EFFECTS OF COMMUNICATION STRATEGY INSTRUCTION ON ENGLISH SPEAKING ABILITY AND CONFIDENCE OF EFL UNDERGRADUATES

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ผลของการสอนกลวิธีการสื่อสารที่มีต่อความสามารถแล้วความมั่นใจในการพูดภาษาอังกฤษ
ของนิสิตระดับอุดมศึกษาที่ใช้ภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาต่างประเทศ

นางสาวกรพินธ์ ผรณาปิติ

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กรพินธ์ ผรณาปิติ : ผลของการสอนกลวิธีการสื่อสารที่มีต่อความสามารถแล้วความมั่นใจ ในการพูดภาษาอังกฤษของนิสิตระดับอุดมศึกษาที่ใช้ภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาต่างประเทศ (EFFECTS OF COMMUNICATION STRATEGY INSTRUCTION ON ENGLISH SPEAKING ABILITY AND CONFIDENCE OF EFL UNDERGRADUATES) อ.ที่ปรึกษาวิทยานิพนธ์หลัก: รศ. ดร. ปัญชลี วาสนสมสิทธิ์ , 248 หน้า.

งานวิจัยนี้มีวัตถุประสงค์สามประการคือ (1) เพื่อศึกษาผลของรูปแบบการสอนกลวิธีการ สื่อสารต่อความสามารถในการพูดภาษาอังกฤษ (2) เพื่อศึกษาผลของรูปแบบการสอนกลวิธีการ สื่อสารต่อความมั่นใจในการพูดภาษาอังกฤษและ (3) เพื่อสำรวจเจตคติของนิสิตที่มีต่อรูปแบบการ สอนกลวิธีการสื่อสารที่ได้พัฒนาขึ้น กลุ่มตัวอย่างเป็นนิสิตปริญญาตรีจำนวน 34 คน ซึ่งเรียน บริหารธุรกิจเป็นวิชาเอกและได้ลงทะเบียนเรียนวิชา Experiential English I ในภาคการศึกษาที่ หนึ่ง ปีการศึกษา 2556 ที่จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย

การเก็บข้อมูลได้ดำเนินการโดยใช้ข้อสอบวัดผลสัมฤทธิ์ในการประเมินความสามารถใน การพูดและแบบสอบถามความมั่นใจในการพูดภาษาอังกฤษก่อนและหลังการทดลองโดยนำผล คะแนนเฉลี่ยของนิสิตที่ได้มาเปรียบเทียบโดยใช้ paired-samples t-test และ Cohen's d เพื่อวัด ความแตกต่างของผลคะแนนและขนาดอิทธิพล นอกจากนี้หลังการทดลองยังได้สำรวจเจตคติของ นิสิตที่มีต่อรูปแบบการสอนดังกล่าวโดยใช้แบบสอบถามเจตคติ โดยใช้สถิติเชิงพรรณนาและการ วิเคราะห์เนื้อหาในการวิเคราะห์ข้อมูลเชิงคุณภาพ

ผลการวิจัยพบว่าผลคะแนนการพูดภาษาอังกฤษก่อนและหลังการทดลองมีความแตกต่าง อย่างมีนัยสำคัญทางสถิติที่ระดับ 0.05 และมีขนาดอิทธิพลปรากฏขนาดอิทธิพลใหญ่ (d = -0.95) ส่วนความมั่นใจในการพูดภาษาอังกฤษนั้น ผลการวิจัยไม่พบความแตกต่างอย่างมีนัยสำคัญทาง สถิติ นอกจากนี้ผลการวิจัยยังแสดงให้เห็นว่านิสิตมีเจตคติด้านบวกต่อรูปแบบการสอนนี้

ผลการวิจัยแสดงให้เห็นว่ารูปแบบการสอนที่พัฒนาขึ้นเป็นรูปแบบที่มีประสิทธิผล รูปแบบหนึ่งซึ่งสามารถนำไปใช้ในการพัฒนาความสามารถและความมั่นใจในการพูดภาษาอังกฤษ สำหรับนิสิตระดับอุดมศึกษาที่ใช้ภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษาต่างประเทศได้

สาขาวิชา ภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษานานาชาติ	ลายมือชื่อนิสิต ....
ปีการศึกษา 2557	ลายมือชื่อ อ.ที่ปรึกษาหลัก ....

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KEYWORDS: COMMUNICATION / STRATEGIES / INSTRUCTION / ENGLISH / SPEAKING / CONFIDENCE

KORAPIN PARANAPITI: EFFECTS OF COMMUNICATION STRATEGY INSTRUCTION ON ENGLISH SPEAKING ABILITY AND CONFIDENCE OF EFL UNDERGRADUATES. ADVISOR: ASSOC. PROF. PUNCHALEE WASANASOMSITHI, Ph.D., 248 pp.

This study was conducted to fulfill three objectives: (1) to investigate the effects of the Communication Strategy Instruction (CSI) on speaking ability, (2) to examine the effects of the CSI on speaking confidence, and (3) to explore the attitudes of EFL undergraduates towards the CSI. The study was conducted with a sample group of 34 undergraduates majoring in Business Administration enrolling in the Experiential English I in the first semester of the academic year 2013 at Chulalongkorn University.

Data were collected using the English Speaking Test and English Speaking Confidence Scale before and after the instruction. The mean scores of the pre-assessment and the post-assessment were compared using paired-samples t-test and Cohen's d to measure the effects and the magnitudes of the effects caused by the instruction. Data were also collected using the Attitude Questionnaire after the instruction to explore EFL undergraduates' attitudes of towards the instruction, and analyzed by means of descriptive statistics and content analysis.

The findings regarding speaking ability revealed a statistically significant difference at 0.05 level, with a large effect size ($d = $ -0.95). However, no statistical significance was found when it came to confidence. Finally, the findings exhibited the students' positive attitudes towards the instruction.

Based on the findings, it is recommended that the developed instruction should be implemented as one of the effective means to enhance EFL undergraduates' speaking ability and confidence.

Field of Study:	English as an International Language	Student's Signature	....
		Advisor's Signature	....
Academic Year:	2014		

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

Speaking is considered a language skill that is mastered by learners of English as a foreign language (EFL) only with great difficulty, but its mastery is needed in many aspects of life. Generally, English speaking ability is important for oral communication (Florez, 1999; Foley, 2005; Zhang & Head, 2010), especially when oral communication occupies most places in daily communication both outside and inside language classrooms (Rivers, 1981; C. Williams, Stathis, & Gotsch, 2008). Communication can be enhanced by speaking skills to ensure comprehensibility. In a course of communication, when a speaker or a listener has problems communicating, it is possibly caused by lack of language proficiency or other variables. In such instance that the speaker is not able to make her/himself understood, the listener can speak or ask questions either for repetition or clarification. Without speaking, an intended message may not be conveyed correctly (Somsai & Intaraprasert, 2011), if not at all, leaving the listener disoriented and the intended message inaccurately or incompletely fulfilled.

In addition to its importance towards the aforementioned oral communication, English speaking ability is also important for self-perception, further education, and future profession. Zhang and Head's (2009) study showed that university students in the People's Republic of China where English is used as a foreign language desired to have an ability to speak good English because it rendered them a sense of self-confidence, a sense of personal achievement, a sense of self-fulfillment, as well as a

good chance to prepare for further education abroad. These Chinese university students also realized an importance of speaking good English for their future profession as it meant better opportunity in job seeking and advancement.

Despite its importance, speaking skill cannot be mastered by a majority of EFL learners for several reasons. For education providers, speaking skill is undervalued (Bygate, 2000). It was reported that EFL students' speaking ability had been neglected in their language education where other aspects of the language being linguistic knowledge (Al-Hebaish, 2012; Murphey, 2001; Thornbury, 2005), reading skill (Lemos Tello, 2010), and writing skill (C. Williams et al., 2008) occupied larger or complete distribution of class time.

For EFL learners, especially those who have not yet acquired linguistic competence (Lemos Tello, 2010), socio-cultural behavior norms can further cause them to avoid speaking to prevent making mistakes and facing embarrassment, which could lead to uncommunicativeness (Dwyer & Heller-Murphy, 1996). This deprives them of chances to practice and develop the skill which is difficult to practice outside language classrooms (H. D. Brown & Wen, 1994). Even within the language classroom, these learners may avoid speaking practice opportunity due to several reasons including their misperception that teachers may expect perfection in their language production (Gregersen, 2003; Oxford, 1999; Tsiplakides & Keramida, 2009), the ability which they are not confident in.

The lack of confidence not only obstructs effective communication (Al-Hebaish, 2012) but it also hinders the development of English speaking skill (Lemos Tello, 2010). As much as it is crucial to the development of English speaking skill, the sense of confidence is also crucial to the learning process (Al-Hebaish, 2012) because

of its direct influence on learners' readiness and willingness to communicate (Yashima, Zenuk-Nishide, & Shimizu, 2004) and participate in language class activities (Al-Sibai & Kebbe, 2005; Gregersen & Horwitz, 2002; Molberg, 2010). Confident language learners take risks participating in language class activities, and learn from their mistakes, resulting in improved language proficiency (Al-Hebaish, 2012). Without confidence, language learners may not feel at ease to speak. Consequently, they try or participate less in language class activities, resulting in rather low achievement (Al-Sibai & Kebbe, 2005; Lemos Tello, 2010). The lack of confidence can also be a key factor for even higher proficiency or more motivated language learners. To illustrate, some learners having high proficiency in writing skill still face problems in communicating in a conversation due to the absence of confidence in speaking English (Abidin & Hosseini, 2012). Others may have a desire to communicate, but they lack necessary confidence (Wei & Motteram, 2006). Accordingly, there arises the need to enhance the sense of confidence at the same time as enhancing the skill of English speaking (Al-Hebaish, 2012).

The path to mastery of English speaking skill for EFL learners seems to be barricaded by not only their perceived linguistic incompetence but also their socio-cultural behavior norms (Dwyer & Heller-Murphy, 1996). According to Dwyer and Heller-Murphy (1996), EFL learners, especially those in eastern countries, are likely to preserve their words so as to prevent making mistakes which lead to embarrassment. It is also their culture not to initiate or interrupt others in a conversation. These Asian EFL learners tend to be stereotyped as being uncommunicative and passive, showing no active participation in their language activities, which, for some, partly results from their Confucian-heritage cultures

(Watkins & Biggs, 1996). Several studies cited by X. Cheng (2000) supporting this view, however, were conducted based on teacher perceptions. These teachers perceived their Asian English language learners to be quiet, inactive, shy, and unwilling to speak English whether to answer questions, discuss opinions, or work in pairs or groups.

On the contrary, in addition to Cheng's (2000) anecdotal evidence regarding personal teaching and researching experience, several other studies cited by X. Cheng (2000) revealed evidence against stereotype of Asian English language learners. These studies pointed out Asian English language learners' preferences over communicative class activities such as discussion and group work. Despite their socio-cultural behavior norms, X. Cheng (2000) added that these Asian learners of English can become active learners when the learning atmosphere is suitable. As a result, X. Cheng (2000) asserted that unsuitable teaching practice and students' language deficiency are indeed the two most important factors hindering development of English speaking skill rather than student socio-cultural behavior norms.

N. Liu and Littlewood (1997) pointed out that without confidence in their language ability, language learners will choose to avoid speaking in class. This will result in a lack of willingness to participate in class activities, to practice speaking, and cyclically to develop English speaking ability. Teaching language learners communication strategies such as those used for asking questions and participating in discussion is one teaching strategy suggested to enhance English speaking skill (N. Liu & Littlewood, 1997).

With the need to enhance English speaking ability as well as the sense of confidence in speaking English comes the concept of strategic competence, which is

one among the other aspects of communicative competence being linguistic, sociolinguistic, and discourse competence (Bailey, 2005; Canale, 1983; Nakatani, 2010). Strategic competence which focuses on language strategies used to compensate for gaps in skill and knowledge (Bailey, 2005) can be developed by using communication strategies as observable in attempts to enhance EFL learners' oral proficiency in many studies (Acton, 2001; Lam, 2006; Maleki, 2007; Motallebzadeh, 2009). Moreover, when communication strategies are explicitly taught, EFL learners are likely to gain more confidence in speaking English (G. Ellis & Sinclair, 1989; Wood, 2011), take more risk, and participate more in language classes, which in turn will gradually enhance their communicative competence (Lewis, 2011).

As in other EFL contexts, the importance of English speaking skill is apparent to English language learners in Thailand. For instance, almost all of the respondents in one survey (95%) agreed that speaking is important for career opportunity ("Learning English: Suan Dusit Poll," 2004), something which is not surprising as speaking is the most used skill in the workplace (Wiriyachitra, 2002). High speaking proficiency not only enhances personal and professional advancement, but it also promotes national business growth. This skill can also help the country as a whole as the Thai government emphasizes the need for Thais to be able to carry out business negotiations in English when dealing with foreign counterparts rather than having foreign translators involved (Ali, 2008; Grognet, 1997; Mackenzie, 2002). Simply put, a good command of English is not simply an additional advantage but a necessity (Wongsothorn, Hiranburana, & Chinnawongs, 2002), especially with the imminent approach of the ASEAN Economic Community (AEC) by the end of 2015. This was further affirmed by the policy on "English Speaking Year 2012" announced by the

Ministry of Education, a policy which encouraged school teachers and students to seek more opportunities to speak English and to develop their confidence in speaking it without being overly concerned with grammatical errors ("Thailand 2010: The year of English speaking," 2011).

