengthened and there should be more materials and examples of CS usage. These results are consistent with those in Dornyei's (1995) study which showed that the students found the strategies in the training useful and their general attitudes towards the training were positive.

6.2 The implications of this study

Based on the findings in the present study, three key implications can be drawn. The first implication is for EFL classrooms and English speaking instruction in Thailand. The second one is for English language teachers at university level in Thailand. The third one is for research in CSs.

6.2.1 Implications for EFL classroom and English speaking instruction in Thailand

The findings of this study provide implications and applications for EFL classroom and English speaking instruction in Thailand, especially in the areas of curriculum development, syllabus design and material development.

Curriculum development and syllabus design

As discussed in Chapter five, CS instruction appeared to have a positive impact on students' perceptions and actual use of CSs they had learned in the CS instruction class. That is, the teaching and awareness-raising of some specific CSs helped the students in this study to gain more confidence in their spoken English and show more attempts to solve their communication problems. These results imply that it is possible to implement explicit teaching of CSs in EFL classrooms and in particular in English speaking classes. As suggested by Dornyei and Thurrell (1991), strategic competence is important since it enables the foreign language learner to use strategies to cope with their communication problems (p.17). Thus, it is beneficial to incorporate strategy training in a communicative syllabus, especially English speaking courses. Cohen (1998) also supports the idea that foreign language program administrators may include strategy training as part of the foreign language curriculum (p. 67). He further suggests that the explicit strategy training can help students to achieve language program goals since it enables students to "find their own pathways to success, and thus it promotes learner autonomy and self-direction" (Cohen, ibid: 67). In addition, as suggested by several researchers (Corder, 1983; Dornyei and Thurrell, 1992; Dornyei, 1995), it is beneficial to introduce these strategies in a language teaching curriculum. Accordingly, in situations where language curriculum and syllabus are to be designed for the foreign language learners, strategic competence and CSs can be taught and developed for effective use in real-life communication. The ability to use CSs may boost learners' confidence in selecting and implementing appropriate strategies in coping with their communication problems. Based on the findings of this study, the students also gave some recommendations regarding the application of CS instruction, class management and material development which appeared to be very useful. These

findings were based on the practical experience of the students in the CS instruction of the current study. Practitioners may use the outcome of this study as a basis to design and develop lessons that can enhance students' strategic competence in using CSs.

Material Development

This study aims to examine whether it is possible to teach some specific CSs to Thai learners of English. The outcome of this study suggests that the students can learn English speaking and practise using CSs through the training materials of CSs. These results lend support to the value of the CS instruction, in particular in EFL contexts where learners rarely have an opportunity to develop their strategic competence naturally outside the classroom. In the current study, the training materials were designed to encourage the students to use CSs. The CS instruction programme in the current study included a number of strategy training materials adapted and modified by the researcher on the basis of available resources for English speaking tasks and well researched-CS training materials (Dornyei and Thurrell, 1992; Bygate, 1987). Such a programme lasted for 12 weeks. For each lesson, students were encouraged to work in pairs or in groups through these training materials. They were given a list of names and examples of the nine taught strategies to model on (see Appendix K). These materials were used to raise students' strategic awareness of taught CSs. According to Cohen (1998), strategies-based materials may include awareness-raising activities, strategy training, practice, and reinforcement activities (p.93). Thus, these suggestions for CS training materials may be useful for material writers in developing activities and teaching materials to promote the use of CSs among EFL learners.

The findings in the current study have revealed some learnable and useful CSs that may enhance students' confidence in speaking English and coping with oral communication problems. As suggested by Faerch and Kasper (1983) and Faucette (2001), the ideal materials for teaching communication strategies may emphasise suggested strategies that require L2 production. Based on the findings from the speaking tasks of this study, the students increased their use of all nine taught strategies (i.e., pause fillers and hesitation devices, approximation, self-repair, circumlocution, confirmation check, topic avoidance, appeal for help, clarification request and comprehension check) and one non-taught CSs (i.e., use of all-purpose

words). The findings also suggested that they most frequently used “pause fillers and hesitation devices”, “approximation”, “self-repair”, “circumlocution”, “confirmation check” when they encountered communication problems. Therefore, the material writers may include different types of CSs in textbooks or teaching materials for speaking course in order to enhance students’ strategic competence.

Lastly, the findings of this study suggest that types of speaking tasks may have an impact on how the students employed CSs. For example, in describing pictures and topics, most students tended to turn to self-solving strategies such as “pause fillers and hesitation devices” and/or “approximation”. However, when performing interactive tasks including an oral interview and a conversation task, the students appeared to most frequently use CSs such as “appeal for help”, “confirmation check” and “clarification request”. These findings lend support to the inclusion of various task types in the speaking course. That is, the material writers may include the various types of tasks to encourage the students to use appropriate CSs in times of difficulty.

6.2.2 Implications for English language teachers at university level in Thailand

This section introduces some implications for English language teachers at university level in Thailand. The first implication involves teaching methodology for the English language teacher and the second one is for raising students’ strategic awareness.

Teaching methodology for English language teacher

Since Thailand is a monolingual country, students tend to have less chance to communicate in English outside the classroom. Therefore, it is beneficial to find an alternative method of teaching English speaking to Thai students. As suggested in Chapter one, it is not enough to encourage only speaking activities in class but teachers may also explicitly introduce communication strategies. It is beneficial to teach and equip students with particular communication strategies since these strategies may enable students to gain confidence in speaking English. These viewpoints are supported by a number of researchers (Kebir, 1994; Dornyei, 1995; Lam, 2004; Wen, 2004; Nakatani, 2005; Le, 2006). The CS instruction can be carried out by explicitly demonstrating the use of CSs or integrating these strategies in normal

language class activities. As put forward by Cohen (1998), the option of strategy training differs "in the level of explicitness of the training, the level of student awareness of the practical applications and transferability of the strategies, and the level of integration into the foreign language curriculum" (p.74). However, the CS instruction in this study was carried out by explicitly demonstrating and practising the use of CSs to the students as well as raising their strategic awareness of using CSs. The CS instruction was made by referring to six interrelated procedures of strategy training proposed by Dornyei (1995). Such procedures are: (1) Raising learner awareness about the nature and communicative potential of CSs; (2) Encouraging students to be willing to take risks and use CSs; (3) Providing L2 models of the use of certain CSs; (4) Highlighting cross-cultural differences in CS use; (5) Teaching CSs directly; and (6) Providing opportunities for practice in strategy use. Full details of these teaching procedures and lesson plans are provided in Chapter three and Appendix K. Drawing upon the findings from the current study, it is evident that students' increased use and awareness of CSs might be related to the explicit CS instruction over a 12-week period. Therefore, these results imply that six interrelated procedures of communication strategy suggested by Dornyei can be applied in order to teach the students how to make use of CSs.

Raising students' strategic awareness of CSs

This study has indicated that the increase of students' strategic awareness appeared to be associated with the explicit teaching of CSs. That is, CS instruction might raise students' strategic awareness of taught CSs. They, therefore, reported more use and usefulness of CSs in the self-report strategy questionnaire and retrospective verbal protocols. According to a number of recent studies (Faerch & Kasper, 1986; Dornyei and Thurrell, 1991; Dornyei, 1995; Lam, 2004; Nakatani, 2005; Sayer, 2005; Brown, 2007), students' strategic awareness can be raised by strategy training. In the current study, the students' strategic awareness of CSs was enhanced by explicit focusing on nine specific CSs. In doing so, students were informed about the rationale and the value of the CS instruction, given names and examples of the nine taught CSs to model on, provided with chances to use and practise the taught CSs, and encouraged

to evaluate their strategy use at the end of each lesson. Such training procedures may help raise students' awareness of using and reporting CSs.

Apart from explicit teaching of CSs, this study also used a self-report strategy questionnaire and retrospective verbal reports to raise students' strategic awareness of CSs. Based on the analysis of self-report strategy questionnaire and retrospective verbal reports, it is evident that the students were more aware of the nature and importance of CSs. As discussed in Chapter three, the students in this study tended to report more use and usefulness of nine taught CSs. In addition, they were able to report their communication problems and show their awareness of strategic need to use CSs during the speaking task performance. According to a number of CS instruction studies (e.g., Dornyei, 1995; Lam, 2004; Nakatani, 2005; Le, 2006), students' strategic awareness and competence can be developed through raising their awareness of handling and using their strategy use. The purpose of using retrospective verbal reports and self-report strategy questionnaire in the current study is to raise students' strategic awareness of CSs. In the current study, the students were asked to fill out the self-report strategy questionnaire before and after the 12-week CS instruction. In addition, they were asked to review their performance on the tasks in pre- and post-speaking tasks by listening to and watching the video-recordings of their own task performance. It is possible that such processes may alert the students to use taught CSs during tasks as well as report them in the retrospective verbal reports.

The implications of CS instruction mentioned here provide some guidelines and directions for English language teachers at university level in Thailand. Students' strategic awareness of CSs should be promoted to enhance their ability to use CSs effectively in real-life situations. English language teachers may make an adjustment about the teaching method or find appropriate ways to raise students' strategic awareness.

In summary, the aforementioned implications of this study are not absolute recommendations. English language teachers at university level in Thailand may consider these implications on the basis of their real teaching situations, classroom cultures and students' English ability and performance. They should understand

limitations of adopting CS instruction and students' strategy use so that they make an adjustment based on their actual teaching context and situations.

6.2.3 Implications for research in communication strategies

This section addresses the implications and applications for research in the field of communication strategies. On the macro level, the current study suggests theoretically interesting findings which can be used as a basis for identifying CSs which are teachable in spoken language in the EFL context. On the micro level, the self-report strategy questionnaire, speaking tasks and CS teaching materials can be adopted with flexible adjustment by researchers in the similar field.

On the macro level, the current study provides theoretically interesting findings regarding the types of CSs which are teachable and researchable in CS research. The proposed CSs which can be taught to the students are topic avoidance, circumlocution, approximation, appeal for help, self-repair, confirmation check, comprehension check, clarification request and pause fillers and hesitation devices. Based on the findings of the current study, it is useful to introduce these strategies as fundamental strategies to develop students' strategic competence. To start with, some basic and easy strategies such as pause fillers and hesitation devices, approximation or self-repair may be taught to the students. Then, they may be introduced more advanced strategies such as circumlocution, confirmation check, topic avoidance, and so forth. However, the researchers may make an adjustment based on their actual context and situations.

On the micro level, the self-report strategy questionnaire, speaking tasks and CS teaching materials can be adopted with flexible adjustment in future studies. Firstly, the self-report strategy questionnaire developed by the researcher in this study can be adopted as an instrument to elicit Thai students' perceptions about the use and usefulness of CSs. Based on the findings of this study, there was a clear correlation between what the students reported using and what they used in reality. In addition, the analysis of reliability coefficients of this questionnaire demonstrated that all the items in the questionnaire could measure the students' reported use and usefulness of CSs with enough consistency. With these reasons, this questionnaire can be employed

as a basis to investigate Thai students' reports of use and usefulness of CSs. In terms of the speaking task battery, four speaking tasks used in the study can be applied as an instrument to elicit students' actual use of CSs. The four tasks consisted of two interactive tasks (i.e., oral interview and conversation task) and two speaking tasks (i.e., cartoon description and topic description). Such tasks are useful because they provide a situation for the students to use a variety of CSs in order to convey meaning and cope with their oral communication problems. Lastly, the teaching materials for nine taught CSs developed by the researcher of the current study can be used as a basis for training Thai undergraduates or students with a similar background to the subjects in this study.

6.3 Limitations of the study

As mentioned previously, this study adopted an interventionist study to assess the impact of the CS instruction on students' strategy use and perceptions. The internal validity of the study was enhanced by spending twelve weeks (June-September 2007) in intervening and teaching CSs. A 12-week teaching period allows the researcher to see development or changes in students' strategic behaviours. In addition, the reliability of the data collection procedures was enhanced by adopting multi-research methods: a self-report strategy questionnaire, speaking tasks, retrospective verbal protocols and an attitudinal questionnaire. Furthermore, the inter-coder reliability was adopted to assure the quality of the collected data and analysis methods. The following section presents an evaluation of subjects and research instruments used in the current study.

6.3.1 Evaluation of the subjects and sample size of this study

Given that only one intact group of 62 students was available during the main study, the sample size was small. Only 12 students were asked to complete the speaking tasks and retrospective protocols because of limited access to recording equipment and to save time. The findings from this study were generated from a group of engineering undergraduates in the EFL context. All of them were fourth year engineering students at the time of this study. These students had been learning English as a foreign

language for at least ten years and they were 19-24 years of age. As a result, these findings need to be generalised to other contexts with caution. The results of the current study may be more applicable to Thai engineering undergraduates who are learning English as a foreign language and have a similar background to the subjects in the current study.

6.3.2 Evaluation of the research instruments

Research instruments are one crucial element that influences the applicability of the results of the current study. In this study, the data were collected from four sources: a self-report strategy questionnaire, speaking tasks, retrospective verbal protocols and an attitudinal questionnaire. The combination of these instruments could support the applicability and reliability of the results of this study. In the following sections, the role of each instrument is addressed to reveal how it has contributed to the understanding of the effects of the CS instruction to see how these instruments support one another and their own limitations.

Self-report strategy questionnaire

Overall, the self-report strategy questionnaire provided some valuable information concerning students' perceptions about the use and usefulness of CSs. However, problems might arise such as students contradicting themselves in their answers to questions in the questionnaire. This was probably due to either misunderstanding of the questions, or simply the inattention while completing the questionnaire. The researcher in the current study was aware of such a problem so the caution has been taken in interpreting questionnaire results. In the current study, the internal reliability of the returned self-report strategy questionnaires on the use and usefulness of CSs was estimated by Cronbach's alpha. Then, Pearson Product-Moment procedures and Fisher's z-test were then performed to calculate correlations between reported strategy use and perceived strategy usefulness.

In summary, the self-report strategy questionnaire can be used as an instrument to elicit students' perceptions about the use and usefulness of CSs. Some of the problems

experienced in using this kind of questionnaire can be eliminated if more time had been devoted in constructing and validating the questions and piloting them. As suggested previously, the internal reliability and correlations of the questionnaire responses can be carried out to assure the quality of data and data analysis procedures. However, it should be noted that self-report questionnaire alone yielded a general picture of students' perceptions about the use and usefulness of CSs, not actual strategic behaviour. The next section turns to a speaking task battery which was used to elicit students' use of CSs in action.

Speaking task battery

The combination of different types of speaking tasks is a useful tool to elicit students' actual use of CSs when facing communication problems. As argued by Bialystok (1990), task is one type of elicitation method which is important in determining the strategies that will be observed (p. 52). Bialystok and Swain (1978) suggest that research that is conducted in entirely "natural settings is more difficult to conduct and the results are often problematic to interpret" while "controlled laboratory study assures the researcher that the phenomenon under investigation will be addressed and the superfluous variance owing to extraneous contextual factors will be minimized, or at least capable of being documented and controlled" (Bialystok, 1990: 61). Therefore, the researcher must make a decision about the alternative research designs and tasks available with caution. In the current study, the researcher was aware of these comments so the decision of task types was made carefully. To elicit students' range of CSs, a task battery consisted of four speaking tasks. One major criterion for selecting the tasks in the present study was how authentic they were in providing a situation for the learners to use different CSs to convey meaning and solve their oral communication problems. In addition, the researcher piloted such tasks to make sure how well these tasks worked. Furthermore, to enhance the reliability of the data analysis, the researcher asked a Thai EFL instructor with a PhD in Applied Linguistics to code 20% of transcribed data. Then the researcher compared her coding with that of the instructor.

However, while there is value of using speaking tasks as a research instrument, there might be some problems arising from this instrument. For example, the students might be familiar with the tasks since the same tasks were used to gauge students' use of CSs before and after the CS instruction. To solve this problem, the researcher should decide the length of the teaching period and the time interval between pre- and post-speaking tasks.

Retrospective verbal protocols

Retrospective verbal protocols are also a useful tool to gain insights into students' thought process of strategy use. The qualitative evidence in four students' retrospection (see section 4.4.2.2) supported the notion that students were able to comment on their performance by explaining what had been going on in their minds and to identify the terminology of taught CSs they used. However, as suggested by Poulisse *et al*. (1987), the reliability of retrospective verbal data can be increased by six conditions: (1) immediate retrospection after task performance, (2) provision of contextual information for activating the memories, (3) all information must be directly retrievable, (4) all information asked should be in relation to specific problems, (5) no leading questions should be asked, and (6) the subjects should not be informed about retrospective comments until they finish task performance (p. 217). In the current study, the researcher took such conditions into account and used this instrument with caution. The researcher followed the first five conditions; however, the students had been informed that they would watch their video recorded performance after they finished each task. This might impact on the students' performance in some ways. For example, they might try to please the researcher during their speaking task performance and retrospective verbal reports. To solve this problem, the researcher may minimize the interaction between the students and the researcher. Retrospective verbal reports may be conducted only on a post-task basis to minimize the familiar interaction.

Attitudinal questionnaire

The attitudinal questionnaire provided some valuable and useful information including students' feelings towards the CS instruction and their suggestions for the improvement of the course. In addition, the attitudinal questionnaire provided useful data to enable the researcher to evaluate the success of the CS instruction. As mentioned in Chapter three, the precious "respondent-availability time" of the students was taken into account before designing this type of questionnaire. Therefore, this questionnaire consisted of six short-answer questions regarding students' attitudes towards the CS instruction. However, it appeared that the students preferred to answer the scale response questions rather than open-ended questions. Possible reasons were that the students could not think of anything to write or they might find the questions too difficult to answer. The solution for this problem may be that the researcher revises the questions and/ or includes some scaled responses so that the students may pay more attention to answer the questions.