Unfortunately, despite 12 years of English language education received in school, a large number of Thai EFL undergraduates are still unable to acquire mastery of English speaking (Mackenzie, 2002). According to Educational Testing Service (2011), TOEFL speaking scores of Thai EFL learners were placed at the bottom along with Cambodian, Laotian, and Vietnamese ASEAN counterparts. Although considering English speaking skill highly important, university students reported having problems in improving the skill (Rujipornwasin, 2004). They felt anxious when they had to participate in their English class speaking activities (Tasee, 2009). They hardly voluntarily spoke or orally answered questions unless they were called upon and were likely to answer with monosyllabic responses rather than a full or even fragmented sentence (D. Brown, 2006). Evidently, fear of speaking or making mistakes was reported as a major factor hindering the development of English speaking skill ("Learning English: Suan Dusit Poll," 2004).

It appears that Thai EFL learners' fear of speaking or making mistakes may be rationalized by Thai culture that face is important (Smyth, 2000). However, that rationale might be overgeneralized. According to Scovel (1994), Thai EFL learners are categorized as having a semi-Confucian culture. Although they are not as active taking risks in participating in language class activities as American students from a non-Confucian cultural background, they are not as passive as their East Asian language learner counterparts who are categorized as coming from a Confucian

cultural background. Apart from fear of speaking or making mistakes theoretically resulting from their socio-cultural behavior tendency for face saving, Thai learners are also instilled with the system of a hierarchical or social order (Casebeer & Miller, 1991, as cited in Saengboon, 2006). As a result, perceiving themselves as having a lower status than their teachers, Thai EFL learners tend not to initiate any kind of speaking. They hardly ever voluntarily speak, answer questions even though they are called upon, or ask questions even just for clarification or confirmation purposes. However, Cheng's (2000) conclusion that rather than learner socio-cultural behavior norms, language teaching practice is one of the most important factors influencing learner speaking or participation in language classroom is probably also shared in Thailand's EFL teaching context (Saengboon, 2006). Saengboon (2006) exemplified that Thai EFL learners will take risks actively participating in language class activities provided that they feel safe in their learning environment. This indicates that Thai EFL learners are capable of moving beyond their cultural stereotype to be active and communicative with suitable language teaching practice.

As can be anticipated, Thailand's English language education situation does not seem to be supportive of the development of the speaking ability or the speaking confidence of Thai EFL learners. Besides the fact that class time is limited, instructional activities generally focus on grammar study and comprehension tests. This leaves minimal or no time for the development of speaking skill (Mackenzie, 2002). Most language classrooms give little or no attention to speaking skill due to the fact that it has not been included in high-stake assessments (Wongsothorn et al., 2002). The importance of English speaking skill is unquestionable. However, assessing speaking skill can be tremendously cost-consuming as well as time-

consuming that it is not feasible to be included in a large-scale language proficiency test (Brindley, 2001) such as final examinations and admissions examinations to a higher level of education. Since the purpose of English language learning is to be able to communicate, negotiate, and carry out transactions, targeted knowledge involving how to use the language in communication and targeted skill involving communication strategies should be focused in the Thai tertiary educational English curriculum (Wiriyachitra, 2002) whether or not it will be assessed.

Several studies were conducted with Thai EFL learners at the university level (Chirdchoo, 2002; Chuanchaisit & Prapphal, 2009; Somsai & Intaraprasert, 2011; Wannaruk, 2003) to investigate their communication strategy use when communicating in English. The findings generally revealed the students' tendency to rely on nonlinguistic communication strategies such as mime, gestures, and facial expressions, and L1-based strategies such as foreignizing and switching unknown words or phrases into Thai, particularly in language learners with low language proficiency. On the contrary, language learners with high or moderate levels of language proficiency tend to employ risk-taking strategies (Chuanchaisit & Prapphal, 2009) or L2-based strategies (Wannaruk, 2003) such as circumlocution and approximation which help speakers better able to engage in the conversation and eventually arrive at an intended message instead of limiting their message to be conveyed only within their language limitation.

Although such findings seem to point out that communication strategies are already employed by these students, the effectiveness and spontaneity in communication strategy use can and should be further enhanced through training (Wannaruk, 2003). As a result, development and practice of communication strategy

use should be encouraged because each of the strategies can be of advantage in different situations (Somsai & Intaraprasert, 2011). When considering which strategies to teach, it can be stated that L2-based strategies (Wannaruk, 2003) and risk-taking strategies (Chuanchaisit & Prapphal, 2009) should be taught to language learners, especially those with low language proficiency in order to help them become better able to engage in the conversation and eventually arrive at an intended message instead of falling back to their limited proficiency where the intended message will be reduced, if not abandoned all together. Also, these learners should be taught the strategies explicitly to receive a chance to absorb and an access to the strategies clearly and systematically.

Attempts have been made to develop Thai EFL learners' communicative proficiency. Rattanapitakdhada's (2000) study yielded support to the teaching of communication strategies that it enhanced Thai EFL learners' communicative proficiency. While interaction strategies were taught to one group of her eleventh-graders, the strategies were not taught to the other group of her students. After six weeks of instruction, the students taught with the interaction strategies achieved significantly higher speaking scores than those of the other group of the students. She also observed a significant increase in the strategy use in the post-speaking proficiency test. Likewise, Danuwong (1993) explicitly taught one group of her ninth-graders the negotiation for meaning technique while the other group was taught the same strategies only implicitly. After eight weeks of instruction, the students with the explicit teaching technique had significantly higher achievement scores than those of the other group of the students.

Besides attempts to develop oral communicative proficiency, researchers and educators have tried to develop confidence in English speaking of Thai EFL learners at a university level. Muangmood (1992) applied the 4/3/2 technique as a class activity in order to develop her language learners' self-confidence in speaking English which was found enhanced. Likewise, with an intention to promote confidence in speaking English, Songsiri (2007) employed student-centered techniques in teaching activities. The findings indicated that teaching learning strategies and communication strategies could increase confidence in speaking English at least to a certain extent.

The studies conducted by Rattanapitakdhada (2000) and Danuwong (1993) previously mentioned yielded evidence to confirm effectiveness of explicitly teaching communication strategies to enhance communicative competence in Thai EFL learners at a high school level. However, no empirical study has been found regarding how Thai EFL undergraduates' communicative competence could be promoted through an explicit strategy instruction. Likewise, although the study conducted by Songsiri (2007) mentioned earlier had integrated the teaching of strategies, the focus was not directly placed on communication strategies, which might explain the obtained results of only partial enhancement on English speaking confidence. As a result of the lack of studies researching specifically into the teaching of communication strategies to Thai EFL learners at the undergraduate level, there arose a necessity to conduct a study in this regard.

With the aforementioned potential benefits from explicitly teaching communication strategies to EFL learners and the lack of instruction of this kind to the certain level of EFL learners, it was interesting to see if Communication Strategy Instruction provided to Thai EFL undergraduates at Chulalongkorn University could

enhance their English speaking ability as well as their English speaking confidence. At Chulalongkorn University, there were students from various fields of study. Their English language education was provided by Chulalongkorn University Language Institute (CULI). The students at an undergraduate level from all faculties except the Faculty of Arts were required to enroll in two foundation English courses prior to enrolling in required English for specific purposes (ESP) courses in later years. These ESP courses included English for Academic Purposes (EAP) developing the linguistic abilities in a student's specialized field, and English for Occupational Purposes (EOP) equipping students with language skills needed for future careers in a student's field of specialty.

Ideally, the foundation English courses would prepare students in all the four language skills. This meant that by the end of the courses, students should be able to effectively communicate in daily life by using the four language skills. As a result, a well-balanced teaching practice focusing equally on each of the four aforementioned language skills should be provided. However, in actual practice, despite their endorsement in developing communicative competence of learners (Wasanasomsithi, 1998, as cited in Saengboon, 2006), teachers tended to pay attention only to vocabulary, grammar, reading, and writing which would be tested in midterm and final examinations. The students would also be assessed in their speaking skill, however, only when they are required to give an oral presentation which made up only five percent of their final grade, as written in the course syllabus of Experiential English I for the first semester of the academic year 2013.

Anecdotal evidence from personal teaching experience and pre-teaching classroom research conducted with three sections of Experiential English I, a

foundation English course, in the academic year 2008 yielded similar descriptions of language classroom teaching practice. The major proportion of class time was dedicated to vocabulary-focused reading, grammar explanations, and drills. The teachers would ask some questions, but the questions tended to be left unanswered or answered very quietly in a schema building process before proceeding to reading or vocabulary exercises. If time allowed, a more communicative activity such as a role-play or a presentation activity might be included. If not, it tended to be disregarded, unlike writing activities which would not be disregarded but would be postponed to the following class instead. A free-speaking activity such as sharing student life experiences took place only when there was a spare time to spend while waiting for more students to arrive at the class, if it was not replaced with reviewing their lesson by doing exercises in provided supplementary worksheets. This was possibly because in the examinations the students' speaking would not be tested, nor would they be required to do a role-play or give a presentation, but they would be tested in writing.

While speaking activities seemed to be neglected, a preference over speaking activities was revealed in student questionnaire distributed to the students from three different faculties: the Faculty of Fine and Applied Arts, the Faculty of Communication Arts, and the Faculty of Commerce and Accountancy. These students enjoyed thinking and expressing opinions, and they advocated more opportunity to speak, possibly, in order to improve their speaking skill. They reported that speaking was their most problematic English language skill because they did not know what words to use and because they were shy and lacked confidence. As a result, simply providing more speaking opportunity may not guarantee more speaking from the students. This situation not only discourages improvement in the speaking skill but

may also dismantle learners' awareness of the importance of the speaking ability later on.

This possibly led to a dissatisfactory level of speaking skill observed in Chulalongkorn University students who perceive that their English speaking skill was the weakest language area (Rongsa-ard, 2002). As foundation courses, Experiential English courses were supposed to provide students all the four foundation language skills crucial for their further studies. This meant students' speaking skill needed more, if not equal, attention when compared to the other skills. As there was still a room in the instructional practice at Chulalongkorn University to promote language learners' English speaking ability and confidence along with other English language areas, the present study was conducted in order to investigate the effects of the Communication Strategy Instruction integrated into a foundation English course on the students' English speaking ability, confidence, as well as their attitudes towards the instruction.

1.2 Research Objectives

The objectives of the present study were as follows:

1.   To investigate the effects of the Communication Strategy Instruction on English speaking ability of EFL undergraduates.

2.   To investigate the effects of the Communication Strategy Instruction on English speaking confidence of EFL undergraduates.

3.   To investigate the attitudes of EFL undergraduates towards the Communication Strategy Instruction.

1.3 Research Questions

The present study attempted to answer the following research questions:

1.   To what extent does the Communication Strategy Instruction affect English speaking ability of EFL undergraduates?

2.   To what extent does the Communication Strategy Instruction affect English speaking confidence of EFL undergraduates?

3.   What are the attitudes of EFL undergraduates towards the Communication Strategy Instruction?

1.4 Research Hypotheses

Theoretically, communication strategy use would enhance strategic competence (Thornbury, 2005). Strategic competence can then be used to compensate for incompetence in other aspects of communicative competence (Bailey, 2005; Canale, 1983; Nakatani, 2010; The National Capital Language Resource Center, 2004). By being taught communication strategies, L2 learners' strategic competence was enhanced, as observed in a number of studies (Al-Senaidi, 2009; Dornyei, 1995; Lam, 2006, 2010; Maleki, 2007).

Regarding English speaking confidence, it was suggested that learners be encouraged to speak without fear of making mistakes in order to enhance confidence in speaking English (Apple, 2011). By being taught communication strategies, learners would be made aware of the fact that and how mistakes made could be corrected, so the conversation could be carried on. Although there had been no statistical evidence of positive effects of teaching communication strategies on

confidence in speaking, positive effects of integrating strategies in language teaching were observed (Lemos Tello, 2010).

Therefore the null hypotheses of the present study can be described as follows:

Ho1: There would be no significant difference in the mean scores of English speaking ability before and after the implementation of the Communication Strategy Instruction.

Ho2: There would be no significant difference in the mean scores of English speaking confidence before and after the implementation of the Communication Strategy Instruction.

1.5 Scope of the Study

In order to correspond to the research objectives, the Communication Strategy Instruction was delivered to an intact class of EFL undergraduates attending a foundation English course entitled Experiential English I at Chulalongkorn University during the first semester of the academic year 2013. The Communication Strategy Instruction was integrated in Experiential English I where the students were taught communication strategies along with the regular instruction of the main course. The independent variable was the Communication Strategy Instruction and the dependent variables were the students' English speaking ability, speaking confidence, and attitudes towards the Communication Strategy Instruction.