6.3.3 Evaluation of the CS instruction

Based on the findings of the current study, the CS instruction was considered useful and desirable by the students. The CS instruction was, to some extent, successful in improving students' quantity and quality aspects of strategy use. Overall, the students had positive feelings on the teaching approach and materials used in the current study. For the teaching approach, the strategy instruction programme lasted for 12 weeks. For each lesson, the explicit strategy instruction lasted for 60 minutes. For teaching procedures, each CS was taught according to six types of communication strategy teaching procedures described by Dornyei (1995: 63-64). Students were informed of the rationale and the value of CS instruction, provided with a list of names and examples of the nine target strategies to model on, given opportunities to use the nine strategies and guided to evaluate strategy use at the end of the lesson. All these procedures proved useful for teaching and raising students' awareness of CSs in this study. However, the evaluation part of CS lessons was rarely implemented due to more time allotted for the practice of each CS. The evaluation part of CS lessons is important for teachers and researchers because it provides students' feedback on

strategy use. Thus, it may be worth providing students with opportunities to give feedback on their strategy use by allowing more time for the evaluation part.

In addition, the teaching materials for CSs were found useful and practical by the students in this study. The teaching materials were designed and developed by the researcher for the purpose of training nine specific CSs. Such materials were first tried out and then revised on the basis of the feedback from the researcher's supervisor and the students in the piloting. However, these materials were designed, developed and used solely by the researcher of the current study. In future studies, the researchers may ask other teachers to try out and revise the teaching materials to enhance the effectiveness of teaching CSs.

6.4 Suggestions for further research

As mentioned previously, the findings of this study show that the CS instruction might have positive effects on the students' use of CSs. However, this study has some limitations so the findings are far from conclusive. Therefore, further research is needed.

Firstly, this study was designed as an interventionist study in which 62 undergraduates of a university in Thailand participated in the study. Therefore, a replication of this study with another group of students at the same university or at another university in Thailand may provide some useful evidence about the CS instruction. In addition, the method used in this study was context-specific in design and findings. In further studies, it seems necessary to conduct pre-pilot and pilot studies before conducting the main study to investigate the types of CSs used by students.

Secondly, in order to see qualitative changes in students' strategy use, a longitudinal study is recommended in future studies. The CS instruction in the current study lasted for 12 weeks and a longer period of training is needed. Further studies may conduct longitudinal studies to investigate the change of students' strategic behaviours and their perceptions about the strategy use over time.

Thirdly, the same CS instruction may be implemented and integrated into EFL classrooms. In the current study, the CS instruction was separately taught to the students due to the time constraints. Thus, further studies may conduct the same CS instruction in a regular EFL class to see whether or not the teaching of CSs can be integrated to the normal EFL class.

Fourthly, only nine CSs were taught to the students in the current study. Other strategies such as “use of all-purpose words” and “non-linguistic strategy” may be useful for the students. Further studies on the teaching of these CSs may provide some additional results on the students’ strategic behaviour.

Lastly, it seems that task types may influence the types of CSs students use in different speaking tasks. Thus, in future studies, it seems necessary to conduct studies using different task types such as story telling, role play, individual oral presentations, etc. to investigate different strategy use and task performance. The results may shed more light on the field of teaching CSs and second language teaching and learning.

6.5 Concluding statements

The present study has explored the effects of explicit teaching of nine CSs on strategy perceptions and strategy use of Thai learners of English at King Mongkut’s University of Technology North Bangkok (KMUTNB). Based on the findings discussed in Chapter five, several conclusions can be drawn. First of all, the current study strongly suggests that the explicit CS instruction is beneficial and positively affects students’ use and perceptions of CSs. The current study also lends support to previous CS instruction research as well as gives more empirical evidence that the CS instruction is possible and desirable among the language learners, in particular Thai learners of English. In addition, the findings of this study suggest that the nine taught CSs proposed in this study can be taught as fundamental strategies to develop Thai students’ strategic competence and English oral communication. Finally, the researcher hopes that the current study can provide more insights into the relationships between the CS instruction, Thai students’ communication strategy use and

perceptions, their task performance and attitudes towards the CS instruction. Such insights may be useful for teaching spoken English in Thailand.

APPENDICES

Appendix A

Communication Strategy Questionnaire

The purpose of this questionnaire is to obtain your views of communication strategy use while speaking and communicating in English. Communication strategies are "devices you use while communicating in English to solve oral communication problems and to reach the communicative goals".

Please give your name or ID number. The personal information you give here and all the data collected will be only used for research on "The Effects of Teaching Communication Strategies to Thai Learners of English".

The questionnaire consists of two parts:

Part I	**Background Information**
Part II	**Communication strategy questionnaire**

Part I Background Information

1. Name: _____ 2. ID number_____

3. Age: _____ 4. Gender: Male ☐ Female ☐

5. Your major:_____ 6. Year of Study _____

7. Please indicate any grades you have received in past English courses: (A, B, C, D…)

English I _____ English II _____

8. How many years have you studied English? _____ years

9. How would you rate your overall English proficiency? (Choose one)

poor ☐ fair ☐ good ☐ excellent ☐

10. How would you rate your proficiency in each of these skills? (Choose one)

Listening	poor ☐	fair ☐	good ☐	excellent ☐
Speaking	poor ☐	fair ☐	good ☐	excellent ☐
Reading	poor ☐	fair ☐	good ☐	excellent ☐
Writing	poor ☐	fair ☐	good ☐	excellent ☐

11. Have you been abroad? Yes ☐ No ☐

12. Do you have any other education or work experience from overseas?

Yes ☐ (please specify) _____

No ☐

13. How often do you speak English at university? (Choose one)

less than once a month ☐ monthly ☐ 1-2 times a week ☐

3-5 times a week ☐ almost every day ☐

14. How often do you speak English outside university? (Choose one)

less than once a month ☐ monthly ☐ 1-2 times a week ☐

3-5 times a week ☐ almost every day ☐

Part II Communication strategy questionnaire

Below are some statements pertaining to different communication strategies that people might use to assist them in speaking English. For each of the statements, please indicate to what extent you use the strategy it describes. Please choose a number by marking (√) to indicate:

a) How useful YOU think each of them is:						**b) How often YOU use each of them:**				
1= Not useful	2= Least useful	3= Neutral	4= Useful	5= Most useful		1= Never	2= Rarely	3= Sometimes	4= Often	5= Most often
					1) If I do not know the English word for something, I describe it, e.g., "what it looks like", or "what you can use it for".					
					2) When I do not know how to express something in English, I use a word that has roughly the same meaning, e.g., "boat" instead of "ship".					
					3) I use general words like "thing", or "stuff" to refer to the English word I do not know.					
					4) I make up new words if I do not know the right ones in English.					
					5) I use mime, gestures or facial expressions when I do not know how to express something in English.					
					6) If I do not know the vocabulary I want to use, I translate word for word from Thai to English.					
					7) When I do not know the English word for something, I make up a word by saying Thai word but with the foreign accent.					
					8) I use a Thai word with Thai pronunciation if I do not know how to say something in English.					
					9) If I do not know how to say something in English, I turn to the interlocutor for assistance by asking an explicit question, e.g., "how do you say…", "what do you call".					

a) How useful YOU think each of them is:						b) How often YOU use each of them:				
1= Not useful	2= Least useful	3= Neutral	4= Useful	5= Most useful		1= Never	2= Rarely	3= Sometimes	4= Often	5= Most often
					10) I leave a conversation incomplete due to some speaking difficulty.					
					11) I avoid talking about concepts for which the vocabulary or the meaning structure is not known.					
					12) I use “stalling strategies” like “Well”, “Now let me see”, “As a matter of fact”, “Not at all”, or “Absolutely” etc.					
					13) I make self-initiated corrections while speaking English.					
					14) I ask questions such as “Do you follow me?” or “Do you understand?” to check whether the interlocutor understands what I have said or not.					
					15) I repeat the words that the interlocutor has said in order to confirm what I have heard is correct or not.					
					16) I request explanation of an unfamiliar meaning structure like “Again, please!” or “Pardon?”.					
					17) I give examples of the property, characteristics, duty or purpose if I do not know the right word in English.					
					18) I use an alternative term which expresses the meaning as closely as possible if I do not know the right word for something.					
					19) When I have difficulty in thinking of the right word in English, I avoid talking any kind reference to it.					
					20) If I do not know the right word in English, I create a non-existing English word by applying a supposed rule to an existing English word.					
					21) I use a Thai word or structure modified in accordance with an English word or structure.					
					22) I use a word or phrase from Thai with English pronunciation when I do not know the right one in English.					

a) How useful YOU think each of them is:						b) How often YOU use each of them:				
1= Not useful	2= Least useful	3= Neutral	4= Useful	5= Most useful		1= Never	2= Rarely	3= Sometimes	4= Often	5= Most often
					23) When I do not understand others, I ask them to clarify what they mean by asking "What do you mean?"					
					24) When I do not know how to express something in English, I use a Thai word with no modification at all.					
					25) I substitute the desired unknown target word with a new one, although incorrect, is shared enough meaning with the target word.					
					26) I try to make the sound imitation of something that I do not know the right word in English.					
					27) If I do not know how to say something, I ask a more proficient speaker how to say it in English.					
					28) I use pauses or pause fillers such as "uh…, um…or er…" to gain time when I need to think of what to say in English.					
					29) When I do not know what to say in English, I leave a message unfinished.					
					30) I begin talking about a concept in English but stop because it is difficult to express.					
					31) I ask questions to check that the interlocutor can follow me.					
					32) When I cannot think of a word during a conversation in English, I use a word like "something" instead of the unknown word.					
					33) When I realise that I have used wrong words, phrases, or pronunciation, I immediately correct them by myself.					

☺☺☺**Thank you very much for your participation**☺☺☺

Appendix B

Communication Strategy Questionnaire
(Translated version)

แบบสอบถามเรื่องการใช้กลวิธีในการสื่อสาร

(Communication Strategies)

แบบสอบถามฉบับนี้มีวัตถุประสงค์เพื่อสอบถามความคิดเห็นของท่านเกี่ยวกับการใช้กลวิธีในการสื่อสารขณะที่พูดหรือสื่อสารเป็นภาษาอังกฤษ ข้อมูลที่ได้รับจากแบบสอบถามฉบับนี้จะเป็นประโยชน์อย่างยิ่งหากท่านตอบคำถามเหล่านี้ตามความเป็นจริงและตรงตามประสบการณ์ของท่าน

กรุณากรอกชื่อและรหัสนักศึกษาของท่าน ข้อมูลส่วนบุคคลจากท่านและข้อมูลที่ได้รับจากการศึกษานี้จะถูกนำไปใช้กับงานวิจัยเรื่อง “The Effects of Teaching Communication Strategies to Thai Learners of English” เท่านั้น

แบบสอบถามฉบับนี้แบ่งออกเป็น 2 ตอน ดังนี้

ตอนที่ 1 ข้อมูลส่วนบุคคล

ตอนที่ 2 แบบสอบถามเรื่องการใช้กลวิธีในการสื่อสาร

ตอนที่ 1 ข้อมูลส่วนบุคคล

1. ชื่อ _____ 2. รหัสนักศึกษา_____

3. อายุ _____ 4. เพศ ชาย ☐ หญิง ☐

5. สาขาวิชาเอก _____ 6. นักศึกษาชั้นปีที่_____

7. เกรดวิชาภาษาอังกฤษพื้นฐานที่ผ่านมา (A, B, C, D …)

English I_____ English II _____

8. ท่านเรียนภาษาอังกฤษมาแล้ว _____ ปี

9. ท่านคิดว่าท่านมีความสามารถในการใช้ภาษาอังกฤษทุกทักษะในระดับใด (เลือก 1 ข้อ)

ต้องปรับปรุง ☐ พอใช้ ☐ ดี ☐ ดีมาก ☐

10. ท่านคิดว่าท่านมีความสามารถในการใช้ภาษาอังกฤษแต่ละทักษะในระดับใด (เลือก 1 ข้อ)

การฟัง ต้องปรับปรุง ☐ พอใช้ ☐ ดี ☐ ดีมาก ☐

การพูด ต้องปรับปรุง ☐ พอใช้ ☐ ดี ☐ ดีมาก ☐

การอ่าน ต้องปรับปรุง ☐ พอใช้ ☐ ดี ☐ ดีมาก ☐

การเขียน ต้องปรับปรุง ☐ พอใช้ ☐ ดี ☐ ดีมาก ☐

11. ท่านเคยเดินทางไปต่างประเทศหรือไม่ เคย ☐ ไม่เคย ☐

12. ท่านเคยศึกษาหรือทำงานในต่างประเทศหรือไม่

เคย ☐ (โปรดระบุ) _____

ไม่เคย ☐

13. ท่านพูดภาษาอังกฤษภายในมหาวิทยาลัยบ่อยเพียงใด (เลือก 1 ข้อ)

ไม่เคยเลย ☐ น้อย ☐ ปานกลาง ☐

บ่อย ☐ บ่อยที่สุด ☐

14. ท่านพูดภาษาอังกฤษภายนอกมหาวิทยาลัยบ่อยเพียงใด (เลือก 1 ข้อ)

ไม่เคยเลย ☐ น้อย ☐ ปานกลาง ☐

บ่อย ☐ บ่อยที่สุด ☐

ตอนที่ 2 แบบสอบถามเรื่องการใช้กลวิธีในการสื่อสาร

ข้อความข้างล่างนี้เป็นกลวิธีในการสื่อสารที่บุคคลมักจะใช้เพื่อช่วยในการพูดภาษาอังกฤษ กรุณาเลือกกลวิธีในการสื่อสารที่ท่านใช้โดยทำเครื่องหมาย (√) ในแต่ละข้อความ

a) ท่านคิดว่ากลวิธีในการสื่อสารในแต่ละข้อนี้มีประโยชน์ต่อท่านมากน้อยเพียงใด						**b) ท่านใช้กลวิธีในการสื่อสารในแต่ละข้อนี้บ่อยเพียงใด**				
1= ไม่มีประโยชน์	2= มีประโยชน์น้อย	3= มีประโยชน์ปานกลาง	4= มีประโยชน์มาก	5= มีประโยชน์มากที่สุด		1= ไม่เคยเลย	2= น้อย	3= ปานกลาง	4= บ่อย	5= บ่อยที่สุด
					1) ถ้าข้าพเจ้าไม่ทราบคำศัพท์บางคำในภาษาอังกฤษ ข้าพเจ้าจะบรรยายคำศัพท์นั้นโดยพูดว่า“มันมีลักษณะ…” หรือ “คุณใช้มันเพื่อ…”					
					2) ถ้าข้าพเจ้าไม่ทราบคำศัพท์บางคำในภาษาอังกฤษ ข้าพเจ้าใช้คำที่มีความหมายใกล้เคียงหรือเหมือนกันกับคำที่ต้องการพูด เช่น ใช้คำว่า “เรือ” แทนคำว่า “ เรือใบ”					
					3) ข้าพเจ้าใช้คำเรียกแทนสิ่งต่างๆ เช่น ใช้คำว่า “ สิ่งนั้น” (thing) แทนคำศัพท์ที่ข้าพเจ้าไม่ทราบในภาษาอังกฤษ					
					4) ข้าพเจ้าคิดคำขึ้นมาใหม่ ถ้าข้าพเจ้าไม่ทราบคำศัพท์ที่ถูกต้องที่ใช้ในภาษาอังกฤษ					
					5) ข้าพเจ้าใช้การแสดงท่าทางเลียนแบบ แสดงท่าทางประกอบ หรือ การแสดงออกทางสีหน้า (เช่น ขมวดคิ้วแสดงความสงสัย) เมื่อข้าพเจ้าไม่ทราบว่าจะอธิบายคำบางคำในภาษาอังกฤษได้อย่างไร					
					6) หากข้าพเจ้าไม่ทราบคำศัพท์ที่จะใช้ ข้าพเจ้าใช้การแปลแบบคำต่อคำจากภาษาไทยเป็นภาษาอังกฤษ					

a) ท่านคิดว่ากลวิธีในการสื่อสารในแต่ละข้อนี้มีประโยชน์ต่อท่านมากน้อยเพียงใด						b) ท่านใช้กลวิธีในการสื่อสารในแต่ละข้อนี้บ่อยเพียงใด				
1= ไม่มีประโยชน์	2= มีประโยชน์น้อย	3= มีประโยชน์ปานกลาง	4= มีประโยชน์มาก	5= มีประโยชน์มากที่สุด		1= ไม่เคยเลย	2= น้อย	3= ปานกลาง	4=บ่อย	5= บ่อยที่สุด
					7) ถ้าข้าพเจ้าไม่ทราบคำศัพท์บางคำในภาษาอังกฤษ ข้าพเจ้าคิดคำศัพท์ขึ้นมาใหม่โดยพูดคำภาษาไทยแต่ออกเสียงเป็นสำเนียงภาษาอังกฤษ					
					8) ข้าพเจ้าใช้คำศัพท์ภาษาไทยโดยออกเสียงเป็นสำเนียงไทย เมื่อข้าพเจ้าไม่ทราบว่าจะอธิบายเป็นภาษาอังกฤษได้อย่างไร					
					9) หากข้าพเจ้าไม่ทราบว่าจะอธิบายเป็นภาษาอังกฤษได้อย่างไร ข้าพเจ้าถามคำถามคู่สนทนา เช่น “คุณเรียกสิ่งนั้นว่าอะไรในภาษาอังกฤษ” หรือ “คุณจะพูดว่าอย่างไรในภาษาอังกฤษ”					
					10) ข้าพเจ้าหยุดพูดกลางคันเนื่องจากประสบปัญหาในการพูดสื่อสารเป็นภาษาอังกฤษ					
					11) ข้าพเจ้าหลีกเลี่ยงการแสดงความคิดเห็นเกี่ยวกับเรื่องหรือหัวข้อที่ข้าพเจ้าไม่ทราบคำศัพท์หรือโครงสร้างความหมายของคำที่จะพูดในภาษาอังกฤษในเรื่องนั้นๆ					
					12) ข้าพเจ้าพูดว่า “เอ่อ” “เดี๋ยวขอคิดดูก่อน” “อันที่จริงแล้ว” “ไม่เลย” หรือ “แน่นอนที่สุด” เป็นต้น เมื่อข้าพเจ้าต้องการใช้เวลาในการคิดคำศัพท์นั้นเป็นภาษาอังกฤษ					
					13) ข้าพเจ้าแก้ไขคำพูดที่ข้าพเจ้าพูดผิดให้ถูกต้องด้วยตนเองขณะพูดภาษาอังกฤษ					
					14) ข้าพเจ้าถามคำถาม เช่น “คุณเข้าใจที่ฉันพูดไหม” เพื่อให้แน่ใจว่าคู่สนทนาเข้าใจในสิ่งที่ข้าพเจ้าพูดหรือไม่					

a) ท่านคิดว่ากลวิธีในการสื่อสารในแต่ละข้อนี้มีประโยชน์ต่อท่านมากน้อยเพียงใด						b) ท่านใช้กลวิธีในการสื่อสารในแต่ละข้อนี้บ่อยเพียงใด				
1= ไม่มีประโยชน์	2= มีประโยชน์น้อย	3= มีประโยชน์ปานกลาง	4= มีประโยชน์มาก	5= มีประโยชน์มากที่สุด		1= ไม่เคยเลย	2= น้อย	3= ปานกลาง	4=บ่อย	5= บ่อยที่สุด
					15) ข้าพเจ้าพูดทวนคำพูดที่คู่สนทนาพูดออกมาเพื่อให้แน่ใจว่าสิ่งที่ข้าพเจ้าได้ยินนั้นถูกต้องแล้ว					
					16) ข้าพเจ้าขอให้อธิบายความหมายของคำศัพท์ที่ไม่คุ้นเคยโดยพูดว่า “คุณช่วยพูดคำนั้นอีกครั้งได้ไหม”					
					17) ข้าพเจ้ายกตัวอย่างโดยบอกคุณสมบัติ ลักษณะเฉพาะ หน้าที่ หรือ วัตถุประสงค์ของคำศัพท์นั้นๆ หากข้าพเจ้าไม่ทราบคำศัพท์ที่ถูกต้องในภาษาอังกฤษ					
					18) ข้าพเจ้าเลือกใช้คำศัพท์อื่นที่มีความหมายใกล้เคียงที่สุด หากข้าพเจ้าไม่ทราบคำศัพท์ที่ถูกต้องในภาษาอังกฤษ					
					19) หากข้าพเจ้ามีปัญหาในการนึกคำศัพท์ในภาษาอังกฤษ ข้าพเจ้าหลีกเลี่ยงที่จะพูดถึงคำศัพท์นั้นๆ					
					20) หากข้าพเจ้าไม่ทราบคำศัพท์ที่ถูกต้องในภาษาอังกฤษ ข้าพเจ้าคิดคำศัพท์ที่ไม่เคยมีใช้มาก่อนในภาษาอังกฤษขึ้นมาด้วยตนเองโดยประยุกต์ใช้จากกฎต่างๆที่เคยเรียนมาในภาษาอังกฤษ					
					21) ข้าพเจ้าพูดภาษาอังกฤษโดยการเรียบเรียงคำหรือ โครงสร้างประโยคที่ใช้อยู่ในภาษาไทย					
					22) ข้าพเจ้าใช้คำศัพท์หรือวลีในภาษาไทยโดยออกเสียงเป็นสำเนียงภาษาอังกฤษ เมื่อข้าพเจ้าไม่ทราบคำศัพท์ที่ถูกต้องที่ใช้ในภาษาอังกฤษ					

a) ท่านคิดว่ากลวิธีในการสื่อสารในแต่ละข้อนี้มีประโยชน์ต่อท่านมากน้อยเพียงใด						b) ท่านใช้กลวิธีในการสื่อสารในแต่ละข้อนี้บ่อยเพียงใด				
1= ไม่มีประโยชน์	2= มีประโยชน์น้อย	3= มีประโยชน์ปานกลาง	4= มีประโยชน์มาก	5= มีประโยชน์มากที่สุด		1= ไม่เคยเลย	2= น้อย	3= ปานกลาง	4=บ่อย	5= บ่อยที่สุด
					23) เมื่อข้าพเจ้าไม่เข้าใจคำพูดของผู้อื่น ข้าพเจ้าขอให้เขาอธิบายในสิ่งที่เขาพูดโดยถามว่า “คุณหมายถึงอะไร”					
					24) ข้าพเจ้าไม่ทราบว่าจะอธิบายคำบางคำเป็นภาษาอังกฤษได้อย่างไร ข้าพเจ้าพูดคำภาษาไทยออกมาเลยโดยไม่มีการเปลี่ยนแปลงแก้ไขแต่อย่างใด					
					25) ข้าพเจ้าใช้คำศัพท์ใหม่แทนที่คำศัพท์ที่ไม่ทราบในภาษาอังกฤษ แม้ว่าคำนั้นจะเป็นคำที่ไม่ถูกต้องนัก แต่ก็มีความหมายใกล้เคียงกับคำศัพท์ที่ต้องการใช้					
					26) หากข้าพเจ้าไม่ทราบคำศัพท์ที่ถูกต้องในภาษาอังกฤษ ข้าพเจ้าพยายามทำเสียงเลียนแบบลักษณะคำศัพท์นั้นๆ เช่น ทำเสียง “บึม” แทนคำว่า “ระเบิด”					
					27) หากข้าพเจ้าไม่ทราบว่าจะอธิบายคำบางคำเป็นภาษาอังกฤษได้อย่างไร ข้าพเจ้าถามผู้พูดที่มีความชำนาญในการใช้ภาษาอังกฤษว่าควรพูดอย่างไร					
					28) ข้าพเจ้าใช้คำอุทาน เช่น “เอ่อ” หรือ “อืม” เพื่อชะลอเวลา เมื่อข้าพเจ้าต้องการที่จะนึกถึงสิ่งที่จะพูดในภาษาอังกฤษ					
					29) เมื่อข้าพเจ้าไม่ทราบว่าจะพูดเป็นภาษาอังกฤษอย่างไร ข้าพเจ้าหยุดพูดทั้งๆที่ข้าพเจ้ายังพูดไม่จบ					
					30) ข้าพเจ้าเริ่มต้นพูดแสดงความคิดเห็น แต่ต้องหยุดพูดกลางคัน เนื่องจากมีปัญหาในการพูดภาษาอังกฤษ					

a) ท่านคิดว่ากลวิธีในการสื่อสารในแต่ละข้อนี้มีประโยชน์ต่อท่านมากน้อยเพียงใด						b) ท่านใช้กลวิธีในการสื่อสารในแต่ละข้อนี้บ่อยเพียงใด				
1= ไม่มีประโยชน์	2= มีประโยชน์น้อย	3= มีประโยชน์ปานกลาง	4= มีประโยชน์มาก	5= มีประโยชน์มากที่สุด		1= ไม่เคยเลย	2= น้อย	3= ปานกลาง	4=บ่อย	5= บ่อยที่สุด
					31) ข้าพเจ้าถามคู่สนทนากลับว่าเขาเข้าใจในสิ่งที่ข้าพเจ้าพูดไหมเพื่อให้แน่ใจว่าคู่สนทนาเข้าใจในสิ่งที่ข้าพเจ้าพูดจริงๆ					
					32) ถ้าข้าพเจ้าไม่สามารถนึกคำในภาษาอังกฤษได้ในระหว่างการสนทนา ข้าพเจ้าใช้คำว่า “บางสิ่ง”(something) แทนคำศัพท์ที่ข้าพเจ้าไม่ ทราบ					
					33) เมื่อข้าพเจ้ารู้สึกว่าใช้คำศัพท์ วลี หรือ ออกเสียงภาษาอังกฤษผิด ข้าพเจ้าแก้ไขให้ถูกต้องด้วยตนเองในทันที					

☺☺☺ ขอขอบพระคุณทุกท่านที่ให้ความร่วมมือ ☺☺☺

Appendix C

Reliability Analysis of Self-report Strategy Questionnaire

Results of Reliability of the Self-Report Strategy Questionnaire on the Use of CSs before the CS instruction

Reliability

```
****** Method 2 (covariance matrix) will be used for this analysis
******
_


  R E L I A B I L I T Y   A N A L Y S I S   -   S C A L E   (A L P H
A)
```

		Mean	Std Dev	Cases
1.	CL	2.1129	.8318	62.0
2.	AP	2.5323	1.0198	62.0
3.	AW	2.5323	1.0669	62.0
4.	WC	1.8871	1.0728	62.0
5.	NL	3.3710	1.1049	62.0
6.	LIT	2.7742	1.1369	62.0
7.	FR	1.8871	1.0260	62.0
8.	CW	2.6452	1.2294	62.0
9.	AH	2.8226	1.0639	62.0
10.	MA	3.1452	1.0218	62.0
11.	TA	3.0161	1.1379	62.0
12.	PH	2.9839	1.1941	62.0
13.	SR	2.2581	.8672	62.0
14.	CP	2.7258	1.0584	62.0
15.	CF	2.4839	.9007	62.0
16.	CR	2.8548	1.0218	62.0

```
       N of Cases =        62.0
```

Item Means	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Range	Max/Min	Variance
	2.6270	1.8871	3.3710	1.4839	1.7863	.1838

```
Reliability Coefficients    16 items

Alpha =   .7769           Standardized item alpha =   .7766
```

Reliability Analysis of Self-report Strategy Questionnaire

Results of Reliability of the Self-Report Strategy Questionnaire on the Use of CSs after the CS instruction

Reliability

```
****** Method 2 (covariance matrix) will be used for this analysis
******
_


  R E L I A B I L I T Y   A N A L Y S I S   -   S C A L E   (A L P H
A)

                                Mean        Std Dev       Cases

  1.     CL                   3.3710          .6333        62.0
  2.     AP                   3.9516          .6121        62.0
  3.     AW                   3.1290          .9141        62.0
  4.     WC                   2.3226          .9193        62.0
  5.     NL                   3.8387          .9267        62.0
  6.     LIT                  2.9516         1.1655        62.0
  7.     FR                   2.3065         1.1248        62.0
  8.     CW                   2.8226         1.0792        62.0
  9.     AH                   3.4677          .6706        62.0
 10.     MA                   3.2097          .9257        62.0
 11.     TA                   3.5806          .6906        62.0
 12.     PH                   4.4032          .4945        62.0
 13.     SR                   3.5645          .8420        62.0
 14.     CP                   3.1935          .8462        62.0
 15.     CF                   3.2903          .8567        62.0
 16.     CR                   3.7903          .7711        62.0

        N of Cases =        62.0

Item Means           Mean     Minimum     Maximum      Range     Max/Min
Variance
                   3.3246      2.3065      4.4032     2.0968
1.9091      .3123


Reliability Coefficients    16 items

Alpha =   .7262           Standardized item alpha =   .7248
```

Reliability Analysis of Self-report Strategy Questionnaire

Results of Reliability of the Self-Report Strategy Questionnaire on the Usefulness of CSs before the CS instruction

Reliability

```
****** Method 2 (covariance matrix) will be used for this analysis
******
_


  R E L I A B I L I T Y   A N A L Y S I S   -   S C A L E   (A L P H
A)


                              Mean        Std Dev       Cases

  1.     CL                 3.6290          .9956        62.0
  2.     AP                 3.2903          .9647        62.0
  3.     AW                 3.2581          .9907        62.0
  4.     WC                 2.4516         1.0191        62.0
  5.     NL                 3.7742         1.0776        62.0
  6.     LIT                3.2097          .9433        62.0
  7.     FR                 2.0968         1.1834        62.0
  8.     CW                 2.6774         1.1562        62.0
  9.     AH                 3.8548          .9382        62.0
 10.     MA                 2.2258          .9987        62.0
 11.     TA                 2.4516         1.2238        62.0
 12.     PH                 3.0484         1.0469        62.0
 13.     SR                 3.7097          .8567        62.0
 14.     CP                 3.8548          .9026        62.0
 15.     CF                 3.6613          .8482        62.0
 16.     CR                 4.0161          .8776        62.0

        N of Cases =        62.0

Item Means           Mean     Minimum     Maximum       Range     Max/Min
Variance
                   3.2006      2.0968      4.0161      1.9194
1.9154      .4069


Reliability Coefficients    16 items

Alpha =    .8375           Standardized item alpha =    .8365
```

Reliability Analysis of Self-report Strategy Questionnaire

Results of Reliability of the Self-Report Strategy Questionnaire on the Usefulness of CSs after the CS instruction

Reliability

```
****** Method 2 (covariance matrix) will be used for this analysis
******
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  R E L I A B I L I T Y   A N A L Y S I S   -   S C A L E   (A L P H
A)
```

		Mean	Std Dev	Cases
1.	CL	4.1774	.7134	62.0
2.	AP	4.1452	.6232	62.0
3.	AW	3.7742	1.0310	62.0
4.	WC	2.8065	.9724	62.0
5.	NL	3.8387	.9614	62.0
6.	LIT	2.9839	.9833	62.0
7.	FR	2.0806	1.0130	62.0
8.	CW	2.3226	.9013	62.0
9.	AH	4.1129	.6555	62.0
10.	MA	1.9839	.9999	62.0
11.	TA	3.0806	.7746	62.0
12.	PH	4.3710	.6069	62.0
13.	SR	4.0000	.6005	62.0
14.	CP	4.1774	.7580	62.0
15.	CF	4.1935	.6975	62.0
16.	CR	4.2742	.7052	62.0

```
        N of Cases =        62.0
```

Item Means	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	Range	Max/Min	Variance
	3.5202	1.9839	4.3710	2.3871	2.2033	.7070

```
Reliability Coefficients    16 items

Alpha =   .7438           Standardized item alpha =   .7381
```

Appendix D

T-test of Self-report Strategy questionnaire

Results of T-Test of the Overall Mean Score of CS Use Reported by All Students in the Pre-and Post-CS Instruction

T-Test

Paired Samples Statistics

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	PRE_USE	2.6200	16	.41183	.10296
	POST_USE	3.2544	16	.55210	.13802

Paired Samples Correlations

		N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1	PRE_USE & POST_USE	16	.651	.006

Paired Samples Test

		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	PRE_USE - POST_USE	-.6344	.42255	.10564	-.8595	-.4092	-6.005	15	.000

T-test of Self-report Strategy questionnaire

Results of T-Test of the Overall Mean Score of CS Usefulness Reported by All Students in the Pre- and Post-CS Instruction

T-Test

Paired Samples Statistics

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	PRE_USEF	3.2094	16	.61782	.15445
	POS_USEF	3.4931	16	.84350	.21087

Paired Samples Correlations

		N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1	PRE_USEF & POS_USEF	16	.910	.000

Paired Samples Test

		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	PRE_USEF - POS_USEF	-.2837	.38012	.09503	-.4863	-.0812	-2.986	15	.009

Appendix E

Attitudes towards the teaching of communication strategies and its usefulness

The purpose of this questionnaire is to obtain your views of communication strategies instruction and its usefulness. Communication strategies are "devices you use while communicating in English to solve oral communication problems and to reach the communicative goals".

For the results of this survey to be meaningful, it is important that you answer all of the items to the best of your knowledge. Please answer the following questions honestly and frankly according to your own experience. There are no right or wrong answers, there is only what you truly think, feel and believe.

Please give your name or ID number. The personal information you give here and all the data collected will be only used for research on "The Effects of Teaching Communication Strategies to Thai Learners of English".

Your ID number or name: _____

Section I: The following questions are about your views of communication strategy instruction and its usefulness. Please write down your answers for each item.

2. How did you feel when you received the communication strategy instruction in class?

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3. Did you find the instruction of communication strategies useful? In what ways.

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3. What did you like about the instruction of communication strategies?

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4. What didn't you like about the instruction of communication strategies?

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5. Do you think the instruction of communication strategies improved your English speaking skill?

   Yes ☐ because

   _____

   _____

   _____

   _____

   _____

   No ☐

   because_____

   _____

   _____

   _____

   _____

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6. Other comments, including how the sessions we have done on communication strategy instruction could have been improved?