1.6 Definition of Terms

Important terms used in the present study were defined as follows:

1. Communication Strategy Instruction was an instruction where communication strategies were taught. In the present study, the Communication Strategy Instruction referred to the teaching of communication strategies which was integrated into a required foundation English course, Experiential English I. The objective of the Communication Strategy Instruction was to enhance students' English speaking ability and English speaking confidence in spontaneous daily life conversations, particularly in their language classroom. It was expected that by the end of the semester, the students would significantly gain the ability and confidence in communicating orally in spontaneous daily life conversations regardless of their lack of native-like English proficiency in the language. In other words, the students would be able to achieve their communication goals and be more confident employing what they knew to compensate for what they did not know to achieve their communication goals.

2. English Speaking Ability referred to the ability to make a spontaneous oral communication. This meant despite having limited planning time and editing opportunity (Bailey, 2005), speakers could, nevertheless, communicate meaningfully in a spoken interpersonal interaction (Pillar, 2012). Furthermore, it was defined as the ability to function in a truly communicative setting involving negotiation of meaning (Savignon, 1972, as cited in Pillar, 2012). Accordingly, the ability to interact flexibly in a conversation where both speakers and listeners are allowed to speak (Bygate, 2000) must also be included, so negotiation in the communication (Boxer, 2004) could take place. In the present study, English speaking ability referred to the

students' linguistic competence ensuring intelligibility as well as strategic competence facilitating spontaneity and interactivity of an oral communication. In compensation for shortage of planning time, their determination to communicate effectively, fluently, and flexibly by using different strategies would be the primary asset. The students' English speaking ability was assessed through a 15-minute direct speaking test and rated based on a rating scale specially developed in the present study.

3. English Speaking Confidence referred to a feeling of confidence when orally communicating in English. In the present study, English speaking confidence referred to students' belief in their ability to speak English in their language classroom. It focused only on an individual belief towards one's capacity to perform a certain task which was to speak English to participate in their language classroom. The students' English speaking confidence was assessed with the English Speaking Confidence Scale which was developed by the researcher in the present study. By using the aforementioned instrument, the students rated the degree to which they had confidence to speak English in various speaking situations carried out in their language classroom.

4. EFL Undergraduates were Bachelor's degree university students who lived in a country where English was neither its first nor official language. In other words, they studied English only as a foreign language. In the present study, EFL undergraduates referred specifically to students studying in their first year at Chulalongkorn University. Generally, the students tended to have 12 years of formal English language education in their primary and secondary levels of education. However, some students might also have a three-year addition of formal English language education in kindergarten. Besides the fact that the students came from

different schools which might have employed different English language instructional methods and might have emphasized different aspects of English language education, the students might also have different experiences in English language education. Furthermore, some students might have extra opportunities to take tutorial courses and/or English language courses at private English language institutes, or to travel to and stay in an English speaking country as an exchange student. As a result, although upper-intermediate was assumed to be the students' English language competence level, it was not likely that such competence level could be applied to every student.

1.7 Significance of the Study

The study aimed at enhancing English speaking ability as well as English speaking confidence of EFL undergraduates through communication strategy instruction. The findings of the study have the potential to provide solutions to the unsatisfactory level of English speaking ability and confidence of EFL undergraduates.

Theoretically, the study brings about an English instructional model teaching communication strategies aiming at developing speaking ability along with confidence. It is hoped that the findings of the study may provide a springboard for subsequent research on an instruction of communication strategies as well as a strategy instruction in an attempt to empower English language learners to have better speaking ability and be more confident to speak. It is also hoped that the findings of the study may inspire researchers to further explore the development of the other language skills including listening, reading, and writing by means of strategy instruction.

As regards the practical significance of the study for English language practitioners, to start with, the instruction can actually be implemented or used as a guideline to build up a course to develop EFL undergraduates' English speaking ability and confidence. As the instruction of the present study was designed to be a supplementary, it can be integrated to the teaching of any assigned lesson contents with a few adjustments, which may be time and cost saving compared to developing a stand-alone course. Furthermore, the findings of the study not only contribute to the design of speaking instruction, but with some further adjustments, they may also contribute to the instruction of the other language skills.
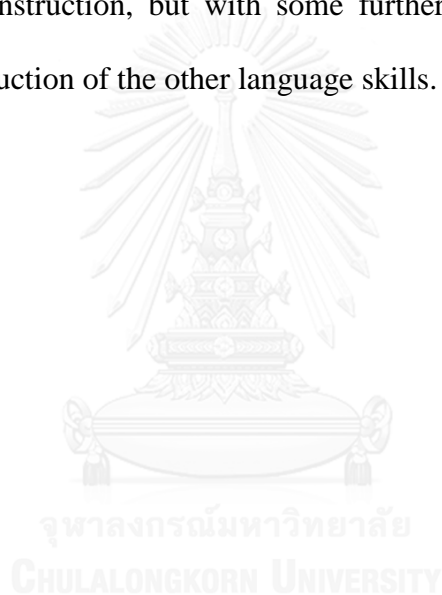
CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

In order to conduct the study to investigate the effects of the Communication Strategy Instruction on English speaking ability and English speaking confidence of EFL undergraduates, literature on speaking, confidence, and strategy instruction was reviewed. This chapter of literature review provides information used to conceptualize the research framework as well as to shed light on research methodology in the present study.

2.1 English Speaking Ability

To better understand the skill of speaking, this section explores definitions and characteristics of speaking, spoken language, speaking ability, and communication strategies. This section also explores speaking instruction, speaking assessment, and related research on speaking ability.

2.1.1 Definitions and Characteristics of Speaking

Bailey (2005) defines speaking as a productive and oral skill. Besides the classification which refers to the language produced by learners and modality or medium of the language, the characteristics of speaking as spontaneous and real-time are also addressed (Bailey, 2005). The aforementioned characteristics lead to limited planning and editing opportunity. Similarly, Thornbury (2005) portrays speaking as having a real-time quality, explaining that the real-time quality leads to spontaneity allowing severely limited planning time rationally leading to fragmented appearance

of the spoken language. Such constraint to produce a language in a real-time manner hardly allows thinking or preparing time. As a result lexical richness is hardly an option (Chafe & Danielewicz, 1987, as cited in Hughes, 2013).

Speaking skill should not be viewed solely according to cognitive or psycholinguistic perspectives. It should also be viewed according to a social interactional perspective. Boxer (2004) views speaking as a negotiation interaction between two or among more people. This notion is in parallel with the reciprocal condition of speaking. Bygate (2000) describes the reciprocal condition of speaking as a condition where both speakers and listeners are allowed to speak. This means speakers need to have not only the ability to produce a language but also the ability to be flexible in communication. The speakers cannot only speak but also need to observe listeners' reaction to adjust their speech or give the floor, for instance. Even in a monologic type of speaking, speakers still need to take audience feedback, either verbal or non-verbal, into consideration (Thornbury, 2005). Fortunately, skills important for confirming the listener's comprehension are perceived to be teachable (Luoma, 2004). In addition to being a means of interaction, speaking can also be a means of language development encouraging language learners to stretch their linguistic abilities in the target language by means of checking their understanding of the discourse until mutual comprehension is achieved (Boxer, 2004).

As regards the purpose of speaking, speaking can be conducted for individual expression, socialization, or both (Luoma, 2004). Although it serves to express meaning, Luoma (2004) states that the meaning might not always be explicitly or directly conveyed. That is, one utterance may have a hidden message under the surface.

To summarize, speaking is a productive and oral skill. It is spontaneously performed in a real-time manner permitting limited planning time as well as editing opportunity prior to the performance in most occasions. This results in fragmented appearance of spoken language as well as a simple lexical use. Although the purpose of speaking is to express meaning or give information, speaking still functions in a reciprocal way. That is, the speaker cannot only speak but also has to observe the listener or audience's feedback or reaction. As speaking is dynamic and interactive, both interlocutors must involve in the negotiation of meaning, especially when sometimes the meaning may not be explicitly conveyed. Not only is speaking a means of communication, but it can also assist language development allowing language learners to experiment with the acquired knowledge.

In the scope of the present study, speaking was defined as a productive and oral skill used in making a spontaneous oral communication in a real-time manner where speakers had limited or no time to plan for their speech production. In other words, an unplanned speech rather than a planned type of speaking was the focus of the study. Furthermore, rather than being used in a one-way communication, interactive speaking was used between two or among more people to interact with each other and to negotiate for meaning. As a result, an interlocutor's feedback was another important aspect in carrying on an oral communication. In real life, speaking can be conducted with various kinds of interlocutors, on various kinds of topics, and in various kinds of contexts. However, the present study focused mainly on English speaking with only two kinds of interlocutors being a non-native English teacher and fellow students sharing the same mother tongue. The topics and functions of speaking were based on the benchmark set for students at an upper-intermediate level and a

curriculum of the main course's textbook, *English Unlimited*. As regards speaking context, it was a truly communicative setting. That is, it was a dynamic exchange involving expression, interpretation, and negotiation of meaning.

2.1.2 Spoken Language

Unlike in written language where a complete grammatical sentence is required in most cases, a clause, a phrase, or a single word is acceptable in spoken language (van Lier, 1995, as cited in Bailey, 2005). Luoma (2004) asserts that grammar in spoken language is simpler than that in written counterpart. For example, some idea units do not even contain a verb or are left to be completed by another speaker. This use of simpler grammar corresponds to the real-time nature of spoken language, so it will be easier for speakers to speak in the same way for hearers to comprehend against working memory. As for vocabulary, simple words suffice in natural spoken language where generic and vague words are common (Luoma, 2004). In terms of pronunciation, when considering the real-time nature of speaking, it can be seen that some slips and errors such as mispronunciation are common, so speakers should not be judged as incompetent in all the cases unless such a slip or error is unique to non-native speakers (Bailey, 2005).

In addition to involving less complex syntax, Bygate (2000) as well as Thornbury (2005) describe common features of spoken language as encompassing incomplete sentences including ellipsis, as well as repeats, false starts, formulaic expression, fillers, and hesitation devices. These features coupled with short pauses rather than conjunctions (Luoma, 2004) are employed by speakers to keep the

conversational floor while an intended message has not been reached. This holds true for English language learners as well as for L1 users.

In the scope of the present study, spoken language was not judged against the norms of written language. A simpler grammar was used as a standard. Regarding vocabulary use, there was no necessity in using a wide range of words. Simple words sufficed as long as intended meaning could be brought about. As for pronunciation, a standard was not set against that of any native speaker norm. Mispronunciation was also acceptable as long as speakers could be sure that their conversation partner understood an intended message correctly. In addition to the features of grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation, components such as ellipsis, repeats, hesitation markers, or irregular word order connected with or without conjunctions were also acceptable.

2.1.3 Speaking Ability

People speak in order to convey meaning. As a result, speaking ability does not rely only on linguistic competence which has been the main focus of English language instruction (Bailey, 2005). According to The National Capital Language Resource Center (2004), the goal of language instruction is to develop language learners' communicative competence which is the ability to use the language correctly and appropriately to accomplish communication goals. Thus, the emphasis is placed on effectiveness in communication rather than on correctness judged against native speaker norms.

Pillar (2012) defines communicative competence as the ability to communicate meaningfully in a spoken interpersonal interaction and the possession of

skills used in real-life situations. Similarly, Savignon (1972, as cited in Pillar, 2012) defines communicative competence as the ability to function in a truly communicative setting—a dynamic exchange in which linguistic competence must adapt itself to the total information input of one or more of the interlocutors. As a result, according to Savignon (1976), communication involves expression, interpretation, and negotiation of meaning.

With an extended definition of communicative competence, incorporating the speakers' ability to carry out conversation in the target language authentically as argued by a number of scholars cited by Lee (2006), interactional competence stands revealed. The aforementioned interactional competence is defined as competence that is co-constructed by all participants, regardless of their communicative competence, via discursive practice in an interaction in order to enhance communication, to make an exchange or conversation intelligible, to cooperate with interlocutors so as to accomplish a course of actions, or simply to maintain a role in a conversation.

The concept of communicative competence has been of immense interest as it has often been referred to when speaking ability is discussed. Next, each aspect of communicative competence being linguistic, sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic competence is further reviewed.

2.1.3.1 Linguistic Competence

Linguistic competence refers to knowledge of a language code (Dornyei & Thurrell, 1991; Manchon, 2000; Pillar, 2012) or control of the basic grammar (Spolsky, 1989). These language code and basic grammar involve grammar, syntax, vocabulary (The National Capital Language Resource Center, 2004), spelling,

and punctuation (Dornyei & Thurrell, 1991), at both word and sentence levels (Savignon, 1976; The National Capital Language Resource Center, 2004).

By reviewing existing rubrics, scales related to linguistic competence are generally referred to as "grammatical competence," "grammar," "correctness," "accuracy," "structure," "vocabulary," and "range." These scales are all inter-related. To explain, grammar or structure and vocabulary are evaluated based on accuracy and range. To be precise, accuracy and range of grammar or structure being simple or complex, and range of vocabulary being limited or wide, are evaluated based on frequency or quantity. However, speaking is not a skill only to be learned and tested, but, more importantly, it is a skill to be used as a means of communication. Thus, assessment should not be based solely on accuracy and range or complexity. This is because using a wide range of vocabulary and grammar as well as complex structures does not fit the norm of spoken language.