   _____

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☺☺☺ **Thank you very much for your participation!** ☺☺☺

Appendix F

Attitudes towards the teaching of communication strategies and its usefulness
(Translated Version)

แบบสอบถามเรื่องทัศนคติเกี่ยวกับการสอนและประโยชน์ของการสอนกลวิธีในการสื่อสาร

(Communication Strategies)

แบบสอบถามฉบับนี้มีวัตถุประสงค์เพื่อสอบถามความคิดเห็นของท่านเกี่ยวกับการสอนและประโยชน์ของการสอนกลวิธีในการสื่อสาร

กลวิธีในการสื่อสารคือ กลวิธีที่ผู้เรียนใช้แก้ปัญหาในการสื่อสารภาษาอังกฤษ ข้อมูลที่ได้รับจากแบบสอบถามฉบับนี้จะเป็นประโยชน์อย่างยิ่งหากท่านตอบคำถามเหล่านี้ตามความเป็นจริงและตรงตามประสบการณ์ของท่าน

กรุณากรอกชื่อและรหัสนักศึกษาของท่าน ข้อมูลส่วนบุคคลจากท่านและข้อมูลที่ได้รับจากการศึกษานี้จะถูกนำไปใช้กับงานวิจัยเรื่อง “The Effects of Teaching Communication Strategies to Thai Learners of English” เท่านั้น

ชื่อ _____

รหัสนักศึกษา_____

แบบสอบถามเรื่องความคิดเห็นเกี่ยวกับการสอนและประโยชน์ของการสอนกลวิธีในการสื่อสาร

คำถามข้างล่างนี้เป็นคำถามเกี่ยวกับความคิดเห็นของท่านต่อการสอนและประโยชน์ของการสอนกลวิธีในการสื่อสาร กรุณาเขียนคำตอบของท่านในแต่ละข้อ

1. ท่านรู้สึกอย่างไรต่อการสอนกลวิธีในการสื่อสารในห้องเรียน

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2. ท่านคิดว่าการสอนกลวิธีในการสื่อสารมีประโยชน์หรือไม่ อย่างไร

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3. ท่านชอบอะไรเกี่ยวกับการสอนกลวิธีในการสื่อสาร

_____
_____
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_____

4. ท่านไม่ชอบอะไรเกี่ยวกับการสอนกลวิธีในการสื่อสาร

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5. ท่านคิดว่าการสอนกลวิธีในการสื่อสารช่วยปรับปรุงทักษะการพูดภาษาอังกฤษของท่านหรือไม่

ปรับปรุง ☐ เพราะ

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ไม่ปรับปรุง ☐ เพราะ

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6. ความคิดเห็นเพิ่มเติม รวมทั้งความคิดเห็นเกี่ยวกับการสอนกลวิธีในการสื่อสารในห้องเรียนควรมีการปรับปรุงแก้ไขอย่างไร

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☺☺☺ ขอขอบพระคุณทุกท่านที่ให้ความร่วมมือ ☺☺☺

Appendix G

Task1: Oral Interview Task

In this task, each student was asked the following fifteen questions about King Mongkut's Institute of Technology North Bangkok (KMITNB), free time, and family. The following are the sample questions for the interview.

(1) King Mongkut's Institute of Technology North Bangkok (KMITNB)

1. What's the campus like?
2. What do you like about KMITNB?
3. What don't you like about KMITNB?
4. Where do you like going on the campus?
5. What are your classes like?

(2) Free time

1. What are your hobbies?
2. What are your favourite sports?
3. How often do you play sports?
4. When do you go to the Fitness Centre?
5. What do you do in your free time?

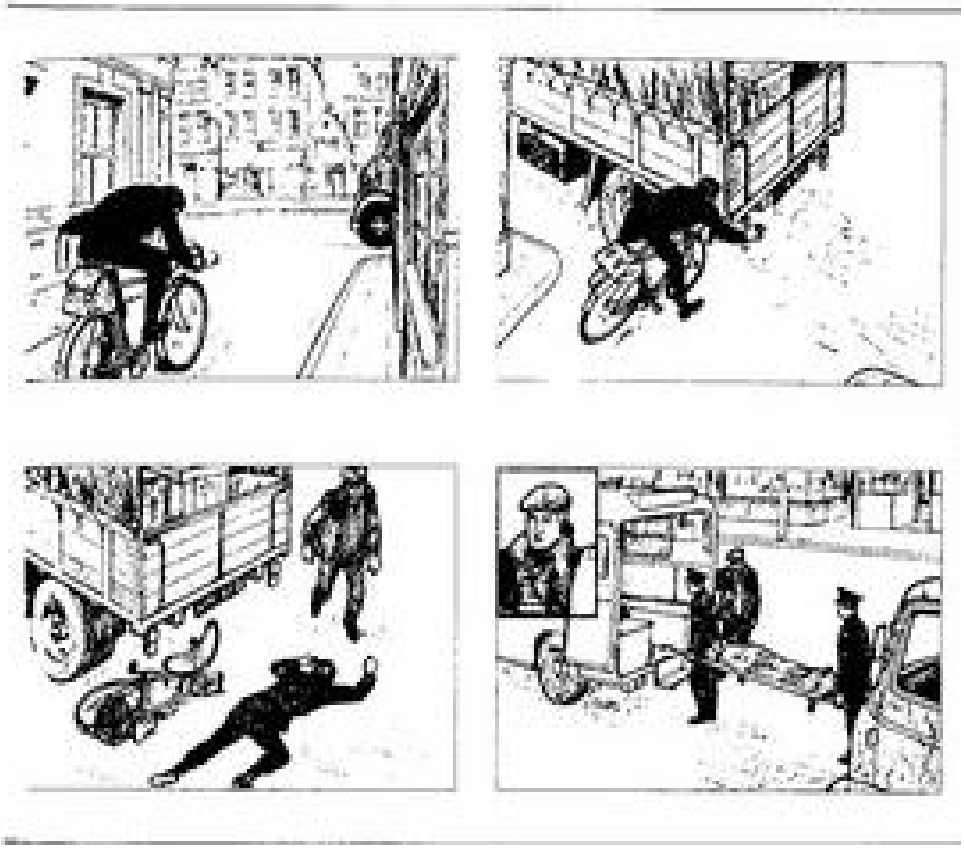
(3) Family

1. How many people are in your family?
2. Who are they?
3. What does your father do?
4. What does your mother do?
5. What is your mother like?

Appendix H

Task 2: Cartoon Description Task

In this task, each student was asked to describe four pictures of this cartoon strip to the researcher who was his/her interlocutor. The four pictures were about a street accident. (Adopted from *Speaking* by Martin Bygate, 1987: 79)



Appendix I

Task3: Topic Description Task

In this task, each student was given an abstract topic and was asked to talk about it for 3 minutes. The student was told to try to explain one given topic in English to the researcher. The following are sample abstract topics.

1. Vegetarianism

Instruction: Please talk about the word "Vegetarianism". You can describe or explain the definition of vegetarianism in your opinion or what you think about this word.

2. Marriage

Instruction: Please talk about the word "Marriage". You can describe or explain the definition of marriage in your opinion or what you think about this word.

3. Peace

Instruction: Please talk about the word "Peace". You can describe or explain the definition of peace in your opinion or what you think about this word.

Appendix J

Task 4: Conversation Task

In the conversation task, students were asked to work in pairs. To start this task, the situation was presented to the students in English by the researcher twice and then the students discussed the given situation with their interlocutors for 3-5 minutes. The sample situations are presented below.

Situation:

You have decided to spend a day at the beach with your friends. Talk about the things you enjoy doing and the things you can do together. Then discuss how to spend the day together.

Situation:

Today is a holiday. You plan to go out with your close friend but it started to rain. Talk to your friend about the things you can do instead of going out.

Situation:

You are planning a meal for the end of your English Conversation course. Tell your friend about the kind of food you will prepare for others and then decide how to hold the party.

Appendix K

Communication Strategy Lessons

Lesson 1

Focus CSs: **Circumlocution**
Date: 19 June 2007
Time: 60 minutes
Objectives:

- Students are introduced to the definition and concept of communication strategies.
- Students discuss the advantages and usefulness of communication strategies
- Students practise using circumlocution strategy

Materials:

- Communication strategy definition sheet
- Transcript of conversations contains sample dialogue and model of circumlocution
- List of input for circumlocution
- Sample words and definitions from English Dictionary (Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary)

Activities:

1. Introduction to the definition and concept of communication strategies:
    - *Strategy* is a method or technique for achieving something.
    - *Communication strategies* are devices you use while communicating in English to solve oral communication problems and to reach the communicative goals.

2. Raising students' awareness of circumlocution:
    - Discuss with students what people can do when they have forgotten or do not know an important word in English.

3. Explaining and encouraging students to take risks and use circumlocution:
    - Introduce and explain "circumlocution", its definitions and usefulness:

    "In using circumlocution, you describe the characteristics or elements of the object or action instead of using the appropriate target language item or structure, e.g., "the thing you open bottles with" for "corkscrew"."

4. Highlighting cross-cultural differences in the use of circumlocution:
    - Explain differences in the frequent use of circumlocution in student's L1 (Thai) and L2 (English).

5. Providing models of the use of circumlocution:

- Give students to look over the following transcripts and discuss the problems the speakers encounter as well as how they solve the problems.

Instruction: *Consider these examples of circumlocution strategy used by people. How do these speakers solve their problems when they cannot think of an English word for something?*

Example1:
(A doesn't know the word "corkscrew")

A: Well, I can't remember the word… *"the thing you open bottles with".*
B: Is it "corkscrew"?
A: That's it!

Example 2:
(B can't think of the word "pet")

A: I stay alone in that house. I feel lonely sometimes.
B: May be you needs a…..a…..
A: A friend?
B: No, a…a dog or a cat to stay with, some kinds of animal?
A: Well, that's a good idea. But I sometimes visit my mom and stay with her for a long time. So who will take care of my pet?

6. Teaching circumlocution directly:

- Present some useful vocabulary and sentence structures for circumlocution.

Input: Useful structures for circumlocution

A kind of/ sort of….
It's a kind of/ sort of…
Something which you (can)… (with).
The thing you can use for…
The thing you can …(with).
It's what you … (with).
Someone / the person who…
It's a bit like…
It's when you…
You do/ say it when…
It's something / the kind of thing you do/ say when…

(Dornyei & Thurrell, 1992)

7. Providing opportunities for practice in the use of circumlocution:

- **Activities 1:** Comparing dictionary definitions:

Instruction: *In small groups, look up entries for a given word in monolingual dictionary (Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary). Then you prepare a "perfect" definition for the word you've got.*

Example1:
whisk/wɪsk; *US* hw-/ *n* **1** device (usu made of coiled wire) for whipping eggs, cream, etc. ⇨illus at KITCHEN. **2** small brush made from a bunch of grass, twigs, bristles, etc tied to a handle: *a fly-whisk*. **3** quick light brushing movement (e.g., of a horse's tail)

Example 2:
thimble/θɪmbl/ *n* small cap of metal, plastic, etc worn on the end of the finger to protect it and push the needle in sewing

- **Activities 2:** Explanations:
  Instruction: *Here is a slip of paper with the name of an object or occupation. You must try to explain your word to others without actually saying what it is. You must define the word by using the vocabulary and sentence structures given.*

The following are examples of a slip of paper with the name of an object or occupation given to each student.

Examples of the name of an object or occupation for practising circumlocution

Chopsticks	…… ……
Fire-fighter	…… ……
Orthopedist	…… ……
Tweezers	…… …… …… ……
Care-taker	…… ……
Surgeon	…… ……
Crutch	…… ……

Lesson 2

Focus CSs: **Approximation**
Date: 26 June 2007
Time: 60 minutes
Objectives:

- Students learn and practise using approximation strategy

Materials:

- Communication strategy definition sheet
- Transcript of conversations contains sample dialogue and model of approximation
- A set of picture and word cards of things, animals, and vegetables (e.g., car, watch, walking stick, bus, necklace, fish, lobster, puddle, mushroom, lettuce, sweet pepper, tomato, cabbage, hat)
- List of input for approximation: e.g., it's a kind of *animal*, a kind of *vehicle*, a kind of *vegetable*, a kind of *bird*, etc.
- Examples of synonym: e.g., big = large, repair= fix, pretty= cute, love= adore, little= small, bucket= pail, noise= sound, etc.

Activities:

1. Raising students' awareness of approximation:
    - Discuss with students what people can do when they have forgotten or do not know an important word in English.

2. Explaining and encouraging students to take risks and use approximation:
    - Introduce and explain "approximation", its definitions and usefulness:

    "In using approximation, you use a single target language vocabulary item or structure, which is not correct, but which shares enough semantic features in common with the desired item, e.g., "ship" for "sailing boat".

3. Highlighting cross-cultural differences in the use of approximation:
    - Explain differences in the frequent use of approximation in student's L1 (Thai) and L2 (English).

4. Providing models of the use of approximation:
    - Give students to look over the following transcripts and discuss the problems the speakers encounter as well as how they solve the problems.

Instruction: *Consider these examples of approximation strategy used by people. How do these speakers solve their problems when they have forgotten an English word for something?*

Example1:
(B doesn't know the word "antique".)

A: All right! What do you do when you go shopping?

B: I buy books or some clothes.
A: What do people buy at Jatujak Weekend Market?
B: *Old object*.
A: *Antique*, right?

Example 2:
(A can't think of the word "pork".)

A: I don't know what it calls, meat, or pig, or something is not vegetable.
B: Pork, right?
A: Yes, pork.

5. Teaching approximation directly:
    - Present some useful vocabulary and sentence structures for approximation.

Input: Useful phrases for approximation

Synonym!

What is synonym? = A word which has the same, or nearly the same, meaning as another word.

Examples:

- Big = Large
- Repair= Fix
- Pretty= Cute
- Love= Adore
- Little= Small
- Bucket= Pail
- Noise= Sound
- Rabbit= Bunny
- Like= Enjoy

Some useful phrases for employment of approximation!

- It's a kind/sort of *animal*. (e.g., kangaroo, camel, squirrel)
- It's a kind/sort of *vehicle.* (e.g., van, truck, tractor)
- It's a kind/sort of *machine.* (e.g., photocopier, adding machine)
- It's a kind/sort of *food.* (e.g., lasagne, fried rice, stew)
- It's a kind/sort of *bird.* (e.g., eagle, ostrich, swallow)
- It's a kind/sort of *furniture.* (e.g., rocking chair, drawers, couch)
- It's a kind/sort of *fruit.* (e.g., tamarind, pear, cantaloupe)
- It's a kind of *fish.* (e.g., salmon, trout, mackerel)

6. Providing opportunities for practice in the use of approximation:

- **Activities 1:** Alternative word/synonym:
  Instruction: *You are going to act out the dialogue without saying some key words. You can use an alternative word/synonym to express the meaning of the target word as closely as possible.*

The following are examples of a set of pictures and word cards of things, animals, and vegetables.

Examples of a set of pictures and word cards of things, animals, and vegetables

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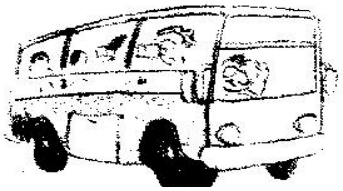

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Lesson 3

Focus CSs: **Appeal for help**
Date: 3 July 2007
Time: 60 minutes
Objectives:

- Students learn and practise using appeal for help.

Materials:

- Communication strategy definition sheet
- Transcript of conversations contains sample dialogue and model of appeal for help
- A set of picture and word cards of things and occupations (e.g., car, watch, crutch, bus, hat, dentist, reporter, soldier, cook, etc.)
- List of input for appeal for help

Activities:

1. Raising students' awareness of appeal for help:
    - Discuss with students what people can do when they have forgotten or do not know an important word in English.

2. Explaining and encouraging students to take risks and use appeal for help:
    - Introduce and explain "appeal for help", its definitions and usefulness:

    "In using appeal for help, you ask for aid from the interlocutor either directly (e.g., What do you call…?) or indirectly".

3. Highlighting cross-cultural differences in the use of appeal for help:
    - Explain differences in the frequent use of appeal for help in student's L1 (Thai) and L2 (English).

4. Providing models of the use of appeal for help:
    - Give students to look over the following transcripts and discuss the problems the speakers encounter as well as how they solve the problems.

Instruction: *Consider these examples of appeal for help strategy used by people. How do these speakers solve their problems when they have forgotten an English word for something?*

Example1:
(A can't think of the word "nurse" in English".)
A: Did you tell the…er…I can't remember the word for the person who takes care of the patients…*What do you call her?*...the woman in white…*What's the word for…?*
B: Nurse?
A: That's it! Did you tell the nurse?

Example 2:
(B doesn't know the word "bitter".)

A: I found that not many teenagers like vegetable. Do you think that not many teenagers like vegetable?
B: Teenage? I think teenage not like vegetable because…
How do you say 'Khom' in English?
A: Bitter, right? It doesn't taste bitter to you, right?

5. Teaching appeal for help directly:
   - Present some useful vocabulary and sentence structures for appeal for help.

Input: Appealing for help

			it?
-What	do / would	you call	someone who…? / the thing which…?

-What's the word for…/ to describe (it)…?
-How do/ would you say…?
-I can't remember / I've forgotten the word for…?
-What's the name of…?

(Dornyei & Thurrell, 1992)

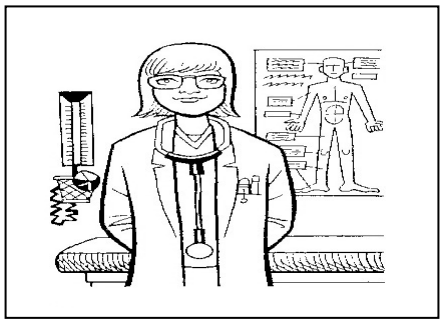
6. Providing opportunities for practice in the use of appeal for help:
   - **Activities 1:** Appeal for help:
     Instruction: *Work in pairs. Speaker A will pretend not to remember certain words. He/she will try to elicit these words from Speaker B by asking questions and asking for help. Then you will change roles so that the other speaker can have a chance to practise using this strategy.*

The following are examples of dialogue and a set of word cards of things and occupations

Exercise1:

A: Did you tell the ….er…. I can't remember the word for ……..(1)……. What do you call…… (2)……? What's the word for ……?
B: …….. (3)…….? (or Ah, the ……..!)
A: Oh! Yes. (or That's it!)

Examples of a set of word cards of things and occupations



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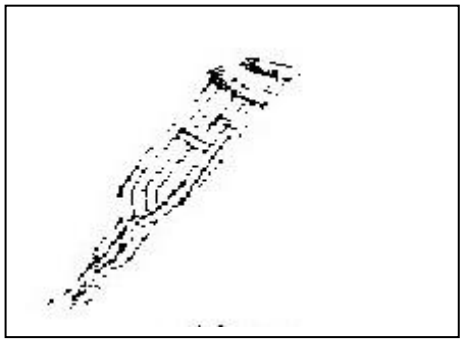

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Lesson 4

Focus CSs: Clarification request
Date: 10 July 2007
Time: 60 minutes
Objectives:

- Students learn and practise using clarification request.

Materials:

- Communication strategy definition sheet
- Transcript of conversations contains sample dialogue and model of clarification request
- List of input for clarification request
- Worksheet: List of sentences

Activities:

1. Raising students' awareness of clarification request:
    - Discuss with students what people can do when they do not understand or do not hear certain things and ask other speaker to repeat.

2. Explaining and encouraging students to take risks and use clarification request:
    - Introduce and explain "clarification request", its definitions and usefulness:

    "In using "clarification request", you request the explanation of an unfamiliar meaning structure. (e.g., Again, please! or Pardon?)"

3. Highlighting cross-cultural differences in the use of clarification request:
    - Explain differences in the frequent use of clarification request in student's L1 (Thai) and L2 (English).

4. Providing models of the use of clarification request:
    - Give students to look over the following transcripts and discuss the problems the speakers encounter as well as how they solve the problems.

    Instruction: *Consider these examples of clarification request strategy used by people. How do these speakers solve their problems when they have forgotten an English word for something?*

    Example1:

    A: A man with a red hat is coming.
    B: *Sorry, what was that again?*
    A: A man with a red hat is coming.
    B: *What kind of hat?*
    A: Red.
    B: Did you say dead?
    A: No, I said R E D!!
    B: Oh, I see.

Example 2:

A: And how about you? I found that not many teenagers like vegetable.
B: Again, please!
A: I found that not many teenagers like vegetable. Do you think that not many teenagers like vegetable?

5. Teaching clarification request directly:
   - Present some useful vocabulary and sentence structures for clarification request.

Input: Asking for repetition

(I'm) sorry?
(I) (beg your) pardon?
(I'm) sorry, I didn't } hear } the } last part
catch part about……
get last/first word.
understand
Sorry, what did you say?
Sorry, what was that again?
What was that word again?
Would/ Could you repeat that, please?
Would/ Could you repeat what you said, please?
Could you repeat that for me, please?
Would you mind repeating that?
Sorry, can/could you say that again please?
Sorry, can/could you repeat it more slowly?
Sorry, would you mind speaking a bit slower?
I'm sorry, I couldn't/ didn't hear what you said?
Sorry, did you say "Nottingham"?
What? / You what? / When? /Where? / Who? / What kind of…?
Hang on/Just a minute, say that again?
I didn't quite catch that.

(Dornyei & Thurrell, 1992)

6. Providing opportunities for practice in the use of clarification request:
   - **Activities 1:** Chain misunderstanding:
     Instruction: *Please sit in a circle.*
     1. *Speaker1(S1) will turn to Speaker 2(S2) and will say something, e.g., "Grandpa was there last night";*
     2. *S2 won't understand this and will ask S1 to repeat;*
     3. *S1 will repeat the sentence;*
     4. *S2 acknowledges it, then will turn to S3 and will repeat a distorted version of the sentence, e.g., "Grandpa is coming tonight".*

5. *S3 will ask, then will repeat to S4 another distorted version, e.g., "Andrew's car is all right", etc.*

The following are examples of list of sentences.

List of sentences used in clarification request practice

Yesterday's ice cream was delicious.	…… …… …… …… ……
Your shirt is very beautiful.	…… …… …… …… ……
Panda is so cute.	…… …… …… ……
Where is the nearest market?	…… …… …… ……
Did you go shopping yesterday?	…… …… …… ……
Rhinos are faster than elephants.	…… …… …… ……

Lesson 5

Focus CSs: Pause fillers and hesitation devices
Date: 17 July 2007
Time: 60 minutes
Objectives:

- Students learn and practise using pause fillers and hesitation devices

Materials:

- Communication strategy definition sheet
- Transcript of conversations contains sample dialogue and model of pause fillers and hesitation devices
- List of input for pause fillers and hesitation devices
- Worksheet: List of questions

Activities:

1. Raising students' awareness of pause fillers and hesitation devices:
    - Discuss with students what people can do when they want to delay their answer and gain time to think when in difficulty.

2. Explaining and encouraging students to take risks and use pause fillers and hesitation devices:
    - Introduce and explain "pause fillers and hesitation devices", its definitions and usefulness:

    "In using "pause fillers and hesitation devices", you use pause fillers and hesitation devices to fill pauses and to gain time to think (e.g., Well, now let's see, uh, as a matter of fact).

3. Highlighting cross-cultural differences in the use of pause fillers and hesitation devices:
    - Explain differences in the frequent use of pause fillers and hesitation devices in student's L1 (Thai) and L2 (English).

4. Providing models of the use of pause fillers and hesitation devices:
    - Give students to look over the following transcripts and discuss the problems the speakers encounter as well as how they solve the problems.

    Instruction: *Consider these examples of pause fillers and hesitation devices used by people. How do these speakers solve their problems when they have forgotten an English word for something?*

    Example1:

    A: Why haven't you done your homework?
    B: *Well…er, you see, it's like this*…now, where shall I start…?

    Example2:

    A: So, what are we going to do tomorrow then?

B: *Well, as a matter of fact,* I was thinking of going on a trip.
A: *Oh, I see.* Interesting. And where to?
B: *Well, actually* Chicago appeals to me, *you know…*

5. Teaching pause fillers and hesitation devices directly:
   - Present some useful vocabulary and sentence structures for pause fillers and hesitation devices.

Input: Pause fillers and hesitation devices

Well…. Um…/ Er… Actually…. You know…/ You see… I see. I/ You mean… As a matter of fact… Let's see (now). Now let me think/ see. I'll have to think about it. Frankly,… To be (quite) honest/ frank,… In fact, … I wonder… Hang on.	The thing is… I see what you mean. Sort of. That sort/kind of thing. It's like this, you see… Right then. Let's say… What I'm trying to say is… (Now) where should I start… That's a good/ very interesting question. What I would say is… How shall I put it? Let's put it this way… The best way I can answer that is… I ('ll) tell you what…

(Dornyei & Thurrell, 1992)

6. Providing opportunities for practice in the use of pause fillers and hesitation devices:

- **Activities 1:** Difficult questions:
  Instruction:
  1. *You will be asked difficult questions to answer such as "What were you doing last Friday at 11.15 am.?".* However, you are unlikely to be able to answer immediately and use fillers.
  2. Ask each other difficult questions so that they can practise using fillers.

The following are examples of list of sentences.

List of questions used in the practice of pause fillers and hesitation devices

What was the stupidest thing you ever did?	…… …… …… …… ……
What's the best thing you ever gave to someone?	…… …… …… …… ……
What is something you dislike about someone you live with?	…… …… …… ……
What is your biggest secret?	…… …… …… ……
What do you want most in the world?	…… …… …… ……
What would you like to change about yourself if you could?	…… …… …… ……

Lesson 6

Focus CSs: Topic avoidance
Date: 31 July 2007
Time: 60 minutes
Objectives:

- Students learn and practise using topic avoidance.

Materials:

- Communication strategy definition sheet
- Transcript of conversations contains sample dialogue and model of topic avoidance
- List of input for topic avoidance
- Worksheet: List of questions

Activities:

1. Raising students' awareness of topic avoidance:
    - Discuss with students what people can do when they want to, or simply cannot answer a question.

2. Explaining and encouraging students to take risks and use topic avoidance:
    - Introduce and explain "topic avoidance", its definitions and usefulness:

    "In using "topic avoidance", you avoid talking about particular topics for which the vocabulary or the meaning is not known."

3. Highlighting cross-cultural differences in the use of topic avoidance:
    - Explain differences in the frequent use of topic avoidance in student's L1 (Thai) and L2 (English).

4. Providing models of the use of topic avoidance:
    - Give students to look over the following transcripts and discuss the problems the speakers encounter as well as how they solve the problems.

    Instruction: *Consider these examples of topic avoidance used by people. How do these speakers solve their problems when they have forgotten an English word for something?*

    Example1:

    A: How old are you?
    B: *Well, that's an interesting question*. Isn't it strange how people always feel that they need to know the age of a person? I don't really think that the age is important at all.

Example2:

A: Have you been to the bank to pay that cheque in?
B: *Well, as a matter of fact,* I thought I'd go and buy some white paint this afternoon. *You know*, for the garage door. Do you think it would look-nice white?
A: Charles, I asked you about the bank! Have you been or will you go this afternoon?
B: *Well, you know,* I'm a busy person but always have time to do extra things like painting the garage door and mending the fence…

5. Teaching topic avoidance directly:
   - Present some useful vocabulary and sentence structures for topic avoidance.

Input: Common fillers and Hesitation devices

Common fillers and Hesitation devices	
Well…. Um…/ Er… Actually…. You know…/ You see… I see. I/ You mean… As a matter of fact… Let's see (now). Now let me think/ see. I'll have to think about it. Frankly,… To be (quite) honest/ frank,… In fact, … I wonder… Hang on.	The thing is… I see what you mean. Sort of. That sort/kind of thing. It's like this, you see… Right then. Let's say… What I'm trying to say is… (Now) where should I start… That's a good/ very interesting question. What I would say is… How shall I put it? Let's put it this way… The best way I can answer that is… I ('ll) tell you what…

(Dornyei & Thurrell, 1992)

Input: Interrupting a conversation and returning to the topic!

Interrupting a conversation and returning to the topic!	
To interrupt	**To return**
-I'm sorry to interrupt… -Sorry to break in, but… -Sorry, can /may I interrupt you for a second… -Excuse me…/ Pardon me… -Excuse/ Pardon me for interrupting, but… -If I may interrupt for a second… -Sorry, but did I hear you say…? -I couldn't help overhearing…	-As I was saying… - (Now) what was I saying/ what were we talking about? -Where was I…? -Going back to… -To return to/ Going back to what I was saying before… -To get back to what we were talking about… -Let's get back to… - (Yes, well) anyway… -In any case…

(Dornyei & Thurrell, 1992)

6. Providing opportunities for practice in the use of topic avoidance.

- **Activities 1:** Going off the points:
  Instruction:
  1. *You will be asked no matter what the question is, you must respond in two or three sentences without actually giving the particular information. You must pretend not to answer the question directly.*

  2. In pairs, you will prepare a new version of the dialogue in which one speaker will keep going off the point and the other speaker will politely remind him /her of what they are talking about (return to the topic)

The following are examples of list of sentences.

List of questions used in the practice of topic avoidance

What did you do on your first date?	…… …… …… …… ……
How do you like to spend your free time?	…… …… …… …… ……
What do you like to do on Saturday night?	…… …… …… ……
When you were a child, what did you want to become?	…… …… …… …… ……
What kind of animal would you like to be and why?	…… …… …… …… ……
What do you like to do on rainy day?	…… …… …… ……
What are you going to do next year?	…… …… …… ……

Lesson 7

Focus CSs: Comprehension check
Date: 7 August 2007
Time: 60 minutes
Objectives:

- Students learn and practise using comprehension check

Materials:

- Communication strategy definition sheet
- Transcript of conversations contains sample dialogue and model of comprehension check
- List of input for comprehension check
- Worksheet: Dialogue

Activities:

1. Raising students' awareness of comprehension check:
    - Discuss with students what people can do when they are not sure whether the other is following and understanding what they have said.

2. Explaining and encouraging students to take risks and use comprehension check:
    - Introduce and explain "comprehension check", its definitions and usefulness:

    "In using "comprehension check", you ask the questions to check whether the interlocutor understands what you said or not."

3. Highlighting cross-cultural differences in the use of comprehension check:
    - Explain differences in the frequent use of comprehension check in student's L1 (Thai) and L2 (English).

4. Providing models of the use of comprehension check:
    - Give students to look over the following transcripts and discuss the problems the speakers encounter as well as how they solve the problems.

    Instruction: *Consider this example of comprehension check used by people. How do these speakers solve their problems when they have forgotten an English word for something?*

    Example1:

    A: So before we go to library, let's find something to eat at SUSU Café, and when Susan comes, we'll go to the library together. *Is that clear?*
    B: *Mmm*…So what you're saying is that we're going to spend the whole day in the library?
    A: Oh, Tom, don't misunderstand me! It's not the whole day! We can leave before 4 pm.

5. Teaching comprehension check directly:
    - Present some useful vocabulary and sentence structures for comprehension check.

Input: Questions to check whether the other understands what you are saying and possible responses.

Check questions	Responses
OK?	Mmm….
Right?	Uh-huh.
Is that clear?	(Yes,) sure.
Are you with me?	Oh, yes, go on.
Do/ Can you follow me?	Of course.
All right?	Yes, get on with it!
Got/ Get it?	More or less, yes.
Do you see what I mean?	Sort of….
Do you know what I'm getting at?	Well, not really….
Am I making myself clear?	Er….
Have I made myself clear?	Well…..
Does that make sense (to you)?	
Am I making sense?	
Do I make myself clear?	
Do I make myself understood?	
Do you understand me?	

(Dornyei & Thurrell, 1992)

6. Providing opportunities for practice in the use of comprehension check

Activities 1: Check questions:

1. In pairs, you will insert check questions into the dialogue. Some responses can be negative so that the speaker has to repeat or simplify what he/she has said.
2. You will read out or perform the extended versions. The others will count how many question structures each group uses.

The following are examples of dialogue used in comprehension check.

Dialogue used in the practice of comprehension check

Sample dialogue

Start with:

A: If you write with your left hand, but draw with the opposite hand, and kick a ball with the foot on the same side, yet put the phone to your ear on the other side, which is the side where you are short-sighted, which eye is your good eye? *Are you with me?*

B: Uh…Sorry, what was that again?

C: .....
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A: .....
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Lesson 8

Focus CSs: Confirmation check
Date: 14 August 2007
Time: 60 minutes
Objectives:

- Students learn and practise using confirmation check

Materials:

- Communication strategy definition sheet
- Transcript of conversations contains sample dialogue and model of confirmation check
- List of input for confirmation check
- Worksheet: Dialogue

Activities:

1. Raising students' awareness of confirmation check:
    - Discuss with students what people can do when they want to check their understanding of the other person's words.

2. Explaining and encouraging students to take risks and use confirmation check:
    - Introduce and explain "confirmation check", its definitions and usefulness:

    "In using "confirmation check", you repeat the words that the interlocutor has said to confirm what you heard is correct or not."

3. Highlighting cross-cultural differences in the use of confirmation check:
    - Explain differences in the frequent use of confirmation check in student's L1 (Thai) and L2 (English).

4. Providing models of the use of confirmation check:
    - Give students to look over the following transcripts and discuss the problems the speakers encounter as well as how they solve the problems.

    Instruction: *Consider this example of confirmation check used by people. How do these speakers solve their problems when they have forgotten an English word for something?*

    <u>Example1:</u>

    A: So before we go to Auntie Carol's house, let's have a drink at Uncle John's, and when my Mom comes, we'll join the rest of the family and eat. OK?
    B: <u>*So, if I've got it right,*</u> we go to the pub with Uncle John and your Mom, then we go and meet your family and later the two of us go to a restaurant?
    A: Er…no, that's not quite what I meant….Let me explain it more clearly. First, we'll have a drink at Uncle John's house……..

5. Teaching confirmation check directly:
    - Present some useful vocabulary and sentence structures for confirmation check.

Input: Saying things in other words

Interpreting or reformulating what the other speaker has said.
If I (have) understood you correctly….. You mean ….., right? Do you mean to say……? So you mean…..? Do you mean…..? Does that mean…..? What you mean is……? What you're saying is…..? What you're trying to say is…..? Are you saying that….? So you're saying….. In other words,…… If I've got it right, then…… If I follow you rightly, then…. So am I right in saying that….. So the basic idea is that….. So the general idea is that…..

(Dornyei & Thurrell, 1992)

6. Providing opportunities for practice in the use of comprehension check

Activities 1: 1. You prepare a new version of the dialogue in which your pair will not understand things, forcing you to do some reexplanation.
2. In pairs, you then perform your extended versions of the dialogue with your pair.

The following are examples of dialogue used in comprehension check.

Dialogue used in the practice of confirmation check

Sample dialogue

Start with:

A: So before we go to Jan's house, let have a drink at Jenny's, and when my sister comes, we'll go and join the rest of our group and eat. OK?

B: .....
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A: .....
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Lesson 9

Focus CSs: Self-repair
Date: 21 August 2007
Time: 60 minutes
Objectives:

- Students learn and practise using self-repair

Materials:

- Communication strategy definition sheet
- Transcript of conversations contains sample dialogue and model of self-repair
- List of input for self-repair
- Worksheet: List of topics and questions

Activities:

1. Raising students' awareness of self-repair:
    - Discuss with students what people can do when they make oral mistakes.

2. Explaining and encouraging students to take risks and use self-repair:
    - Introduce and explain "self-repair", its definitions and usefulness:

    "In using "self-repair", you make self-initiated corrections in your own speech."

3. Highlighting cross-cultural differences in the use of self-repair:
    - Explain differences in the frequent use of self-repair in student's L1 (Thai) and L2 (English).

4. Providing models of the use of self-repair and teaching self-repair directly:
    - Give students to look over the following transcripts and discuss the problems the speakers encounter as well as how they solve the problems.

    Instruction: *Consider these examples of self-repair used by people. How do these speakers solve their problems when they have forgotten an English word for something?*

    Example1:

    A: Oh is that like…UM…a different alphabet?
    B: Oh, yes yes oh because Vietnam was part of *France no it was a French colony.*
    A: Yes. French colony.

    Example2:

    A: and in class during the day is that what you work on?
    B: No we work on language we work on grammar we work!
    A: Yep yep from a text book?