Instead of accuracy and range, mutual understanding at the communication end should be of main concern (Meyerhoff, 2009). Related scales used to assess speaking regarding mutual understanding are referred to as "intelligibility," "comprehensibility," "comprehension," "meaningfulness," "communicative success," and "communicative aspect." These scales deal with the degree of frequency and difficulty in the ability to be understood. Hence, accuracy in grammar, vocabulary, as well as pronunciation should be evaluated based on intelligibility of the speech production.

As can be seen, linguistic competence is still said to involve spelling and punctuation, level of structural complexity, and range of vocabulary. This disregards the fact that in a spontaneous spoken communication, there is hardly enough time

available for speakers to establish the language at great complexity with a wide range of vocabulary.

Therefore, in the scope of the present study, linguistic competence was defined as the ability to intelligibly communicate with control of the basic grammar of spoken English regarding grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation. Thus, it could be evaluated primarily based on accuracy coupled with intelligibility, instead of the range of grammar (whether the speech production involved simple or complex structures), a range of vocabulary (whether the speech production involved a limited or wide range of vocabulary), or the pronunciation (whether the speech production was produced with a native-like pronunciation). In evaluating linguistic competence, one should disregard complexity and the range of the elements as, according to the norm of spoken language, there is a high tendency for simple structure and limited range of vocabulary to be orally produced.

2.1.3.2 Sociolinguistic Competence

Sociolinguistic competence refers to knowledge of rules guiding the use of language code (Manchon, 2000) in a given setting or context (The National Capital Language Resource Center, 2004). In other words, it refers to cultural (Pillar, 2012) rules of language use as in when to speak and when not, what to talk about and with whom, and in what manner (Nazari, 2007), based on roles, status, information shared, and function of the interaction in a specific context (Canale, 1983, as cited in Alptekin, 2002).

With regard to its assessment, sociolinguistic competence is evaluated in relation to context appropriateness (Dornyei & Thurrell, 1991; Pillar, 2012), in terms

of style, register, politeness, and function (Dornyei & Thurrell, 1991). In addition to appropriateness and naturalness, sociolinguistic competence is also assessed with regard to expressiveness (Pillar, 2012).

By reviewing existing rubrics, scales related to sociolinguistic competence are referred to as "interaction," "interaction ability," "interactive communication," "conversational skill," and "conversation or clarification strategies." It is described as an ability to interact with the other by taking initiatives and adapting speech to suit the conversation or situation. This is consistent with the description provided in another scale referred to as turn-taking ability. The concept of turn-taking is defined as the ability to elicit and negotiate meaning and respond to unexpected questions and comments. The underlying notions of turn-taking are stated simply as the following abilities: (1) the ability to ask suitable questions, (2) the ability to give the listener time to reply, and (3) the ability to give appropriate answers. To conclude, with the extended definition, sociolinguistic competence involves a two-way interaction where listening and speaking are cohesively performed through devices such as responses for maintenance and negotiation of meaning, which is in parallel with interactional competence (Lee, 2006).

In other words, speakers should have the ability to respond appropriately to what is heard and the ability to ask naturally when what is heard is not completely understood (Breiner-Sanders, Lowe, Miles, & Swender, 2000) so as to co-construct flexibility among communicators. In addition, speakers should also have the ability to take initiatives observing listeners' reactions or confirming mutual understanding (Verhelst, Van Avermaet, Takala, Figueras, & North, 2009).

However, the focus on context appropriateness of sociolinguistic competence seems to brush aside the fact that it is impossible to learn in advance about or be prepared in terms of rules of language use in every different context speakers happen to encounter. In other words, the description of sociolinguistic competence does not seem to well fit the nature of a spontaneous spoken communication. Therefore, the description of interactional competence is adopted instead so that it would be more compatible with a spontaneous oral interactive communication. Also, it seems more appropriate to rename the competence. As a result, sociolinguistic competence was alternatively referred to as interactional competence.

Interactional competence is defined as the ability to appropriately, naturally, or flexibly communicate orally in English in a given context. To be precise, it refers to the ability to respond appropriately to what is heard and the ability to ask naturally when what is heard is not completely understood so as to communicate with flexibility. In a given context, speakers will take the role of a decision maker who is expected to provide extensive information useful for making decisions as well as to ask questions to ensure its comprehensibility. As a result, interactional competence also includes flexible and mutual attempts of the interlocutors to agree on a meaning despite communication problems that may arise. Thus, interactional competence could enhance communication through cooperation between the interlocutors.

2.1.3.3 Discourse Competence

Discourse competence refers to the ability to deal with the combination of language structures to produce unified parts in different modes such as speech and paper (Dornyei & Thurrell, 1991). Particularly, Pillar (2012) defines discourse

competence as the ability to achieve a unified spoken message in spontaneous speech behaviors in peer-interactive situations. With this additional definition, discourse competence is also evaluated based on appropriateness, naturalness, and fluency in combining not only linguistic competence but also paralinguistic behaviors with intended communicative goals (Pillar, 2012).

Particularly, fluency is defined as the ability to actively produce passive language knowledge in a real-time communication (Thornbury, 2005) at an appropriate speed rate balancing accuracy and hesitation (Byrne, 1989, as cited in Hughes, 2013; Schmidt, 1992, as cited in Nation & Newton, 2008). With the aspect of a real-time communication being considered as well as acceptance in the presence of hesitation, Thornbury (2005) also extends the concept of fluency to include the ability to signal a desire to maintain the conversation while working on cognitive processes. In so doing, according to Breiner-Sanders et al. (2000), low proficiency L2 users tend to produce a fair amount of pauses. On the other hand, higher proficiency counterparts tend to employ delaying strategies or discourse markers.

From reviewing existing rubrics, scales related to discourse competence are referred to as "delivery" which concern the frequency of fluency. Fluency-related scales also look at the ability to non-collaboratively communicate one's thought cohesively. However, considering the limited planning time and editing opportunity available in a spontaneous oral communication, assessing cohesiveness based on the use of cohesive devices such as conjunctions may not suitably correspond to the nature of real-time oral communication.

Therefore, in the scope of the present study, discourse competence was defined as the capacity to appropriately, naturally, and coherently or fluently

communicate in an extended communication in a real-time or in a spontaneous interactive manner where planning time is unavailable. In other words, discourse competence was defined as the ability to signal an attempt in maintaining the conversation while hesitating or working on the cognitive process in order to keep the communication channel open to enhance fluency in communication. While, in written communication, there is time for speakers to brainstorm and contemplate for the most appropriate cohesive devices to chain thoughts together, there is very little, if not at all, in spoken communication. Consequently, speakers must resort to other available alternatives such as fixed phrases to show their best effort in keeping cohesion in the communication.

As a result, discourse competence in this study was not assessed based on cohesion or coherence due to the use of cohesive devices including pronouns, synonyms, conjunctions, parallel structures, and logical or chronological sequencing. Rather, discourse competence was qualitatively evaluated mainly based on the management of hesitation and weather hesitation, if present, was always dealt with appropriately with a variety of means such as by using production strategies or formulaic language to fill pauses.

2.1.3.4 Strategic Competence

Strategic competence is defined as the ability to communicate within limitations (Savignon, 1976). To elaborate, it is defined as the ability to recognize communication problems (Mariani, 1994; Paribakht, 1985) and to use problem-solving tools in order to overcome such problems (Manchon, 2000). To elaborate, strategic competence can be assessed based on the ability to correct mistakes by

backtracking and restructuring language products when speakers are short of linguistic repertoires (Verhelst et al., 2009). According to Breiner-Sanders et al. (2000), low proficiency L2 users tend to maintain L1 use, rely on repetition, or remain silent. On the other hand, higher proficiency counterparts tend to carry on self-correction and reformulation such as by using circumlocution (Breiner-Sanders et al., 2000). However, as strategies would be employed only when needed and could be observed only when there is a need for weakness compensation, it is possible that strategy use may be unobservable in speakers with a good language command.

By reviewing existing rubrics, scales related to strategic competence were referred to as "strategies," "communication strategies," and "communicative or communication effectiveness" (R. Ellis, 1984). The aspect of strategies was simply described as the use of strategies to help make oneself understood. Strategies was also observed based on frequency, kinds of strategies used (R. Ellis, 1984) whether the achievement or reduction kind is employed, and difficulty in strategy use whether strategies can be used smoothly or successfully.

As for the scope of the present study, strategic competence was defined as the ability to strategically and effectively communicate despite communicative problems which may come from imperfect or limited communicative competence or simply from performance limitations affecting the achievement of the intended or expected communicative goal. Therefore, strategic competence included the ability to recognize problems or limitations in speakers' own speech production so as to correct the speech production or deal with these limitations by self-repairing and applying their limited yet available knowledge to overcome the limitation so that the communicative goals could be achieved. It also included the ability to reformulate or

modify output to repair communicative breakdowns signaled by conversational partners. To be precise, strategic competence was defined as the ability to recognize and deal with problems by using problem-solving devices or strategies to allow the application of limited knowledge to overcome limits to communication and so achieve intended communicative goals.

2.1.3.5 Conceptualized Framework of Speaking Ability

In the scope of the present study, English speaking ability was operationally defined as a combination of linguistic competence and strategic competence. While linguistic competence existed as the main resource for communicators, strategic competence served as a back-up plan for communicators to overcome their flaws in their actual speaking ability. As regards linguistic competence, it referred to having the control of basic grammar of spoken English including grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation. In other words, an evaluation of linguistic competence was based on intelligibility in grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation.

As for strategic competence, it was defined as the ability to communicate spontaneously despite all kinds of limitation. To achieve such a goal, using different strategies would be necessary. As regards evaluation, strategic competence was evaluated based on frequency of strategy use, kind of strategies used, and difficulty or success in strategy use. Despite imperfect communicative competence, speakers with a good command of strategic competence would always use achievement strategies successfully to make themselves understood within available linguistic resources. Therefore, in the following section, communication strategies will be reviewed.

2.1.4 Communication Strategies

In this section, literature on communication strategies regarding definitions and categorizations is reviewed, analyzed, and synthesized. This section also looks at two frameworks of communication strategies which will then be compared. Finally, the description of a conceptualized framework of communication strategies in the present study will be addressed.

2.1.4.1 Definitions of Communication Strategies

The term "communication strategies" was defined for the first time by Tarone (1977, as cited in Dornyei & Scott, 1997). However, the most recognizable definition as well as categorization would be those developed by Faerch and Kasper (1983, as cited in Kendall, Jarvie, Doll, Lin, & Purcell, 2005). Faerch and Kasper's (1983) definition of communication strategies is that they are plans that communicators consciously come up with in order to solve particular communicative problems so that the communicative goals can be reached.

Although this definition of communication strategies has been produced at the very early stage of communication strategy study, its influence can be seen in defining and categorizing communication strategies by other scholars in later years. To illustrate, communication strategies were defined broadly as tools used to maximize the success of communication (Canale, 1983, as cited in Dornyei, 1995) in transmitting as well as understanding messages (Tarone & Yule, 1989, as cited in Rababah, 2002). Communication strategies were also referred to as "strategic devices" (Mariani, 1994) and "conversation strategies" which were defined as a means for second language learners to become more confident in their L2

communication (Wood, 2011). Communication strategies were defined as ways that speakers used to solve their communication problems (Paribakht, 1985). The communication problems were further narrowed down to those caused by limitations in target language linguistic or communicative resources by Mariani (1994) and many other scholars cited by Dornyei (1995). With this narrow definition, communication strategies were, therefore, alternatively referred to as "production strategies" and "reception strategies" (Paribakht, 1985). Paribakht (1985) uses the term "production strategies" to refer specifically to strategies used to solve problems in communicating a message, while the term "reception strategies" refers specifically to those used to solve problems in receiving a message.

2.1.4.2 Categorization of Communication Strategies

Mainly, communication strategies can be categorized into reduction or achievement strategies, and non-cooperative or cooperative strategies. However, there are also some other strategies which dd not fit into any of the aforementioned categories. This section will first discuss reduction strategies, achievement strategies, non-cooperative strategies, and cooperative strategies. Then, it will move on to other strategies that do not fit into any of the aforementioned categories.

2.1.4.2.1 Reduction and Achievement

As for the categorization, Færch and Kasper (1983) broadly divide communication strategies into two categories. The first category is reduction strategies consisting of topic avoidance, message abandonment, and meaning replacement. The second category is achievement strategies consisting of code

switching, interlingual transfer, intralingual transfer, interlanguage based strategies, cooperative strategies, and non-linguistic strategies.

Various taxonomies of communication strategies have later been developed in the past decades (Dornyei & Scott, 1997). Despite such variations, Dornyei and Thurrell (1991) create a general classification consisting of only two broad categories, namely message adjustment strategies and achievement or resource expansion strategies.