B: Um…. No they give some *hand-in..Ah…hand-out.*

- Present some useful vocabulary and sentence structures for self-repair.

5. Providing opportunities for practice in the use of self-repair

Activities 1: 1. You will interview your interlocutor and find out how he/she deals with oral mistakes.
2. Listen to your partner and write down some mistakes your partner makes. Then you will make a list of your very common mistakes and correct mistakes by yourselves.

The following are examples of worksheet used in the practice of self-repair.

Worksheet: Self-repair

Instruction: Interview your interlocutor and find out how he/she deals with oral mistakes. Listen to your partner and write down some mistakes your partner makes. Then you will make a list of your very common mistakes and correct mistakes by yourselves.

A: .....
.....
.....
.....
.....

B: .....
.....
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.....

A: .....
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B: .....
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Lesson 10

Focus CSs: Circumlocution, approximation, appeal for help, clarification request, pause fillers and hesitation devices, topic avoidance, comprehension check, confirmation check and self-repair
Date: 28 August 2007
Time: 60 minutes
Objectives:

- Review and provide training in the use of circumlocution, approximation , appeal for help, clarification request, pause fillers and hesitation devices, topic avoidance, comprehension check, confirmation check and self-repair
- Give students an opportunity to use all the taught CSs in free communication. The students can use the strategies more independently.

Materials:

- Summary of nine taught CSs
- Worksheet

Activities:

1. Discuss with students what CSs they have learned and how they can use these strategies in their conversations.
2. Explain and review taught CSs, their definitions and usefulness. The example of summary of nine taught CSs is shown below.

Review

Match the communication strategies with their correct definitions

Circumlocution	Approximation	Pause fillers and hesitation devices
Topic avoidance	Clarification request	Appeal for help
Self-repair	Confirmation check	Comprehension check

_____1. You use a single target language vocabulary item or structure, which is not correct, but which shares enough semantic features in common with the desired item.
_____2. You use pause fillers and hesitation devices to fill pauses and to gain time to think (e.g., Well, now let's see, uh, as a matter of fact).
_____3. You avoid talking about particular topics for which the vocabulary or the meaning is not known.
_____4.You describe the characteristics or elements of the object or action instead of using the appropriate target language item or structure.
_____5.You ask for aid from the interlocutor either directly (e.g., What do you call…?)
_____6.You request the explanation of an unfamiliar meaning structure. (e.g., Again, please! or Pardon?)
_____7. You ask the questions to check whether the interlocutor understands what you said or not.
_____8. You make self-initiated corrections in your own speech.
_____9. You repeat the words that the interlocutor has said to confirm what you heard is correct or not.

3. Students will map a list of things on a trip to a mountain. They will be encouraged to use nine taught CSs to express meanings.
4. Then, students will prioritise items to be taken on camping trip to a mountain. They can use the taught CSs if they encounter communication difficulty.

The following is an example of worksheet used in the review of nine taught CSs.

Worksheet: Review 1

Instruction: You will map a list of things on a trip to a mountain. Prioritize items to be taken on camping trip to a mountain with you friends.

A: .....
.....
.....
.....

B: .....
.....
.....
.....

A: .....
.....
.....
.....

B: .....
.....
.....
.....

A: .....
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B: .....
.....
.....
.....

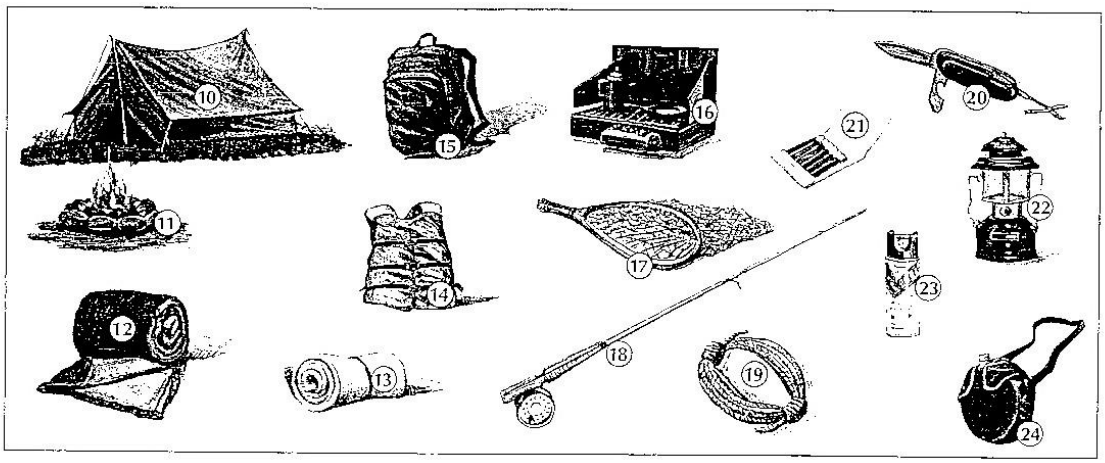
A: .....
.....
.....
.....

B: .....
.....
.....

An example of worksheet for review 1: A trip to a mountain.

(Adopted from the Oxford Picture Dictionary by Shapiro.N & Goldstein, J.A., 2001:154)

1. camping
2. boating
3. canoeing
4. rafting
5. fishing
6. hiking
7. backpacking
8. mountain biking
9. horseback riding



10. tent
11. campfire
12. sleeping bag
13. foam pad
14. life vest
15. backpack
16. camping stove
17. fishing net
18. fishing pole
19. rope
20. multi-use knife
21. matches
22. lantern
23. insect repellent
24. canteen

Lesson 11

Focus CSs: Circumlocution, approximation, appeal for help, clarification request, pause fillers and hesitation devices, topic avoidance, comprehension check, confirmation check and self-repair
Date: 4 September 2007
Time: 60 minutes
Objectives:

- Review and provide training in the use of circumlocution, approximation , appeal for help, clarification request, pause fillers and hesitation devices, topic avoidance, comprehension check, confirmation check and self-repair.
- Give students an opportunity to use all the taught CSs in free communication. The students can use the strategies more independently.

Materials:

- Summary of nine taught CSs
- Worksheet

Activities:

1. Discuss with students what CSs they have learned and how they can use these strategies in their conversation.
2. Explain and review taught CSs, their definitions and usefulness. The example of summary of nine taught CSs is shown below.

Review2

Match the communication strategies with the suitable phrases or sentences.

Circumlocution	Approximation	Pause fillers and hesitation devices
Topic avoidance	Clarification request	Appeal for help
Self-repair	Confirmation check	Comprehension check

1. OK?
   Right?
   Is that clear?
   Are you with me?
   Do/ Can you follow me?
   All right?
   Got/ Get it?
   Do you see what I mean?
   Do you understand me?

2.

Well….	The thing is…
Um…/ Er…	I see what you mean.
Actually….	Sort of.
You know…/ You see…	That sort/kind of thing.
I see.	It's like this, you see…
I/ You mean…	Let's say…
As a matter of fact…	What I'm trying to say is…
Let's see (now).	(Now) where should I start…
Now let me think/ see.	That's a good/ very interesting
I'll have to think about it.	question.
To be (quite) honest/ frank,…	What I would say is…
In fact, …	How shall I put it?
I wonder…	Let's put it this way…
Hang on.	The best way I can answer that is…
	I ('ll) tell you what…

---

3. A kind of/ sort of….
   It's a kind of/ sort of…
   Something which you (can)… (with).
   The thing you can use for…
   The thing you can … (with).
   It's what you … (with).
   Someone / the person who…

Review 2

It's a bit like…
It's when you…
You do/ say it when…
It's something / the kind of thing you do/ say when…

4.

-What do / would } you call } it? } someone who…? / the thing which…?

-What's the word for…/ to describe (it)…?
-How do/ would you say…?
-I can't remember / I've forgotten the word for…?
-What's the name of…?

---

5. (I'm) sorry?
(I) (beg your) pardon?
(I'm) sorry, I didn't} hear / catch / get / understand } the} last part / part about…… / last/first word.
Sorry, what did you say?
Sorry, what was that again?
What was that word again?
Would/ Could you repeat that, please?
Would/ Could you repeat what you said, please?
Could you repeat that for me, please?
Would you mind repeating that?

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6. If I (have) understood you correctly…..
You mean ….., right?
Do you mean to say……?
So you mean…..?
Do you mean…..?
Does that mean…..?
What you mean is……?
What you're saying is…..?
What you're trying to say is…..?
Are you saying that….?

Review 2

So you're saying…..
In other words,……

_____

7. A: What do people buy at Jatujak Weekend Market?
   B: *Old object*.
   A: *Antique*, right?

_____

8. A: How old are you?
   B: *Well, that's an interesting question. Isn't it strange how people always feel that they need to know the age of a person? I don't really think that the age is important at all.*

_____

9. A: Oh is that like…UM…a different alphabet?
   B: Oh, yes yes oh because Malaysia was part of *Britain no it was a British colony.*
   A: Yes. British colony.

_____

3. Students will be given a list of outdoor activities and have to describe activity for a minute. They will be encouraged to use all taught CSs.

   The following is an example of worksheet used in the review of nine taught CSs.

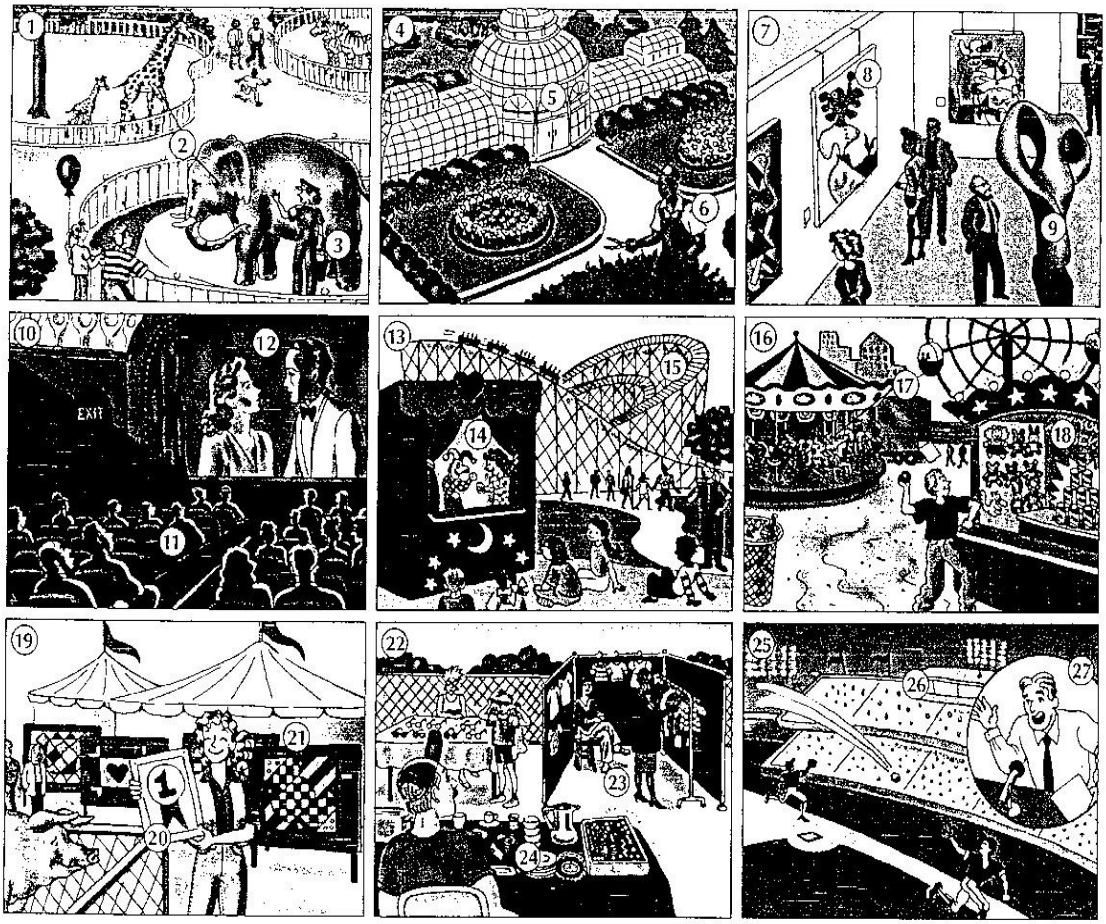
Worksheet: Review 2

Instruction: You will get a list of outdoor activities. Please describe an activity for a minute.

A: .....
.....
.....
B: .....
.....
.....
A: .....
.....
.....
B: .....
.....
.....

An example of worksheet for review 2: Outdoor activities

(Adopted from the Oxford Picture Dictionary by Shapiro.N & Goldstein, J.A., 2001:152)



1. zoo
สวนสัตว์
2. animals
สัตว์
3. zookeeper
คนดูแลสัตว์
4. botanical gardens
สวนพฤกษศาสตร์
5. greenhouse
เรือนกระจก
6. gardener
คนดูแลสวน
7. art museum
พิพิธภัณฑ์ศิลปะ
8. painting
ภาพวาด
9. sculpture
ประติมากรรม
10. the movies
ภาพยนตร์
11. seat
ที่นั่ง
12. screen
จอภาพยนตร์
13. amusement park
สวนสนุก
14. puppet show
การแสดงหุ่นเชิด
15. roller coaster
รถไฟเหาะตีลังกา
16. carnival
การเล่นสนุกสนาน
17. rides
ขี่ม้าหมุน / โลดโผนข้ามสวรรค์
18. game
เล่นเกม
19. county fair
งานออกร้านในชนบท
20. first place/first prize
รางวัลที่ 1
21. exhibition
นิทรรศการ
22. swap meet/flea market
ตลาดนัดเล็กๆ
23. booth
ร้านขายของเป็นล็อคๆ
24. merchandise
สินค้า
25. baseball game
การแข่งขันเบสบอล
26. stadium
สนามกีฬา
27. announcer
ผู้ประกาศ

Lesson 12

Focus CSs: Circumlocution, approximation, appeal for help, clarification request, pause fillers and hesitation devices, topic avoidance, comprehension check, confirmation check and self-repair
Date: 11 September 2007
Time: 60 minutes
Objectives:

- Review and provide training in the use of circumlocution, approximation , appeal for help, clarification request, pause fillers and hesitation devices, topic avoidance, comprehension check, confirmation check and self-repair
- Give students an opportunity to use all the taught CSs in free communication. The students can use the strategies more independently.

Materials:

- Worksheet

Activities:

1. Discuss with students what CSs they have learned and how they can use these strategies in their conversations.
2. Explain and review taught CSs, their definitions and usefulness.
3. Students will work in pairs on an information gap task. They will be encouraged to use all nine taught CSs.

The following is an example of worksheet for an information gap task.

An example of worksheet for review3: An information gap task

(Adopted from Person to person by Richards, J.C. et al., 2006:113)

Optional Activity 1.2: Could I have your name, please?

A

Part 1 You are applying for a credit card. Your partner is the store manager and he or she will ask you for your information.

Name: Pat Johnson Telephone: 541-555-6[illegible]

Address: 198 Pike Street

City: Portland State: Oregon Zip code: 90450

E-mail address: pjohnson@coolmail.com Occupation: Web designer

Part 2 Now you are a bank manager. Your partner wants to open an account. Ask for your partner's information to complete the form below.

City Bank **Savings Account Application Form**

Name: Mr. / Ms. First name: _____ Last name: _____

Address: Street _____

City: _____ State: _____ Zip code: _____

Telephone: Home _____ Work _____

E-mail address: _____

Occupation: _____ Place of Work: _____

✂----------

B

Part 1 You are a store manager. Your partner is applying for a credit card. Ask for your partner's information to complete the form below.

Field's Department Store **Credit Card Application**

Name: First name: _____ Last name: _____

Address: Street _____

City: _____ State: _____ Zip code: _____

Phone: Home _____ Work _____

E-mail address: _____

Occupation: _____ Employer: _____

Part 2 Now you want to open a bank account. Your partner is the bank manager, and he or she will ask you for your information.

Name: Tony Pataki Telephone: 253-555-18[illegible]

Address: 1989 Kingston Road

City: Seattle State: Washington Zip code: 97[illegible]

E-mail address: tonyp33@yoohoo.com Occupation: [illegible]nalist

Appendix L
A Sample of Pre-Speaking Task Transcription

(1) Student P

Task1: Oral interview

1	R:	For the first one, we are going to talk about King Mongkut Institute of
2		Technology North Bangkok or KMITNB. Question one, what is the
3		campus like, in your opinion? What is our campus like?
4	P:	Um…… (pause: 5 seconds)… library {use hand to show the library}.
5	R:	Is it beautiful, big or small? Something likes that.
6	P	It is a large one and I can read a book uh…... in my interesting.
7	R:	Ok. What do you like about our university? About KMITNB. The
8		thing you like most.
9	P	The library.
10	R:	What don't you like about KMITNB?
11	P	Uh…. The river behind the canteen.
12	R:	Why?
13	P	It is dirty.
14	R:	It is dirty. Uh...huh.
15	P	Smell very bad.
16	R:	Smell very bad! Ok. Where do you like going on the campus?
17	P	(pause: 5 seconds)…….
18	R:	Where? The places.
19	P	Library and computer.
20	R:	Library and computer. Computer?
21	P	Um……. (pause 5 seconds).
22	R:	Library and computer room, right?
23	P	Yes, computer room.
24	R:	In what building? In your faculty's building or ……?
25	P	Behind {use hand to point to the building}…… (pause: 5
26		seconds)……
27	R:	Behind…? Behind this building or in front of this building, right?
28	P:	Oh. Yes, in front of this building.
29	R:	What are your classes like?
30	P:	Um…..... (pause: 5 seconds)….. *Kor*… (In English, "and then"). My
31		friends are friendly.
32	R:	Your friends? I mean what you feel about your classes or your courses.
33	P:	The courses?
34	R:	Yes, the courses that you study here or you take here.
35	P:	Um… Again please?
36	R:	What do you feel about your courses, C-O-U-R-S-E-S? Or the subjects that
37		you study.
38	P:	I like… Dynamics.
39	R:	Right now you study Dynamics, right?
40	P:	Yes.