By using the first type of strategies (reduction or message adjustment strategies), speakers keep a message within the bounds of their communicative resources and, thus, are obliged to change the original communicative goal in order to avoid communicative problems (Mariani, 1994). As a result, their intended message is reduced, if not abandoned completely (Dornyei & Thurrell, 1991). Examples of strategies in this category are alteration, reduction, and message abandonment (Dornyei, 1995). These strategies are considered rather limited. By using these kinds of communication strategies, language users rely only on limited resources (Dornyei & Thurrell, 1991). This means under the circumstances where required resources do not exist, language users would simply drop out of the conversation.

Regarding the second type of communication strategies, in addition to being referred to as achievement strategies (Dornyei, 1995; Dornyei & Thurrell, 1991; Mariani, 1994) or resource expansion strategies (Dornyei & Thurrell, 1991), the second category of communication strategies is also referred to as compensatory strategies (Dornyei, 1995).

By using these types of strategies, speakers are allowed to keep the original communicative goals by developing alternative plans to expand the use of available

language resources (Dornyei, 1995; Mariani, 1994). Even though the speakers may risk facing failure, they attempt to remain in the conversation (Dornyei & Thurrell, 1991) to eventually achieve the intended communicative goals. Once problems in communication arise, speakers can choose to take control over those problems by employing various achievement, resource expansion, or compensatory strategies. For example, speakers may employ correction, circumlocution, paraphrasing, word coinage, word invention, approximation, an all-purpose word, literal translation, foreignizing, borrowing, and self-repetition (Dornyei & Thurrell, 1991; Rababah, 2002) in an attempt to overcome the problems.

2.1.4.2.2 Non-Cooperative and Cooperative

As the aforementioned strategies such as correction and circumlocution require no assistance from conversation partners, they are considered and referred to as non-cooperative strategies. Alternatively, speakers may ask for assistance from their conversation partners through the following strategies (Dornyei & Thurrell, 1991): appeal for help, asking for repetition, asking for clarification, asking for confirmation, and comprehension checks (Rababah, 2002) in an attempt to overcome those problems. As a result, these strategies are considered and referred to as cooperative strategies (Dornyei & Thurrell, 1991).

Cooperative strategies are defined as cooperative endeavors of two or more people to agree on a meaning in situations where they cannot share the same level of knowledge and skills (Mariani, 1994). They are also referred to as interactive strategies used when repair mechanisms or negotiation of meaning (Dornyei, 1995) is required. Despite the controversy over whether these strategies should be classified

under communication strategies or recognized as different strategies (Dornyei, 1995), their problem-solving orientation convincingly earns their place as communication strategies. Similar to other strategies categorized as non-cooperative strategies, these strategies can be used in an attempt to solve communication problems to enhance effectiveness of communication. They, however, differ from those strategies only in the nature of the attempt being cooperatively made by conversation partners, rather than non-cooperatively.

2.1.4.2.3 Other Strategies

In addition to reduction and achievement strategies, non-cooperative and cooperative strategies, there are more strategies speakers can employ in order to solve communicative problems or to enhance the communication. For example, stalling or time-gaining strategies can be employed at times of difficulty to gain time to plan or develop alternative means of communication in order to keep the communication channel open (Dornyei, 1995). Other discourse-level strategies can also be used to simply benefit the capacity to manage the interaction (Mariani, 1994). To elaborate, additional remarks or comments can be made along with paralinguistic behaviors such as nodding in response to what has been spoken in order to encourage the speaker to continue talking (Lifang, 1997) by showing them to be active listening.

2.1.4.2.4 Summary of Categorization of Communication Strategies

Considering the strategies reviewed above, a complete list of communication strategies cannot consist exclusively of reduction strategies without

achievement strategies used to handle communication problems by individual communicators. In the same way, the list cannot consist exclusively of non-cooperative without cooperative strategies used to handle communication problems cooperatively by all communicators involved. Furthermore, other strategies though unfitted under the aforementioned four strategies deserve consideration as they can also have positive effects on communication.

2.1.4.3 Examples of Frameworks of Communication Strategies

In addition to the aforementioned communication strategy categorization, two more frameworks of communication strategies are further reviewed here so as to be used as communication strategy base for subsequent communication strategy selection. The frameworks developed by Mariani (1994) and Nakatani (2010) are perceived to be well-developed as they have included both reduction and achievement strategies, and non-cooperative and cooperative strategies. However, similar to other communication strategy frameworks previously mentioned, they may still lack some strategies that could also be beneficial to communication. As a result, each of these two frameworks will first be looked at separately, paying attention to only strategies categorized as achievement strategies, before being compared afterwards.

2.1.4.3.1 Communication Strategy Framework of Mariani (1994)

Mariani's (1994) achievement strategies are divided into two main categories: those used at a word or sentence level and those used at a discourse

level. What follows is an elaboration on Mariani's (1994) achievement strategies at the aforementioned two levels.

2.1.4.3.1.1 Achievement strategies used at a word or sentence level

Mainly, Mariani's (1994) achievement strategies used at a word or sentence level differ from those used at a discourse level due to the fact that achievement strategies used at a word or sentence level are applied by speakers and, thus, are called non-cooperative strategies. Mariani's (1994) achievement strategies used at a word or sentence level are as follows: borrowing or code-switching, foreignizing, literal translation, interlanguage-based strategies, generalization, paraphrase, and restructuring or self-repair.

2.1.4.3.1.2 Achievement strategies used at a discourse level

In contrast to Mariani's (1994) achievement strategies used at a word or sentence level, Mariani's (1994) achievement strategies used at a discourse level can be applied by both speakers and listeners and, thus, are called cooperative strategies. Mariani's (1994) achievement strategies used at this level include a broader ability in interactional management which involves not only strategic skills but also sociolinguistic and pragmatic skills. To successfully negotiate for meaning or intention, both interlocutors, not just the speakers, partake in using these kinds of strategies cooperatively in order to achieve mutual communicative

goals. Mariani's (1994) achievement strategies used at a discourse level are divided into two main categories as follows.

Firstly, appeal for assistance includes asking for repetition and asking for target words. As for asking for repetition, upon difficulty in receiving a message, listeners may appeal for assistance by, for example, asking for repetition. On the other hand, upon difficulty in producing the message, speakers may ask the listeners for assistance asking for target words corresponding to the intended meaning.

Secondly, appeal for mutual assistance includes asking for clarification and asking for comprehension checks. As for asking for clarification, upon difficulty in receiving a message, cooperative listeners may employ cooperative strategies to clarify whether an accurate mutual understanding is achieved. On the other hand, upon uncertainty whether an accurate mutual understanding is achieved, speakers can also appeal for mutual assistance asking for comprehension checks to determine if what has been said is being accurately understood.

Although it may seem that the appeal for assistance strategies and the appeal for mutual assistance strategies are very similar, what distinguishes them can be the certainty in the presence of communicative problems. To illustrate, listeners would ask for repetition when they certainly have difficulties in receiving a message. Similarly, speakers would ask for target words when they certainly have difficulties in producing a message. On the contrary, listeners may or may not have difficulties in receiving a message, or speakers may or may not perceive listeners' listening problems. However, to ensure that an accurate mutual understanding is achieved, listeners could cooperatively ask for clarification, or speakers could cooperatively ask for comprehension checks to certify an accurate mutual understanding.

2.1.4.3.2 Communication Strategy Framework of Nakatani

(2010)

Nakatani's (2010) achievement strategies include help-seeking, signals for negotiation, modified output, self-repairing, time-gaining, and response for maintenance. In an ideal communication when what is sent across is immediately understood, listeners can actively responsed showing understanding by using response for maintenance strategies. The response for maintenance strategies include providing active responses such as 'I see' to make a positive comment, and shadowing by repeating parts of the previous utterance to show understanding, as illustrated in Figure 2.1

Figure 2.1. Communication process and communication strategy use (Part 1).

However, when problems in hearing or understanding arise, help-seeking such as appeal for help, asking for repetition, or signals for negotiation such as confirmation checks and clarification requests can be used to enhance understanding, as illustrated in Figure 2.2.

Figure 2.2. Communication process and communication strategy use (Part 2).

In addition, comprehension checks can also be used to signal negotiation by the speakers themselves when they are not certain whether they are being understood possibly because of the lack of listeners' response for maintenance, help-seeking, or signals for negotiation, as illustrated in Figure 2.3.
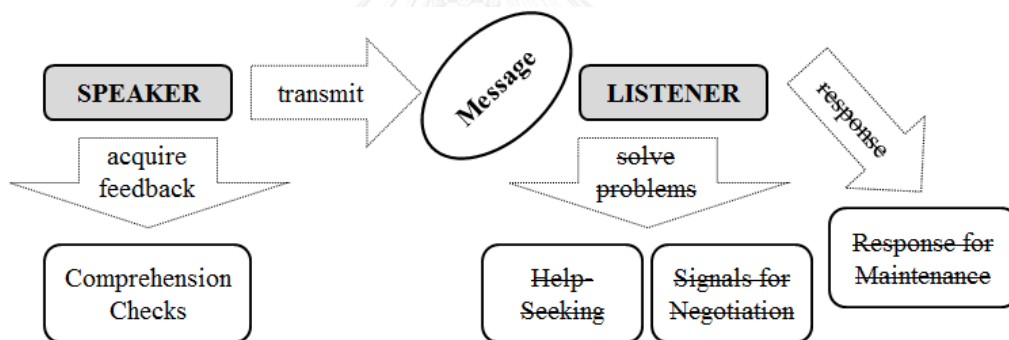
Figure 2.3. Communication process and communication strategy use (Part 3).

In response to conversation partners' signals for negotiation or to perceived communicative problems, modified output strategies can be used to enhance cooperation among conversation partners as well as contributing to the success in the communication. Regardless of conversation partners' signals for negotiation, self-repairing strategies can be carried out once the need for output modification, possibly caused by language deficiency, is realized. Time-gaining or conscious use of fillers or filled pauses can be used to keep the communication channel open while the speakers

are thinking of language forms or ideas to produce rather than remaining silent which could give conversation partners the false idea that the speakers may no longer wish to speak, as illustrated in Figure 2.4.
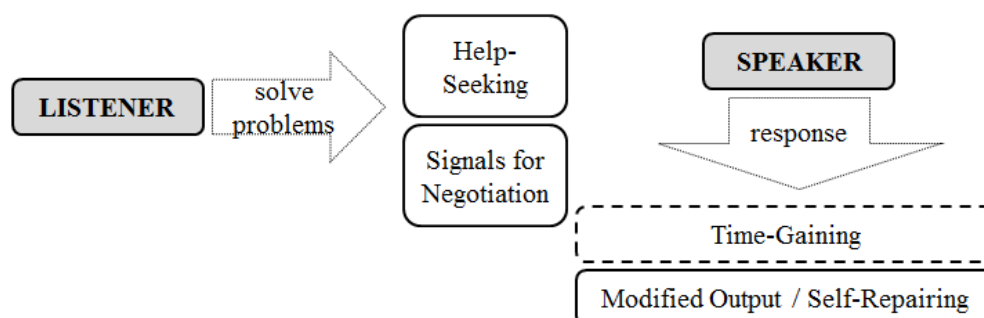
Figure 2.4. Communication process and communication strategy use (Part 4).

In short, similar to Mariani's (1994) framework, Nakatani's (2010) framework of communication strategies consists of both strategies used non-cooperatively at a word or sentence level such as self-repairing, and strategies used cooperatively at a discourse level such as signals for negotiation.

2.1.4.3.3 Comparison of the Two Communication Strategy Frameworks

Communication strategy frameworks developed by Mariani (1994) and Nakatani (2010) are, therefore, compared for the purpose of strategy selection. This aims to leave with the minimum numbers of strategies or devices that would be productive and useful, and so deserve to be explicitly introduced to language learners within limited class time. Overlaps in the strategies' sub-categories can be seen as displayed in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1 compares Mariani's (1994) and Nakatani's (2010) frameworks of communication strategies. Although described as having two main categories, while some strategies in one framework can be matched with other strategies in the other framework, some other strategies are left unmatched. Therefore, the strategies are divided into three main categories: reduction strategy, achievement strategy, and other strategies that are left without a match.

Table 2.1

Mariani's (1994) and Nakatani's (2010) Communication Strategies

Mariani (1994)	Nakatani (2010)
Reduction strategies (Rx)	**Reduction strategies** (Rx)
Topic avoidance	Message abandonment
Message abandonment	L1-based … (R1)
Meaning replacement	IL-based reduction … (R2)
Achievement strategies (Ax)	**Achievement strategies** (Ax)
Word or sentence level	Help-seeking strategies
Borrowing (code switching) … (R1)	Appeal for help … (A2)
Foreignizing … (R2)	Asking for repetition … (A2)
Literal translation … (R2)	Signals for negotiation
Interlanguage-based … (R2)	Confirmation checks … (A2)
Generalization: approximation ('thing' or 'stuff'), superordinates ('flower' instead of 'daffodil'), and synonyms and antonyms … (A5)	Comprehension checks … (A6)
	Clarification requests ... (A2)
Paraphrase: definitions, descriptions, examples, and circumlocutions … (A5)	Modified output … (A5)
	Time-gaining strategies … (A3)
Restructuring (self-repair) … (A5)	Response for maintenance strategies … (A1)
Discourse level	Providing active response
Appeal for assistance	Shadowing
'What did you say?' … (A2)	Self-repairing strategies … (A5)
'What do you call it?' … (A4)	Paraphrase: exemplification, circumlocution, and describing characteristic
Appeal for mutual assistance	Approximation: alternative expression that has similar semantic features to the intended term
'Do you mean … ?' … (A2)	Restructuring: switch to another expression to communicate the intended message
'Do you see what I mean?' … (A6)	

2.1.4.3.3.1 Reduction strategy

Strategies labeled with (Rx) are considered reduction strategies and, thus, should be discarded. Although several strategies (borrowing or code-switching, foreignizing, literal translation, and interlanguage-based strategies) are listed as achievement strategies in Mariani's (1994) framework, when compared to strategies listed in Nakatani's (2010) framework, they were considered reduction strategies. To illustrate, borrowing or code-switching involved an application of

another language which is likely to be the students' first language. As a result, borrowing and code switching are considered L1-based strategies which are listed as reduction strategies in Nakatani's framework. Similarly, Mariani's foreignizing and literal translation involved an inappropriate and inaccurate mixing between students' first language and the target language. As a result, foreignizing and literal translation are considered interlanguage-based reduction strategies which are listed as reduction strategies in Nakatani's framework. Lastly, needless to say, Mariani's interlanguage-based reduction strategies are considered reduction strategies as listed in Nakatani's framework. Consequently, Mariani's borrowing or code-switching, foreignizing, literal translation, and interlanguage-based strategies should not be included in the categorization for useful communication strategies.

2.1.4.3.3.2 Achievement strategy

Those strategies, which are labeled (Ax) in Table 2.1, are considered achievement strategies and, thus, should be included in this categorization for useful communication strategies. To begin with, Mariani's (1994) appeal for assistance ('What did you say?') corresponds to Nakatani's (2010) help-seeking strategies. In the same way, Mariani's appeal for mutual assistance ('Do you mean …?') corresponds to Nakatani's confirmation checks and clarification requests. Similarly, Mariani's appeal for mutual assistance ('Do you see what I mean?') corresponds to Nakatani's comprehension checks. Finally, Mariani's generalization, paraphrase, and restructuring corresponds to Nakatani's self-repairing strategies. These strategies can be used not only when speakers perceive signals for negotiation from conversation partners, but can also be used automatically when the speakers are

aware of the need for language modification possibly due to the speakers' language deficiency. Under this circumstance, the strategies are referred to as modified output strategies in Nakatani's framework.

2.1.4.3.3.3 Other strategies

In addition to those aforementioned overlapping strategies, other strategies that remain without a match in the frameworks are Mariani's (1994) appeal for assistance ('What do you call it?'), Nakatani's (2010) time-gaining strategies, and response for maintenance strategies. Despite having no parallel partners, they are well worth being included for the following reasons. Firstly, although Mariani's appeal for assistance ('What do you call it?') may appear to be an easy way out, relying on another person instead of trying to rely on one's own language resources, it is better than the speakers' opting for message abandonment strategies. Not only does the aforementioned strategy allow the conversation to continue, thus enhancing language use, it may also enhance language learning as it enables speakers to expand vocabulary repertoires. Regarding Nakatani's time-gaining strategies and response for maintenance strategies, the rationale for the inclusion relies on the fact that with the absence of these strategies, the perception of message abandonment may be created. Message abandonment, listed in Nakatani's reduction strategies, involves keeping silent or pausing for a long time. Unless time-gaining strategies are used to show the conversation partner's intention to be engaged in the conversation, or response for maintenance strategies are used to show active engagement, a false perception of a refusal to engage in the communication may result.

2.1.4.3.3.4 Summary

When comparing to the other frameworks provided by other scholars in earlier years, there might not be any stark contrast. Major differences may simply be different terms used or different ways of categorization. However, there is one thing in common, which is its nature which seems more research-based than instruction-based. To elaborate, all the aforementioned frameworks consist of all kinds of strategies available when communicative problems are encountered. All those strategies included consist of both productive strategies supporting communicators to reach their communicative goals and unproductive strategies preventing speakers from pursuing their original communicative goals.

Consequently, to make communication strategies more educationally appropriate, all the aforementioned strategies must be carefully chosen and re-categorized to produce a compact, and yet not too brief, and naturally ordered, framework so that the strategies can easily be delivered and digested within the limited language class time. Therefore, the following section will describe the development of the conceptualized framework of communication strategies in the present study. To be specific, how the chosen strategies which are perceived to have a potential to benefit communication are put in order will be described.

2.1.4.4 Conceptualized Framework of Communication Strategies

In the scope of the present study, communication strategies included only strategies perceived to be beneficial for language use and language learning in order to enhance speaking ability of EFL learners. The final list of strategic devices included in each of the conceptualized strategies is detailed in Figure 2.5.

Strategies	Problem solving		Communication enhancing
Non-cooperative	③		②
	Mariani's (1994)	Nakatani's (2010)	Nakatani's (2010)
	Generalization Paraphrase Restructuring	Modified output Self-repairing strategies	Time-gaining strategies
Cooperative	③		①
	Mariani (1994)		Nakatani's (2010)
	Appeal for assistance ('How do you call it?')		Response for maintenance strategies
	①		
	Mariani's (1994)	Nakatani's (2010)	
	Appeal for assistance ('What did you say?') Appeal for mutual assistance ('Do you mean … ?')	Help-seeking strategies Signals for negotiation (Confirmation checks and Clarification requests)	
	④		
	Mariani's (1994)	Nakatani's (2010)	
	Appeal for mutual assistance ('Do you see what I mean?')	Signals for negotiation (Comprehension checks)	

Figure 2.5. Categorization for communication strategies.

2.1.4.4.1 Answering and Asking

The strategies numbered (1) are referred to as Answering and Asking. They can be useful in different situations. Under the circumstance that the message produced is clear, appropriate, and understood, the Answering strategy can be used to show understanding or interest to enhance the cooperativeness between or among the communicators. In the absence of the application of this strategy, the situation may misleadingly suggest that the listener is not listening or understanding.

On the other hand, the Asking strategy can be used in a cooperative attempt to solve communicative problems. Under the circumstance that the message produced is not clear, appropriate, or understood, the Asking strategy (Clarification Requests) can be used to cope with difficulties in communication, thus allowing interlocutors to continue the conversation. By using this strategy, the listeners can ask for further information to ensure a better understanding. This can be done by asking for help. For example, the listeners can ask 'What did you say?' or 'What does it mean?' or say

'Speak slowly, please' or 'Please say that again.' However, if the listeners understand the message but are not completely certain whether they understand it correctly, the Asking strategy (Confirmation Checks) can be used to confirm their understanding. This can be done simply by asking 'Do you mean …?' In the absence of the application of this strategy, in addition to uncertainty whether the interlocutors are interlocutors or understanding, the listeners cannot be sure of accurate understanding crucial for taking the following turn of speaking or responding. This will inevitably prevent the listeners from being efficient speakers in the conversation.

When the Answering and Asking strategy is used, speakers should know that their conversation partners are still actively or willingly engaging in the conversation and whether their message is understood. Unless a completely accurate understanding is achieved, speakers should be aware of the need to modify their language output. As a result, the conversation can continue and listeners can be ready to take turn as speakers to respond to the previous speaking turn.

When the message received is clear and listeners are ready to take turns as speakers, the other three groups of strategies can be used during their speaking turns to enhance the fluency, effectiveness, as well as flexibility of the communication. These groups of strategies were defined as productive strategies used to deal with speakers' own language production, either non-cooperatively or cooperatively. These strategies include Time-Gaining labeled (2), Self-Repairing (3), and Comprehension Checks (4). An elaboration of these strategies is as follows.

2.1.4.4.2 Time-Gaining

To start with, the Time-Gaining strategy can be non-cooperatively used to gain time to solve communication problems by keeping the communication channel open while the speakers are thinking of what to say. As a result, not only will the speakers have more time to plan or develop alternative means of communication, the listeners will also be aware of the speakers' interest in remaining engaged in the conversation. This can be done by a conscious application of fillers or filled pauses. For instance, while thinking, instead of keeping silent, the speakers can utter 'Let me see' or 'Um.' Without using the Time-Gaining strategy, a false perception that the speakers may not wish to continue the conversation might be created, in the same way as when the Answering strategy is not employed.

2.1.4.4.3 Self-Repairing

Once the speakers arrive at the message to send across but are faced with, for example, insufficiency in their personal linguistic repertoires, the Self-Repairing strategy can be adopted to help the speakers pursue the communicative goals. The easiest way out would be to ask their conversation partners for cooperative assistance. For instance, the speakers can ask 'What do you call it?' However, although this question may be useful in some situations where a target object can be shown while asking for help, it may not always be useful in other circumstances such as when trying to refer to an abstract concept. As a result, the speakers should rely less on listeners' cooperative assistance and rely more on their own available competence. To elaborate, the speakers should keep using other devices in this group of strategies such as using generalization or approximation, and paraphrase. To

illustrate, the speakers can use words like 'thing' before trying to describe its quality. Alternatively, the Self-Repairing strategy can be employed with current problematic sentences by switching to another expression to achieve the original communicative goal.

2.1.4.4.4 Comprehension Checks

After the speakers have tried, or finished, using the Self-Repairing strategy to either non-cooperatively cope with personal language deficiency or to cooperatively respond to listeners' appeal for assistance and signals for negotiation, the speakers can use the Comprehension Checks strategy to test or check whether the listeners understand the conveyed message in a cooperative attempt to solve communicative problems that may have occurred. Without using the Comprehension Checks strategy, the speakers may not be certain whether the listeners understand correctly.

2.1.5 Speaking Instruction

Three language learning theories relevant to speaking skill have been widely acknowledged (Thornbury, 2005). They derive from behaviorists, cognitivists, and socio-cultural theorists. While behaviorists look at language learning as a form of habit formation established by repeated reinforcement, cognitivists focus on conscious attention through repeated activation leading to new knowledge integrating with that already in existence. As for socio-cultural theorists, they see interaction with others as a way to reconstruct existing knowledge. Despite differences in the nature of these theories, they recognize somewhat similar stages as follows: encounter new

knowledge, integrate such knowledge with existing knowledge, and use this knowledge automatically.

As for language teaching methods, failing to develop fluent speaking skills for spontaneous and realistic interaction, the Grammar-Translation, Direct, and Audiolingual methods, once prominent, have received less attention and have eventually been replaced by Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) with the concept of learning emerging through interaction rather than by combining separated language components (Bailey, 2005). In other words, CLT replaces the old belief in developing speaking fluency from teaching grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation (Thornbury, 2005). While the Total Physical Response (Asher, Kusodo, & de la Torre, 1993, as cited in Bailey, 2005) employing input-based activities is used with beginners who respond physically to spoken instruction rather than by speaking themselves, CLT employing interaction-based activities is used with learners at a high beginner or low intermediate level aiming at developing strategic competence or communication strategy use.

Moreover, language teaching is concerned with the balance between accuracy and fluency (Thornbury, 2005; Wongsothorn et al., 2002). The proponents of accuracy rely on a delayed production approach with the belief that before achieving a complete mastery of linguistic competence, learners are not ready to speak. As a result, PPP or Presentation, Practice, and Performance stages are employed in language teaching. However, achieving a complete mastery of linguistic competence is perceived by many to be an unrealistic goal even for native speakers when it comes to speaking. Consequently, the learning process is seen to involve a cycle of trials, errors, and re-trials, and better corresponds to the conceptual underpinning that

language is learned through actual use rather than learned and then used. Thus, the need to communicate is the starting point rather than an end to language learning.

Besides the instructional theories and methods, the characteristics of natural spoken language rather than grammar of the written counterpart should be taught since there are differences between language used formally as in a written document and language used casually as in everyday spoken conversation (Bailey, 2005; Bygate, 2000; Luoma, 2004; Thornbury, 2005). If a speaker produces sentences that are appropriate to a written text, they might be unnatural and may sound inappropriate when orally produced. Although some characteristics of oral communication such as requests for a clarification are transferable from L1 to L2 use, foreign language learners do not have as much opportunity to employ such transferability in EFL context (Luoma, 2004).

In the scope of the present study, speaking instruction was viewed through a combination of the three aforementioned theories based on a slightly different interpretation. The combination consisted of a presentation of language models and a performance or repeated practices of language tasks based on the behaviorist theory, conscious attention based on the cognitivist theory, and language use including communication strategy use in interaction based on the socio-cultural theory. Accuracy was less focused on in this particular instruction and fluency was highly encouraged through interaction-based activities where learners had a chance to speak, perform, or try out making mistakes; to observe errors made; and to re-perform or re-try rather than being presented with perfectly accurate forms to practice and perform. Although fluency received much attention in instruction of the present study, accuracy still had its place in the instruction. This was because the learning objectives of the

main course, Experiential English I, still evolved around a traditional objective of grammar, which enhanced accuracy. As previously mentioned, speaking instruction designed in the present study paid more attention to fluency which tended to be missing in traditional instruction. Together with the instruction of the main course and speaking instruction designed in the present study, students' English speaking ability could be enhanced in terms of accuracy simultaneously with fluency. By this, an enhancement in speaking accuracy was maintained while an enhancement in fluency was complemented.