41	R:	Ok. We're going to talk about free time. What are your hobbies?
42	P:	I don't have…
43	R:	You don't have any hobbies? You don't do any activities. Just only studying
44		or eating? (laugh)
45	P:	I like sleep and eat. (laugh)
46	R:	So you like sleeping and eating.
47	P:	I like eat durians.
48	R:	You like eating durians. Not sure whether this is like a hobby or not.
49		Hobbies are like the activities that you do in your free time.
50	P:	Free time? For my free time, I like swimming.
51	R:	So swimming is your hobby. Next, what are your favourite sports?
52	P:	Swimming.
53	R:	Just only swimming?
54	P:	Swimming and badminton.
55	R:	Playing badminton, all right. How often do you go swimming or play
56		badminton?
57	P:	One…… (pause: 3 seconds) *Tor Subdar* (In English, "per week").
58	R:	Once per week?
59	P:	Yes, once per week.
60	R:	When do you go to the fitness centre?
61	P:	(pause 5 seconds)……..
62	R:	Have you ever been to the fitness centre?
63	P:	Fitness? Fitness, here or…?
64	R:	Yes, or anywhere else.
65	P:	I never.
66	R:	When do you go to the swimming pool?
67	P:	Um… 5 o'clock in the evening.
68	R:	5 o'clock in the evening, right? What do you do in your free time when you
69		have free time?
70	P:	Free time. Read a book.
71	R:	Read a book. Uh…huh.
72	P:	Watching TV and uh…. jigsaw.
73	R:	Play or do a jigsaw, right?
74	P:	Yes.
75	R:	About your family. How many people are in your family?
76	P:	Three people. I have my father, and mother and one brother
77	R:	So there are four people, including you.
78	P:	Oh! No. No. No. My father not live with me.
79	R:	So just only three, right ? Mother, brother and you.
80	P:	Yes, mother, brother and me.
81	R:	What does your father do?
82	P:	My father is sick. He can't move.
83	R:	Your father is sick right now. In the past, what did he do?
84	P:	He's…uh….. (pause: 3 seconds) I don't know because he…..(pause: 3
85		seconds)
86	R:	What kind of job or what work did he do?
87	P:	He worked everything.
88	R:	Everything? He worked in the past, right?

89	P:	Yes, he…ah …some someone …he sells …
90	R:	He sells something. A seller?
91	P:	Yes.
92	R:	What does your mother do?
93	P:	Mother is a farmer.
94	R:	She's a farmer. Where is she now?
95	P:	Nakorn Nayok.
96	R:	She's in Nakorn Nayok. What is your mother like?
97	P:	She's same me. {point at her face} She looks like same me.
98	R:	She looks like you, right? How about her appearance? Does she have long
99		hair, like you?
100	P:	Orr… she has long hair. *Laew Kor*… (In English, and then) and black
101		(pointed at her arm).
102	R:	Dark or tanned skin?
103	P:	Yes.
104	R:	Ok.

Student P
Task 2: Cartoon description

1	R:	Let's talk about the cartoon pictures.
2	P:	Picture1, I see one man rides a bicycle. Uh… picture 2, I see one man the to
3		contact the car…… (pause: 5 seconds) He can't to drive a bicycle. He falls
4		bicycle. And one man …uh… runs to help him. One man phones to the
5		hospital. Uh……. (pause: 10 seconds) uh…one man one…the…his bicycle
6		the…the hospital. (give up and say in Thai 'I don't know what to say more'
7		and smile).
8	R:	Is that all?
9	P:	Yes.

Student P
Task 3: Topic description

1	R:	Please describe the word 'vegetarianism'.
2	P:	I think 'vegetarianism' is is important someone. I think that it helps
3		myself. That's very good. Uh…my brother likes to eat vegetable. He can
4		eat everyday. Some…sometime he talks with me, he eats meal…M-E-A-L
5		and he's sick. He cannot eat meal. He can eat vegetable. Uh…….(pause:
6		10seconds) vegetable…sometime I eat vegetable I feel freshy.
7	R:	Uh…huh. Anything else?
8	P:	(pause 7 seconds)……. Vegetable….*Mun* (In English, "it") helps myself
9		good. Nothing else. (shake her head)
10	R:	Ok. That's all.

Students P and B
Task 4: Conversation task

1	R:	Let's talk about the topic you've got.
2	B:	Hello! Nam
3	P:	Oh! Hello! Aof.
4	B:	That sea is very beautiful. (use hand to show the sea)
5	P:	Yes, the sea that is very beautiful.
6	B:	Oh! What do they eat today?
7	P:	Do we…? (laugh) I want to play banana boat.
8	B:	Oh! …….. (pause: 5 seconds) I think play volleyball in the beach. Do you
9		think? What do you think?
10	P:	That's good. I want to play.
11	B:	Uh… where?
12	P:	Where?
13	B:	Where….? Where do we…uh…… (pause: 5 seconds).
14	P:	That's here the beach. That's here Pattaya.
15	B:	So good. I want to go to Patong beach.
16	P:	I don't know when I go.
17	B:	Pattaya Pattaya. I…this time I am very hungry. You are hungry?
18	P:	Yes.
19	B:	Where do you go?
20	P:	Restaurant.
21	B:	Um... That's good. What...?
22	P:	What to eat, 'Tom Yum Kung'.
23	B:	Oh! I …um……. (pause: 10 seconds)
24	P:	Do you like something?
25	B:	Um…*Nam Phrig Pla Too* (in English, "hot shrimp paste sauce and fried
26		mackerel")
27	P:	This is to eat.
28	B:	I want to eat *Nam Phrig Pla Too*.
29		(Both of them laugh)
30	P:	The restaurant this have *Nam Phrig Pla Too*?
31	B:	I think they have.
32	P:	Ok.Ok. *Nam Phrig Pla Too*
33		Both of them say in Thai, *Mai Mee Arai Pood Laew* (in English, "We
34		can't say anything more")
35	R:	That's all.

(2) Student B

Task1: Oral interview

1	R:	I'm going to ask you about King Mongkut Institute of Technology North
2		Bangkok. One, what's the campus like? What's KMITNB like?
3	B	It's like….(pause: 3 seconds) I think……(pause: 5 seconds)
4	R:	What is our university like?
5	B:	University?
6	R:	Yes. What is it like?

7	B:	I'm proud to learn in this university.
8	R:	Because…?
9	B:	Because this university …… (pause: 10 seconds)
10	R:	Ok. What do you think about KMITNB? I mean for example, the places ,
11		buildings.
12	B:	No, it… Again again.
13	R:	What do you think about KMITNB? What is it like?
14	B:	(pause: 3 seconds)…… Like everything in KMITNB.
15	R:	Ok. The second one, what do you like about KMITNB?
16	B:	Education and my friends.
17	R:	Your friends. What don't you like about KMITNB?
18	B:	It's small place.
19	R:	Uh...Huh. Right. Ok. Where do you like going on the campus?
20	B:	Nonthaburi.
21	R:	No. Where do you like to go to in our university? The place you like to go
22		to.
23	B:	Coffee shop.
24	R:	Coffee shop.
25	B:	Ping Ka Pong.
26	R:	What are your classes like?
27	B:	My friends.
28	R:	What are your classes like? I mean the courses, the courses that you take.
29		What are they like?
30	B:	In courses?
31	R:	What do you think about your courses?
32	B:	The…the course is very interesting.
33	R:	All right. Right now we are going to talk about your free time. What are
34		your hobbies?
35	B:	Collect stamps.
36	R:	Collecting stamps, right?
37	B:	Yes.
38	R:	Anything else?
39	B:	And listen to music, watch television.
40	R:	What are your favourite sports?
41	B:	Football.
42	R:	Just only football?
43	B:	Yes.
44	R:	Uh…huh. How often do you play football?
45	B:	Three times… uh… two or three…
46	R:	Per week. Two or three times per week. When do you go to the fitness
47		centre?
48	B:	No.
49	R:	Do you know the fitness centre?
50	B:	Never. I don't go.
51	R:	You said that you like playing football. When do you go to the football
52		field?
53	B:	(pause: 5 seconds)……
54	R:	What time?

55	B:	Evening.
56	R:	What do you do in your free time?
57	B:	Watching TV.
58	R:	Besides collecting stamps, watching TV, what…?
59	B:	Listen to music and radio.
60	R:	Listen to the radio, right. Ok. Next, the question about your family. How
61		many people are in your family?
62	B:	(pause: 5 seconds)…….. {use hand to count his family members}… Six
63		people.
64	R:	Who are they?
65	B:	Three brothers and one sister.
66	R:	And…?
67	B:	One father and one mother (laugh).
68	R:	Ah! I know. Including your father and mother. Ok. What does your father
69		do?
70	B:	Sell clothes in fashion, boutique.
71	R:	Clothes, right? Where?
72	B:	Market in… store.
73	R:	In department store?
74	B:	Yes in department store.
75	R:	What does your mother do?
76	B:	Same.
77	R:	The same?
78	B:	The same father.
79	R:	They own the business, right? Or they own a shop?
80	B:	Yes.
81	R:	Ok. What is your mother like?
82	B:	(pause: 3 seconds)…. She's like my sister.
83	R:	So she's like your sister. Anything else?
84	B:	She long hair.
85	R:	She has long hair.
86	B:	And…she…… (pause: 10 seconds) (give up and stop talking).
87	R:	Is that all?
88	B:	Yes.

Student B
Task2: Cartoon description

1	R:	Please describe this cartoon strip.
2	B:	This paper is four pictures in the paper. One paper…a man rides a bicycle
3		in the road…uh...in big city. Um…Picture 2 the man who rides bicycle
4		crashes the big car in road. Picture 3 a man who rides a bicycle is died and
5		the man who drives a big big car…uh… go come to see the man who
6		rides a bicycle. Picture 4 the man who drives a big big car telephones
7		telephones…uh... police station…police station…contact the hospital
8		come come help the man who rides a bicycle.
9	R:	Is that all?
10	B:	Ok.

Student B
Task3: Topic description

1	R:	Let's start. Please describe the word 'vegetarianism'.
2	B:	I think about "vegetarianism". Uh...it's the group of people like temple
3		eat…ah… vegetable. No eat milk milk. This group of people go the
4		every day I think. This group I think …it….(pause: 5seconds) they have
5		a...they have very kind…I……(pause:5 seconds) ….I…uh……(pause: 5
6		seconds) vegetarianism… (stop talking).
7	R:	Anything else?
8	B:	Finish.
9	R:	Ok.

Appendix M
A Sample of Post-Speaking Task Transcription

(1) Student P

Task1: Oral interview

1	R:	The first thing you have to do is answer five questions for each topic and
2		there are three topics altogether. The first one is about King Mongkut
3		Institute of Technology North Bangkok. The second one is about free time
4		and the third one is about your family. Try to explain what you want. Ok.
5		Let's start. The first one, what's the campus like?
6	P:	It's like funny land.
7	R:	It's like the funny land?
8	P:	Because have…uh… it has a lot of people.
9	R:	It has a lot of people.
10	P:	Uh…and he has a different people different.
11	R:	People different. All right. What do you like about KMINB?
12	P:	I like library and computer room.
13	R:	Library and computer room. Why?
14	P:	I is I can find the information.
15	R:	Information.
16	P:	And books.
17	R:	Books.
18	P:	Yes.
19	R:	All right. What don't you like about KMITNB?
20	P:	The river be across of the canteen.
21	R:	The river?
22	P:	Yes.
23	R:	What what happens?
24	P:	It's bad smell and dirty.
25	R:	Bad smell and dirty, right in your view or opinion.
26	P:	Yes.
27	R:	Anything else that you don't like about KMITNB?
28	P:	Um…um…I don't have.
29	R:	You don't have. Nothing else, right? Question four, where do you like
30		going on the campus?
31	P:	Um…but now I like to go to Ping-Ka-Pong.
32	R:	Ping-Ka-Pong? What is Ping-Ka-Pong?
33	P:	It's a coffee shop.
34	R:	It's a coffee shop.
35	P:	Yes.
36	R:	Why do you like to go to Ping-Ka-Pong?
37	P:	I can meet the friends.
38	R:	You can meet your friends there, right. Ok. What are your classes like?
39	P:	Um…the classes like um….I I don't know.
40	R:	You don't know?
41	P:	Yes, but I think it's like um…it's a big room.
42	R:	It's a big room?

43	P:	Yes. And have have a lot of friends.
44	R:	A lot of friends there, right?
45	P:	Yes.
46	R:	I mean your courses.
47	P:	Your courses?
48	R:	Yes. What are your classes like? The courses you take.
49	P:	Uh…subjects?
50	R:	Yes, the subjects.
51	P:	Oh! Um….before I like Dynamics but now I like Equipment.
52	R:	Equipment?
53	P:	Equipment Design.
54	R:	Equipment Design? What do you study in Equipment Design?
55	P:	Uh…the building?
56	R:	About the building?
57	P:	Oh! Uh…uh…the building 88.
58	R:	You mean the place you study, right? I mean what are your subjects like,
59		Equipment something?
60	P:	Equipment?
61	R:	Yes, so you study about…
62	P:	About design…um…design equipment…uh…uh…example, um…
63		conveyor about conveyor.
64	R:	About conveyor, right? What is conveyor?
65	P:	(Smile) Um…um…to use a a hand handle.
66	R:	To use handle?
67	P:	Um…it's it's name Material handling.
68	R:	Material handling?
69	P:	Yes. Uh…to pass pass the something to this place.
70	R:	Alright? So it's the conveyor. Ok. Thanks a lot. Let's turn to your free time.
71		What are your hobbies?
72	P:	Um…Cross stitch and sometimes I….uh…
73	R:	Cross stitch, right?
74	P:	Cross stitch and knit…knitting.
75	R:	Yes, knitting. Anything else?
76	P:	No, but now I have two.
77	R:	Alright. What are your favourite sports?
78	P:	Favourite sports? I like swimming.
79	R:	You like swimming.
80	P:	Yes.
81	R:	Why?
82	P:	Um…um…I I want to to to slim.
83	R:	To be slim.
84	P:	To be slim. But now I I am fat.
85	R:	How often do you play sports?
86	P:	Um….once per week.
87	R:	Once per week.
88	P:	Yes. Every every Friday.
89	R:	When do you go to the swimming pool?
90	P:	Friday about…um…5 pm.

91	R:	About 5 pm in the evening, right?
92	P:	Yes.
93	R:	Is it indoor or outdoor?
94	P:	Outdoor.
95	R:	Outdoor swimming pool.
96	P:	At The Mall The Mall Department Store.
97	R:	Uh…huh. What do you do in your free time?
98	P:	Free time? Um…usually, I watching TV and I'm …uh… listening to radio.
99	R:	Listening to the radio, right? About your family. How many people are in
100		your family?
101	P:	Four people.
102	R:	Four people?
103	P:	Yes.
104	R:	Who are they?
105	P:	Father, mother, my brother and me.
106	R:	Uh…huh.
107	P:	My family is small.
108	R:	Your family is small. All right. What does your father do?
109	P:	Uh…my father is…uh… paralytic, P-A-R-A-L-Y-T-I-C.
110	R:	Paralytic.
111	P:	He can't move.
112	R:	He can't move, right? What does your mother do?
113	P:	My mother is farmer.
114	R:	She's a farmer.
115	P:	Yes.
116	R:	What does your mother like?
117	P:	It looks like?
118	R:	Yes.
119	P:	She has a long hair and fat. Um…she has…uh…black hair and uh…skin
120		black…um…and he she short. Yes.
121	R:	Is she kind to you or how about her nature?
122	P:	What is nature?
123	R:	For example, she's a good person or she's very kind.
124	P:	Oh! She's big…she's big smile.
125	R:	She always smiles.
126	P:	And friendly.
127	R:	Friendly. All right.

Student P
Task2: Cartoon description

1	R:	Please describe the picture, the cartoon strips. Ok. Let's start.
2	P:	Um…picture 1 I can see the man rides bicycle to the three ways. Uh…I'm
3		sorry the three ways. The three ways, what is it called?
4	R:	Ok. The junction, right?
5	P:	Yes, the junction. And the man rides the bicycle to the junction. Right?
6		And but now the the bus the bus…um…just pass the junction, Right?
7	R:	The junction.

8	P:	The junction. And the picture 2 the the the man rides bicycle to attack the
9		bottom the bus…um…the bus.
10	R:	The bottom of the bus, right?
11	P:	Yes. And he he he he falls the the he falls from the bus. Ur-ie! (Thai And
12		exclamation of self-correction)… no, no, he falls, he falls from the bicycle.
13		And the picture 3 the driver driver of bus, he he he running to to to look to
14		look him. And the driver driver calls to the hospital to help him. And the
15		van hospital is coming to help him. And I can see the picture 4…um…the
16		hospital man. I don't know he's a doctor, I don't know…uh…I can call him
17		the hospital man?
18	R:	The hospital man? Actually, perhaps he's the hospital officer or perhaps I'm
19		not sure he's a male nurse.
20	P:	Male nurse?
21	R:	Yeah.
22	P:	I can see the male nurses three people to help him to to…um{ use hands to
23		show "lift and carry"} hang hang.
24	R:	Yeah. Yeah. To pick him up or to lift or carry him, right?
25	P:	Yeah. Yeah. To pick him up and carry to the bus… Ur-ie! The van hospital
26		go to the hospital.
27	R:	All right. By the hospital van, right? Ok.
28	P:	Yes.
29	R:	Anything else?
30	P:	No.