2.1.6 Speaking Ability Assessment

Although assessing speaking ability might not be as straightforward as assessing other types of proficiency such as grammar or vocabulary knowledge, in doing so, the following issues of validity, reliability, practicality, and washback need to be considered in the same vein as in assessing other skills or knowledge (Bailey, 2005). That is, whether the test is measuring what it aims to measure, the consistency in assessment and scoring procedure, available resources to be used for the testing, and whether the test will promote the skill or knowledge development need to be considered.

Luoma (2004) lists two important documents involved in an assessment of language proficiency: the test and the test rubrics. This notion is shared by Chuang (2009) stating that an ideal test consists of a careful specified task and a clear scoring rubric. Initially, literature on test development is reviewed, followed by literature on test rubric development.

2.1.6.1 Test Development

Generally, a test should provide a measurable and meaningful feedback to not only teachers but also language programs and students (Davis, 2010). More importantly, the choice of the most effective and valid forms should be exclusively made corresponding to a particular educational setting including students' needs, and the type of knowledge, skill, or strategies to be assessed which tend to be corresponding to the expected learning outcome. For example, Tseng (2009) has developed a test assessing students' ability to communicate freely with the target language in the real world. Furthermore, in addition to the ability to use or produce English appropriately, the ability to comprehend has also been emphasized under the ability to successfully interact (Hughes, 2013; Ministry of Education, 1999).

Regarding the type of tests, unlike an indirect test or semi-direct test, a direct test allows test takers to carry out actual communication tasks performing actual language behaviors (Pillar, 2012) producing new utterances in the target language in order to interact with an interlocutor. Examples of tasks used in this type of test are an interview, a monologue, a conversation, an unscripted role-play, and a collaborative discussion task (Thornbury, 2005).

In designing a test, task designers have to design input, goals, roles, and settings involved in speaking. One of the most important aspects to be considered is the type of talk which can give different information about the students' skill. The examples Luoma (2004) took from Brown and Yule (1983, as cited in Luoma, 2004) are description, instruction, story-telling, and opinion expressing or justification, and those from Bygate (2000) are factually oriented talk and evaluative talk. Furthermore, in designing the test task, Sweet, Reed, Lentz, and Alcaya (2014) suggest an inclusion

of various communicative functions or task types. To elaborate, a test should consist of multiple task types as well as multiple items under each task type to provide the test takers multiple fresh starts. Furthermore, not only should each test task be clearly addressed, but all the test tasks should also be naturally tied together. In addition to having multiple tasks, Skehan and Foster (1999) suggest a balance of tasks to ensure that no aspect of language is overlooked. However, regardless of whatever types of talk or communicative functions, it should be relevant to students' life so that the test can be properly contextualized (Sweet et al., 2014).

Based on the above review, a role-play activity may seem valid for allowing a two-way interactive communication. However, it may also require additional imagining skill which was beyond the scope of the speaking competence (Thornbury, 2005). For another type of test tasks, Thornbury (2005) further concerns the formal aspect of the interview. This concern is also shared by Wannaruk (2003) stating that a formal interview testing task type may not be the best possible situation to elicit students' actual English speaking ability featured with communication strategy use as it is claimed that students may be reluctant to appeal for assistance as doing so could result in getting lower scores. It is also claimed that greater nervous feeling and stress are created in an interview task (Teng, 2007). A monologue is also suggested as it allows test takers to produce extended turns. However, it fails to allow spontaneous interaction where meaning can be cooperatively negotiated. This notion is also supported by the shortcoming which results from Prebianca and Fortkamp's (2007) use of a monologic communication task as narration. As a result, a collaborative discussion conversation task where test takers interact with fellow test takers has been adopted (Hughes, 2013). Thornbury (2005) has pointed out advantages of the

discussion or collaboration task as follows. Firstly, it allows a real-life interaction. Secondly, it allows the test takers to focus more on the task to achieve the assigned goals rather than on the speaking ability itself, which has a positive effect on reducing test anxiety.

The second aspect to be considered in designing a test is the level of difficulty. Difficulty level depends on task complexity, task familiarity, cognitive complexity, and planning time (Luoma, 2004). Generally, a test task or function and test content or topic employed should be the ones that do not cause difficulty to perform in the test takers' L1 (Hughes, 2013). In other words, the familiarity in task and topic should be high or the task or topic chosen should appeal to students. Alternatively, test content or topic can be chosen based on its relevance to the benchmark or curriculum.

Next, the third aspect (Luoma, 2004) to be considered in designing a test is the number of examinees participating in a task: individual, pair, or group. This is because what each examinee brings to the table may affect other examinees' performance. Other aspects to be considered in designing a test are whether it requires test takers to perform a stand-alone skill or integrated skills, and whether the test is to be administered in a live or tape-based mode.

Finally, test length is another aspect involved in designing a test. An approximate duration of ten to 15 minutes is suggested (Hughes, 2013) and employed (Nakamura, 2003; Teng, 2007).

In the present study, a direct test was developed including multiple collaborative discussion tasks. The developed test required two test takes to make an interactive communication on students' familiar topics for the duration of ten to 15 minutes.

2.1.6.2 Rubric Development

Besides the test itself, the test rubric is another important document used in the process of evaluating English speaking ability. In scoring or rating speaking ability, according to Bailey (2005), attention should be paid to what is intended to be assessed, or the purpose of the test including information about course objectives and targeted proficiency as well as its underlying theory (Knight, 1992). In addition to the purpose of the test, as Bailey (2005) adds, attention should also be paid to testing washback, or what is expected to be received from administering the test.

To determine test takers' ability, their performance can be observed systematically with a range of instruments such as a rating scale, an observation chart, an assessment checklist, a direction card, and self-assessment. Generally, all the aforementioned evaluation instruments share some common characteristics while also consist of other characteristics unique to only particular instruments. As a result, characteristics deemed beneficial in facilitating a consistent rating should be included to complement the most suitable rubric possible. To begin with, a rating scale is a set of scoring guidelines for evaluating a performance. It consists of scales and descriptions to each level of the performance. As for an observation chart, direction card, and assessment checklist, they consist of a list of observable behaviors that test takers are expected to perform. It is said to help make the rating quick, easy, objective, and, thus, efficient by setting all the expected behaviors apart. Basically, the listed behaviors can be observed whether they are present or absent, and whether they are performed with or without ease.

To further enhance reliability in the test result, Thornbury (2005) suggests that there should be more than one rater. Reliability can be further enhanced if raters receive training beforehand although no difference at a significant level may be found in test results rated by trained and untrained raters (Chuang, 2009).

2.1.7 Related Research

Due to its importance, English speaking ability has earned its place not only in the realm of language use but also in terms of language teaching. A number of research studies have yielded information on characteristics of authentic speech products which are featured with communication strategies. Several studies have been conducted to investigate speech products produced by L2 learners of English. Furthermore, a number of studies have been conducted to determine potential improvement in English speaking skill enhanced by the teaching and the use of communication strategies. Unfortunately, a consensus on such potential enhancement could not be reached. As a result, benefits of teaching and using communication strategies to enhance English speaking ability remain inconclusive and, thus, need further investigation.

Characteristics of authentic speech product are one of the aspects being studied to build up literature regarding English speaking ability. Examples of such studies are those research studies conducted by Yaqubi and Doqaruni (2009) and Meyerhoff (2009). Both studies were carried out to investigate characteristics of authentic speech products. The difference lies mainly in the fact that while Yaqubi and Doqaruni's (2009) study yields information on characteristics of authentic speech

product produced by EFL teachers, Meyerhoff's (2009) study sheds light on characteristics of authentic speech products produced by EFL learners.

Yaqubi and Doqaruni (2009) investigated the relationship between communication strategy use and different context types in EFL classrooms. By observing, audio-recording, and transcribing 15 lessons of a total number of 27 hours taught at two private institutes by five male Iranian teachers who were not aware that their strategy use was being observed, interesting patterns of different strategy use in different context types by different teachers were observed. The implication of the study is threefold. Firstly, since it is practical for language teachers to utilize communication strategies when producing an oral speech in the target language, language learners should not be expected to produce a strategy-free speech. Secondly, since approximation could be of benefit across context types, namely material oriented context, teacher-oriented context, and learner-oriented context, as found in the study, it deserves to be explicitly taught to L2 learners. Thirdly, although communication strategies should be encouraged to teach and use, L2 users' language competence should not be judged simply according to the frequency of strategy use as the users with high language competence may not always need strategies to compensate for any gap in their language competence. To sum up, EFL learners should be taught and encouraged to use communication strategies, particularly approximation. However, their English speaking ability should not be assessed solely based on their strategy use frequency.

In the second study previously mentioned, Meyerhoff (2009) investigated effects of teaching a communication strategy namely discourse markers to 16 university students from three different majors in Japan. As an out-of-class

assignment, the students recorded their response to a lesson-related question. Then their recorded responses were transcribed and analyzed. The implication of the study is twofold. Firstly, it was detected that some students had planned a script to be read while recording, although they were not directed to do so. This suggests that EFL learners should be taught and encouraged to use communication strategies, especially when the ability to conduct a spontaneous conversation is an ultimate goal in language learning. This is because they are not only a natural component of a spontaneous speech but can also be conducive to language learning being an available tool for language learners to take risks and learn the language. Secondly, effectiveness of language learning as well as language use should not be assessed based solely or primarily on accuracy or complexity, as a negative correlation was found between the aforementioned two variables. To illustrate, when a speech production became more complex, the speech product was perceived less accurate. Rather than placing the focus on accuracy and complexity, mutual understanding at the communication end should be more valued.

Yaqubi and Doqaruni's (2009) study and Meyerhoff's (2009) study have revealed the nature of authentic speech products. Although their English language proficiency could be different, both EFL teachers and learners in those studies employed communication strategies in their oral production. Furthermore, implications from these two studies are that communication strategies, particularly approximation, should be taught to EFL learners as these strategies can be advantageous to English language use. However, despite such encouragement in teaching communication strategies, EFL learners' speaking ability should not be assessed only based on frequency of communication strategy use as users with high

language competence may not always need strategies to compensate for any gap in their language competence. Their speaking ability should not be assessed based merely on lexical complexity or grammar accuracy either as those aspects have a negative correlation with natural speech production. As a result, those aspects should not be the only criteria used in authentic oral production assessment.

As communication strategies are found to be one of the most important characteristics of oral production of language users regardless of their L2 proficiency, communication strategies have been another aspect being investigated with regard to English speaking ability. As a result, communication strategy use has been studied extensively across EFL context.

Communication strategy use in oral production was investigated by Prebianca and Fortkamp (2007) and Jamshidnejad (2011). Both studies were conducted in an EFL context. However, while Prebianca and Fortkamp (2007) investigated communication strategy use in English oral production of native speakers of Portuguese, Jamshidnejad (2011) investigated communication strategy use in oral production of Iranian EFL learners.

In order to investigate communication strategy use in EFL oral production, Prebianca and Fortkamp (2007) audio-recorded, transcribed, and analyzed narrative-based speech products of 30 native speakers of Portuguese. The implication of the study is twofold. In terms of language instruction, EFL learners should be taught communication strategies to enhance oral production. To be precise, the achievement type of communication strategies should be introduced and encouraged to be employed as it was found that the EFL learners participating in the study tended to use the reduction type of communication strategies which, in fact, is not as productive

as the achievement one. In terms of research methodology, rather than relying on a monologic communication as narration, an interactive communication should be adopted to assess interactive oral communication as well as to allow negotiation types of communication strategies to be used and assessed.

While a large number of researchers focused primarily on frequency of communication strategy use, Jamshidnejad (2011) conducted a study in this regard in a qualitative manner. The participants of the study were 13 Iranian EFL university student volunteers majoring in English. Group discussions of two to three male and female students on topics of their interests were audio-recorded and transcribed. The implication of the study is that the benefit of communication strategies does not present itself only to low language achievers to pursue a meaningful communication. Communication strategies also benefit language learners with high language ability in further enhancing language learning as well as language accuracy.

Prebianca and Fortkamp's (2007) study and Jamshidnejad's (2011) study have confirmed the benefit of communication strategy use towards EFL oral production. According to them, certain communication strategies, particularly achievement strategies, should be taught to EFL learners, including high proficiency language learners who have less need in compensating for language knowledge gaps. Jamshidnejad's (2011) study has also proved that communication strategy use not only enhances oral communication, but it can also enhance language learning promoting accuracy, particularly in advanced learners. Furthermore, implications from Prebianca and Fortkamp's (2007) study also raised awareness of further research methodology. That is, the task type used in assessing EFL oral production should be interactive rather than monologic in nature.

Communication strategy use in EFL oral production has also been investigated in the Thai context. Examples of studies investigating the aforementioned aspect are those undertaken by Luangsaengthong (2002), Wannaruk (2003), Chuanchaisit and Prapphal (2009), and Somsai and Intaraprasert (2011).