Student P
Task3: Topic description

1	R:	For this task, you are going to describe or talk about the topic, it's like the
2		topic description. Choose one from here and try to explain the concept or
3		the definition of this word in English. All right. Choose one from here.
4	P:	Vegetarian vegetarianism.
5	R:	Vegetarianism. Yeah.
6	P:	Vegetarianism?
7	R:	What do you think about vegetarianism?
8	P:	Um…It means the people right to eat vegetable. And the Thai Thai call
9		Munng-Sa-Vi-Rus (in English, "vegetarianism"). Uh…I I think when Thai
10		people eat vegetable very much, it to to help him to help health and to help
11		a good health. Uh…huh. And some sometime I I I I I eat vegetable.
12		Sometime I eat vegetable which which…um….um…I don't know uh…Thai
13		call *Nam Phrig Nam Phrig*…uh…uh… I I usually I eat vegetable with *Nam*
14		*Prig, Nam Phrig Pla Too , Nam Phrig Ta Dang.* (in English, "chilli
15		paste")
16	R:	Many kinds of vegetable, right?
17	P:	Uh…anything? Any Any.
18	R:	Could you give me the examples?
19	P:	Examples. Um…spinach, spinach…um…cabbage, cabbage,
20		carrot…um…um… I I don't know it looks like{ use hands to show a
21		cucumber} it's a tall about tall is…uh…and round. No it's not round.

22		It's…um…it's like rectangular.
23	R:	Rectangular? Circle or oval. What colour is it?
24	P:	Green. It's green.
25	R:	Bean?
26	P:	No.No. No. No. Uh…it's a…um…tall not not not long. It's short about this
27		{use her hands to show the size and shape of cucumber}. Um…it's green.
28		It has it's a when when you eat when you eat you can feel it cool.
29	R:	Uh…huh.
30	P:	I'm sorry. I don't know.
31	R:	Is it morning glory?
32	P:	No. No. In Thai, Tang-Kwa.
33	R:	Cucumber?
34	P:	Yeah! Oh!
35	R:	It's difficult, right? I see. Anything else that you want to talk about
36		vegetarianism?
37	P:	Um…um…No, not have. Nothing.
38	R:	Ok.

Students P and B
Task 4: Conversation task

1	R:	Today is a holiday. You plan to go out with your closed friend but it started
2		to rain. Talk to your friend about the things you can do instead of going out.
3		The activities you can do together. Ok. Let start your conversation.
4	P:	Aof, today is a holiday. I have plan to go to…um…funny land. But now
5		today it's raining.
6	B:	Where's funny land?
7	P:	Um…*Suan Siam*.
8	B:	*Eu* (Thai particle expressing agreement or approval).
9	P:	But now it's raining.
10	B:	Um….
11	P:	What what can I do?
12	B:	Uh…now raining I I think I not go.
13	P:	Not go. Um…uh…I…Um...I I think I…um…we we can play games.
14	B:	Play games?
15	P:	Play games. Game computer.
16	B:	Computer?
17	P:	Uh…it's a game online. You know?
18	B:	That that's a good idea.
19	P:	Umm.
20	B:	But I I don't like play game online. I like play computer game manual, not
21		online.
22	P:	Oh! It it's like Play two (Play station two)?
23	B:	Yes. Yes. Yes. Uh…huh. I don't like online game.
24	P:	What's the kind of game?
25	B:	Um…
26	P:	Action?
27	B:	Action and Sport Sport games.

28	P:	Action. I I like Action Pung Pung Pung Pung (imitate gun's sound).
29	B:	You. You said.
30	P:	Um…uh…today …um…uh…What what do you want to eat?
31	B:	Um….
32	P:	Um…but but now is a afternoon. Have have a luch?
33	B:	You you can do?
34	P:	Yes, I I can I can to cook cooking.
35	B:	I believe you. I…
36	P:	Yes. I can to cook. Um…for example, *Tom Yum Kung* and it's fried rice.
37	B:	Uh…huh.
38	P:	And omelette.
39	B:	I think you do fried rice and omelette with me.
40	P:	Ok. But now …um….I to cook the fried rice and omelette. Ok?
41	B:	Um…I…uh…I eat eat before to play game.
42	P:	Before or after?
43	B:	Before. Eat eat before.
44	P:	Before before before play game. To eat before play game?
45	B:	Yes. Uh…huh.
46	P:	But…Um… then I I go to the kitchen to cook.
47	B:	Yes.
48	P:	The food for have lunch.
49	B:	Uh…huh. Uh…this time I go to um…watching TV.
50	P:	Ok. Watching TV.
51	B:	You work you do kitchen. Ok?
52	P:	No. Yeah. Yeah. Yeah. Yeah. And what what the what do you want to
53		drink, water, orange juice, milk,…um…Coca-cola?
54	B:	Coca-cola.
55	P:	Ok.
56	B:	Um…I wait at…uh…watching TV room.
57	P:	Ok. Ok. Um…the…um…then I I go to the kitchen.
58	B:	Ok.
59	R:	Is that all?
60	B:	Ok.

Student B
Task 1: Oral interview

1	R:	I'm going to ask you about fifteen questions. Please speak loudly.
2		Let's start. The first one is about KMITNB. What is the campus like?
3	B:	My my university? I think my campus is like second home.
4		Ur-ie! …second home.
5	R:	Second home?
6	B:	But it means it not mean old object, second home, it's not mean. I
7		think my campus has everything everything I like everything in campus.
8	R:	You like everything in the campus?
9	B:	Yes.
10	R:	Uh…huh. So you answer the second question already for 'What do you
11		like about your campus?' and you said you like everything in the

12		campus. So what don't you like about KMITNB?
13	B:	One thing I don't like…uh…the river cross cross KMITNB.
14	R:	The river?
15	B:	Dirty and bad smell. I don't like.
16	R:	You agreed with Nam, right?
17	B:	Yes. Yes.
18	R:	It's dirty. Anything else that you don't like about KMITNB?
19	B:	I I. No
20	R:	No more. Where do you like going on the campus?
21	B:	I like go to the library. Uh…Ping Ka Pong Coffee Shop.
22		Um…uh…uh…computer centre. Three three place. Three place I like
23		go to.
24	R:	Three places? What are your classes like?
25	B:	I like my friends and I I like my subject that I learn.
26	R:	What subject? Could you give me examples?
27	B:	Uh…it's Design Equipment…um… and the subject about design…
28		uh… material handling.
29	R:	Material handling?
30	B:	Material handling…um…is the major.
31	R:	Your major?
32	B:	Yes.
33	R:	So you study about Material handling, right? Ok. About your free time.
34		What are your hobbies?
35	B:	My hobby?…uh…collecting stamps.
36	R:	Collecting stamps.
37	B:	I collect…um…uh…I collect since I I ten years old.
38	R:	You are ten years old. So how many stamps do you have now?
39	B:	Many. I many I collect…uh…uh…past…uh…um…I collect a long
40		time. Uh…huh.
41	R:	For a long time. Ok. What are your favourite sports?
42	B:	My favourite?…uh… play football.
43	R:	Play football?
44	B:	Yes. And swimming.
45	R:	And swimming. Ok. How often do you play football and swimming?
46	B:	Two or three per week.
47	R:	Two or three times per week, right?
48	B:	Yes.
49	R:	When do you go to the football field or the fitness centre?
50	B:	Football I go play at around home.
51	R:	What time?
52	B:	What time? Um…um…around 4 or 5 pm.
53	R:	4 or 5 pm. All right. And what do you do in you free time?
54	B:	Watching TV and play computer game.
55	R:	Play computer game at home, right? Not in the Internet café.
56	B:	Yes, at home. I don't like play in the Internet café.
57	R:	Uh…huh or go out from your home?
58	B:	Internet café's loudly. Sound loudly.
59	R:	About your family. How many people are in your family?

60	B:	Five six six people.
61	R:	And who who are they?
62	B:	One, my mother. Two, my sister. Three, me. Four, my father. Five, my
63		brother and six, my sister.
64	R:	Your sister. So your parents have four children.
65	B:	Yes. And you are…
66	R:	The first one.
67	B:	The first one.
68	R:	Ok. What does your father do?
69	B:	Um…it's my my own business. Um…sell clothes and…uh…boutique,
70		fashion women.
71	R:	Fashion women? Female fashion? The fashion clothes for women?
72	B:	Yes. Yes.
73	R:	All right? What does your mother do?
74	B:	Um….same the same.
75	R:	The same. Like your father?
76	B:	Yes.
77	R:	Last question, what is your mother like?
78	B:	Mother's like? She's long hair.
79	R:	She has long hair.
80	B:	Long hair, black hair and black eyes. Um…she's tanned skin.
81	R:	She has tanned skin like you, right?
82	B:	Yes. Yes. Like like me and she no tall and no short.
83	R:	No tall and no short? Medium..?
84	B:	Medium medium. And she no fat and no thin. Um…medium body.
85	R:	She's not fat and not thin?
86	B:	Yes.
87	R:	How about her nature?
88	B:	Nature? She's friendly and to every people.
89	R:	To every people? To everyone, right?
90	B:	Yes.
91	R:	Ok.

Student B
Task 2: Cartoon description

1	R:	Could you please describe the cartoon strips? Let's start.
2	B:	Uh…huh.
3	R:	Tell me the story from the cartoon strips.
4	B:	Ok. Picture 1, I see the the man rides bicycle in in on the road. Picture 2, the
5		man who rides bicycle, it's can't see the truck. Uh…the man who rides
6		bicycle crash the truck.
7	R:	Crash the truck?
8	B:	Yes, crash truck. Picture 3, the man who rides bicycle…uh…injure injure
9		and the man who rides a truck he he he sees the man who rides the bicycle.
10		Picture 4, uh… time…uh…I I think…um…have a people telephone at the
11		hospital. Uh…uh…time, the hospital sends an ambulance comes…uh…the
12		man rides the bicycle injure. (Stop talking since he didn't know what to say)

13	R:	To…
14	B:	To...and then I think he's not died.(He skipped what he want to say here)
15	R:	He's not died because someone takes him to the hospital, right?
16	B:	Yes.
17	R:	Anything else about the picture that you would like to tell me?
18	B:	No.
19	R:	No. Ok.

Student B
Task 3: Topic description

1	R:	Let's talk about 'Marriage'. Describe or tell me the definition of marriage in your opinion?
2	B:	Uh…marriage I think it's a…um…the same love story. The love
3		story…um…start at the two people…uh…um…they meet meet
4		meet …um…meet meet… uh…um…. With the love story I I think
5		it's…uh…happy feeling and who's them…uh…love… and and ….um…I
6		see I think it's a…they have the family. And I plan a future I then think it's
7		a good good in my life. My life marriage and um….I think if two people
8		not love with, I think the marriage is not.. not marriage.
9		Uh...huh….Um...um ...um. I nothing.
10	R:	That's all. Ok.

Appendix N
A Sample of Retrospective verbal protocol Transcription

Retrospective Verbal _Pre-Speaking Tasks

Student P

Task 1 (rec 16)

P: I don't understand "campus".
R: It's our university. What are you trying to say next?
P: I don't understand its meaning but I try to look at the content surrounding.
R: You understand that what place do you like?
P: Yes.
R: Do you really mean it?
P: Yes, it's so smell.
P: This sentence I'd like to say the computer center.
R: You only said computer, is it computer room?
P: Yes.
R: What happens here?
P: The problem is I'm not sure how to use the same word which having two meaning. We can translate to similar and like, so sometimes I confused.
R: What is this name for?
P: My favourite subject.
R: Do you have any hobby?
P: None.
P: I don't know the vocabulary of "week".
R: Pardon.
P: Week.
R: What are you trying to say?
P: I do not stay with my father.
R: Do you stay with your mom?
P: Yes, my mom and my younger sister.
R: your father?
P: He's paralytic.
R: This question is about the carrier.
P: She used to work hard.
P: I look like her.
R: Ok, what are you trying to say?
P: I'd like to say that his hair is black but I think in Thai first.
R: Is there any problem in speaking English?
P: I think I know some vocabulary but I feel excited when speak for example I know the word "week" but when I need to speak, I forget it.
R: OK.

Task 2 (rec 20)

P

P: I try to say that one man's riding the bicycle and there's the car crashing which is accident. But I don't know the vocabulary of "accident".
R: You do not know the word "accident".
P: I try to say that he fell of the bicycle but I don't know the vocabulary. Somebody helps him by calling the ambulance. But I don't know the vocabulary of "ambulance".
R: So what's the problem?
P: I think in Thai not English.
R: Don't know?
P: Yes.
R: Is it difficult?
P: No.
R: What's the problem?
P: I think the vocabulary. Some Thai vocabulary dos not translate to English. Like I try to say that he calls the ambulance but I only think of "call".

Task 3 (rec 21)

P

R: Please comment the word "vegetarianism".
P: I'd like to say that it's good for health but I'm confused with "meal".
R: Meal?
P: Meat?
R: Yes.
P: He cannot eat meat because he can't breath. I don't know how to say "cannot breathe" so I stop speaking.
R: What're you trying to say?
P: It feels fresh when eat vegetable because of good digestion but I can't speak in English
R: What do you want to say?
P: I have nothing to say.
R: What do you think about this task?
P: I don't know the vocabulary even it's in everyday use like "cannot breath and digestion".

Task 4 (rec 17)

P and B

B: I'd like to ask that what we shall do today.
R: What is your question here? Where or something?
B: I'd like to ask "Where?"
R: Where do you want to go?
R: How about this?
P: I don't know where it is and don't know how to get there.

B: I don’t know how to ask that “what shall we have?”.
R: How about this? Do you know the word?
B: I don’t know how to say so I stopped talking.
R: Pla-too, is it food topic?
B: Yes, food.
R: How do you feel about your speaking English?
P: It’s funny.
R: Funny? Is it difficult?
B: No, but I don’t know how to say in English?
P: Me too.
B: I think in Thai not in English and I cannot say it in sentences so I speak Thai.
R: And you?
P: I don’t know what to say?
B: I waited for his question but he does not ask. I’ve no question too because I don’t know what to say.
P: Just a question because I don’t know how to speak.
B: I don’t know what to say.
R: You do not know the vocabulary?
B: I can’t rearrange the sentence.
R: Ok. Anything else?
B: Nothing.

Student B

Task 1 (rec 15)

B: I feel excited at the beginning.
R: Do you understand the question?
B: Yes, but I do not know the vocabulary so I can’t answer your question.
R: How about this?
B: I’d like to answer but I don’t know how to speak.
R: The question is “what do you like?”
B: Education.
B: I’d like to say that the university is too small but I don’t know the vocabulary.
R: Don’t you know the vocabulary?
R: Why did you say “free time” (how often do you play sports?)
B: I don’t know what to say so I said free time.
R: Um. Free time.
B: I’d like to say “around 4-5 pm”.
R: What are you trying to say here?
B: I don’t know what to say in English but my answer is I’m the eldest son.
R: What are you trying to say here?
B: I want to say that selling boutique fashion clothing for women like car booth at the department store but I don’t know the exact word. So I tried to explain it.
R: Do you mean “department store”?
B: Yes.
R: I’d like to say that my mom is like my younger sister.
B: I’d like to say that my sister is friendly but I don’t know the vocabulary.
R: Do you think what’re your problem?

B: I don’t know the vocabulary. I have to think in Thai first, then I translate into English.
R: So you do not know the vocabulary.

Task 2 (rec 18)

B

B: I’d like to say that there’s a man walking on the street. Here’s a man who is riding a bicycle and accidentally crash the truck. The picture three is that the truck driver is looking at a man who is riding a bicycle.
R: Big car. What about “Big car”?
B: In the picture 4, Big car means truck. I’d like to say that the truck driver call the police to cooperate with the ambulance to help the cyclist.
R: Ok. What’s your difficulty in speaking English?
B: It’s not so difficult and exciting like the previous one.
R: What about vocabulary?
B: It’s ok.
R: Ok.

Task 3 (rec 19)
B

R: Please talk about the chosen vocabulary.
B: This group of people likes to eat vegetable not meat. I’d like to say that they like to go to temple and they have a peace mind but I don’t know the vocabulary so I stop speaking.
R: The main problem is vocabulary.
B: So I got struck with the word “peace”.
R: So you stop speaking.
B: And I don’t know another vocabulary.
R: What’s the problem here?
B: I don’t know the vocabulary and I can’t arrange the sentence. When I got struck with one word, I can’t continue speaking.
R: Ok.

Appendix O

Inter-coder Reliability Coefficient of Speaking Tasks and Retrospective Verbal Protocols

	No. of agreement	No. of disagreement	Reliability
Pre-speaking tasks	90	8	0.92
Post-speaking tasks	256	19	0.93

Inter-coder Reliability Coefficient of Retrospective Verbal Protocols

	No. of agreement	No. of disagreement	Reliability
Pre-speaking tasks	22	5	0.81
Post-speaking tasks	51	5	0.91

Appendix P

Consent form for the student

I_____ (student's name) agree to participate in the study entitled "The effects of teaching communication strategies to Thai learners of English" conducted by Mrs. Tiwaporn Kongsom. The purpose of the study is fully explained to me by Mrs. Tiwaporn Kongsom. I understand what is being asked of me, should I have any questions and I am aware that I can contact or ask any questions to Mrs. Tiwaporn Kongsom at any time. I also understand that I am free not to participate in the study and quit the study at any time I want and that no reference to my name or my identity will be made in any phase of this research study.

Name of the student: _____

Signature of the student: _____

Date: _____

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