Luangsaengthong (2002) investigated communication strategy use of Thai EFL students as well as compared the use of communication strategies of students with different language achievements. By audio-recording, transcribing, and analyzing the speech products of 60 first-year Chulalongkorn University students describing three pictures within 60 minutes, she found that the students with different language ability levels used strategies differently in terms of frequency and type. The implication of the study is that oral proficiency should not be assessed based only on frequency of communication strategy use, as it was not the students with high or low but average language ability who employed communication strategies most frequently. However, communication strategy use should be encouraged, especially among students with low language ability, as it was found that the students with low language ability tended to use L1-based strategies instead of L2-based strategies which could be used as a tool to maintain engagement or participation in language class activities. As a result, L2-based communication strategies should be taught and promoted to allow L2 learners to make the effort in language learning as well as language use.

Believing in the benefit of communication strategies to English speaking ability, Wannaruk (2003) investigated the use of communication strategies of Thai university EFL students by recording and transcribing interviews with a native English teacher of 75 students. The study not only provides information useful for

future language instruction, but also yields suggestions on methodology in conducting further research and assessment. Firstly, in terms of instruction, communication strategies, particularly L2-based strategies and modification devices, should be taught to EFL students, especially those with low language ability, as it has been found that the low language ability students rely predominantly on L1-based strategies and message abandonment. Research has suggested that these L2-based strategies be introduced through an audio-visual instructional material and practiced through story-telling and picture description activities. Moreover, by explicitly teaching or introducing communication strategies, learner awareness can be raised with teachers' positive attitude towards communication strategy use. This awareness may encourage communication strategy use leading to more speaking and learning. Secondly, in terms of research methodology or assessment, a formal interview testing task type may not be the best possible situation to elicit students' actual English speaking ability featured with communication strategy use. This is because it is claimed that students may be reluctant to appeal for assistance for fear of being evaluated as incompetent. In addition, based on the perception of the native English teacher who conducted the interviews, a more appropriate and effective approach of time-gaining and appealing for assistance needs to be developed to avoid annoyance or misunderstanding in an interlocutor's part.

With the belief that inefficiency in using communication strategies is the cause of oral communication problems for low ability EFL students, Chuanchaisit and Prapphal (2009) investigated communication strategies used by Thai university language students particularly those with low ability. The study sheds light on the following aspects regarding English speaking ability. Firstly, in terms of research

methodology, a semi-direct testing format may not be the most suitable means to deal with oral production involving communication strategy use. Such limitation from using a semi-direct test is evidenced when it failed to detect a direct use of help-seeking strategies, which required further follow-up interview to clarify this matter. Similarly, self-reported information may not yield the most accurate data concerning communication strategy use, which needs triangulation by other means of data collection. Such limitation is evidenced when inconsistency in self-reported strategy use and actual strategy use was noticed in the transcription of speech products from the speaking test. To illustrate, while there was no difference at a significant level in the use of message abandonment between high and low ability students shown in the self-reported results, the transcription revealed a dramatic use of the strategy by low language ability students. Secondly, in terms of proficiency assessment, speaking proficiency should not be evaluated based on frequency of communication strategy use. To illustrate, some of the risk-taking strategies such as paraphrasing and approximation are found to be used more often by low language ability students. This may be explained that when learners have lower language proficiency, they make more effort to solve communication problems, which results in higher frequency of strategy use. Instead, speaking proficiency should be evaluated based on whether better communication takes place. Thirdly, in terms of instruction, communication strategies should be taught especially to low language ability students who are prone to resorting to utilizing risk avoidance strategies underachieving their intended message. Despite the fact that high proficiency in the language may be a prerequisite to the use of accuracy-oriented strategies such as self-correcting, low language ability

students can also benefit from the strategies. That is, they may choose to self-correct in response to an interlocutor's reaction to solve incomprehensibility.

Believing in the benefit of communication strategies, Somsai and Intaraprasert (2011) investigated communication strategies employed by English major university students to solve breakdown in face-to-face oral communication. By conducting a one-on-one semi-structured interview in their L1 or Thai with 48 students from three universities of technology, they discovered that a wide range of communication strategies were adopted to deal with communication problems in both understanding and conveying a message. The strategies reported included various approaches of L1-based and L2-based strategies, and verbal and nonverbal strategies.

Although the findings may yield an implication that Thai EFL university students are aware of the benefits of communication strategies to enhance their oral communication, it remains inconclusive whether the strategies reported are actually used in their English oral communication. For another thing, although L1-based strategies are claimed to be useful for language learning allowing students to continue engaging in the activity, L2-based strategies should be encouraged more for its potential benefits in enhancing more language learning as well as an oral communication where interlocutors do not share a native tongue.

Although no consistent pattern of frequency in communication strategy use could be confirmed, there is a tendency that certain communication strategies, particularly less productive ones, are used over others. To further explain, while Luangsaengthong's (2002) study has revealed that low language ability students utilized communication strategies least frequently, Chuanchaisit and Praphal's (2009) study has shown otherwise. That is, Thai university EFL students with low ability

utilized communication strategies most frequently compared with students with high language ability. Furthermore, low language achievers tended to rely on less productive communication strategies being reduction and L1-based strategies when they should have relied more on L2-based strategies which would give a better chance for success in a meaningful oral communication. On the other hand, while higher language achievers tend to rely on more productive communication strategies being L2-based strategies, their oral communicative competence could even be further enhanced to another level through a more proper means of applying them to prevent annoyance or miscommunication on an interlocutor's part (Wannaruk, 2003).

Accordingly, it could be concluded from the aforementioned three studies that L2-based communication strategies should be taught and their use encouraged. As a result, EFL learners could be equipped with a better tool to deal with oral communication breakdown rather than relying on reduction strategies which are hardly conducive to communication, or L1-based and non-linguistic communication strategies which may not always be applicable across situations.

Further implications from these studies concern means of assessment. Firstly, despite the aforementioned encouragement in teaching and using communication strategies, English speaking ability should not be assessed based solely on frequency of communication strategy use. Rather, it should be assessed based on whether a mutual understanding is achieved or better communication has resulted. Secondly, a proper task type as well as affective atmosphere is a prerequisite when assessing speaking ability. Otherwise, negative atmosphere may interfere with the students' actually language competence. Finally, when conducting research by means of self-

report, caution needs to be made. Triangulation may be necessary in order to enhance validity in the findings.

In addition to the aforementioned aspects being researched into, components contributing to development of English speaking ability especially of Thai EFL students have also been investigated by Getmanee (2005) who collected a survey questionnaire from 275 undergraduate students, and found that in order to enhance English speaking ability, simply focusing on a cognitive aspect being actual oral ability is inadequate. An affective aspect also deserves to be enhanced. To illustrate, learners' previous experience, including low English achievement, may increase the anxiety level, which, in turn, discourages further practice. On the other hand, if learners' positive attitude is enhanced, such low achievement may not be perceived as completely negative. Instead, the sense of confidence in their ability should be enhanced to give them the power to put more effort into learning and practicing until they actually possess their desired English speaking ability.

The aforementioned literature review regarding characteristics of authentic speech products featured with communication strategies, speech products produced by L2 learners of English, and potential means of English speaking improvement, has proved the place for communication strategy use in actual communication. It also supports the notion that teaching communication strategies is an alternative in improving students' English speaking ability. Accordingly, communication strategies were integrated into the present study.

2.2 English Speaking Confidence

As mentioned in the previous section, affective conditions also play a crucial role in speaking ability development. One of the affective conditions being confidence is the main focus in this section. To understand the concept of English speaking confidence, this section first paves its way on an overall concept of affects in language learning. It then explores definitions of English speaking confidence, and how it has been assessed. Finally, related research in this regard is also reviewed.

2.2.1 Affects in Language Learning

An overview of affects in language learning is provided by Arnold and Brown (1999) who broadly define affects in language learning as emotions, feelings, or attitudes, which influence language learning behaviors. This indicates that simply developing cognitive aspects of language learning as English speaking ability is inadequate; thus, affective aspects also need to be considered in order to enhance success in language education.

To enhance success in language education, negative affects such as anxiety, fear, stress, and shame must be eliminated, while positive affects such as self-esteem, empathy, motivation, happiness, and enjoyment must be elevated (Arnold & Brown, 1999). This notion is consistent with Krashen and Terrel's (1983, as cited in Arnold & Brown, 1999) affective filter hypothesis that the lower the affective filter is, the more chance language learners are to learn. Numerous studies have paid attention to negative affects such as anxiety or communication apprehension (Y. Cheng, 2001; Hadziosmanovic, 2012; Izadi & Atasheneh, 2012; Koçak, 2010; H. Liu, 2012; Ohata, 2005; Rashidi, Yamini, & Shafiei, 2011; Tianjian, 2010; Tsiplakides & Keramida,

2009; Woodrow, 2006) and reticence (X. Cheng, 2000; Harumi, 2010; M. Liu, 2005; Zhang & Head, 2010). In contrast, only a few studies have focused on positive affects such as self-efficacy (Templin, Guile, & Okuma, 2001), while, in theory, more attention should be paid to developing positive affects. This is because long-term effectiveness in language learning is a result of learning in a positive classroom environment rather than in an absence of negative affects (Skinner, 1957, as cited in Arnold & Brown, 1999).

As for negative affects, they are likely to take place in communicative activities in which most students tend to lack previous experience. This may be due to the probability that most students have been bombarded with the grammar-translation instructional approach that still prevails.

An example of negative affects is inhibition. When trying to communicate, L2 learners choose not to take risks so as not to make mistakes. This is because making mistakes can negatively affect their perception of self. However, as taking risks and making mistakes are a crucial part of the language learning process, awareness of acceptability of mistakes especially in initial learning phases needs to be raised, along with possibility of self-monitoring and acceptability of self-modification. Only with an absence of inhibition can a spontaneous communication take place. Alternatively, in reducing inhibition, attempts could also be made to increase self-esteem and motivation.

Self-esteem relies on self-evaluation based on previous experiences. The higher self-esteem a person has, the more risks a person is willing to take, as well as the more learning a person will acquire. Self-esteem is divided into three levels: global, situational, and task (H. D. Brown, 2000). The latter level is closely related to

self-efficacy which is one cognitive theory of motivation. Self-efficacy is defined as a perception in the ability to carry on a certain task. It is suggested that activities that can provide students a sense of control will enhance self-efficacy. Teaching learning strategies is one of them as learners can develop autonomy and set personal goals as well as building a sense of control in order to elevate self-efficacy.

To sum up, success in language learning cannot rely only on cognitive development. Affective development plays as much, if not more, significant role in language learning achievement. This is because certain affect leads to certain learning behaviors. To illustrate, negative affects such as anxiety and inhibition play a detrimental role in language learning by preventing learners from performing productive language learning behaviors. In contrast, positive affects such as self-esteem and motivation play a supportive role in language learning by encouraging learners to take risks participating spontaneously in communicative tasks which can be highly beneficial to achievement in language learning.

Regarding students' self-evaluation, it can be evaluation of themselves as a person, of themselves in a particular situation, or of themselves performing a particular task. In the same way, learners' self-evaluation plays an influential role when pursuing certain learning behaviors. For example, learners who evaluate themselves as having adequate ability to perform a task tend to put an effort into pursuing the task. In contrast, learners who evaluate themselves as not having adequate ability to perform a task tend to remain in their illusive comfort yet unproductive learning zone regardless of their actual language ability. When considering how powerful self-evaluation can be in directing language learners to learning achievement, it can be concluded that students should be taught strategies to

be used to facilitate learning attempts as well as to encourage positive self-evaluation, which will ultimately enhance language learning.

As in a limited scope of sphere, the focused affect in language learning in the scope of the present study was learner positive self-evaluation towards performing a particular task, or how students felt about their English speaking ability.

2.2.2 Definitions of English Speaking Confidence

English speaking confidence is referred to as state communicative self-confidence (MacIntyre, Dornyei, Clément, & Noels, 1998). It is defined as a transient feeling of confidence as opposed to trait self-confidence which is rather stable regardless of different situational contexts. State communicative self-confidence is a combination of state anxiety and state perceived competence. State anxiety is defined as a momentary negative emotional reaction being tension or apprehension. Possible causes of state anxiety are unpleasant previous experience, intergroup tension, and the increasing number of conversation partners (Spielberger, 1983, as cited in MacIntyre et al., 1998). The second component forming state communicative self-confidence is state perceived competence. It is defined as a momentary perception of communicative competence. Previous communicative experience plays a powerful role in influencing state perceived competence to be enhanced or otherwise. However, perceived improvement or development in the skill, or perceived ability to compensate for competence gaps, can lead to enhanced state perceived competence despite having a negative previous communicative experience. The absence of previous communicative experience can also yield a detrimental effect since a person has no base information to estimate the ability to pursue a certain communicative task.

This explains the situation when EFL learners tend not to be confident to carry out spontaneous communication when no prior experience or preparation is available (Clement, 1980, 1986, as cited in MacIntyre et al., 1998).
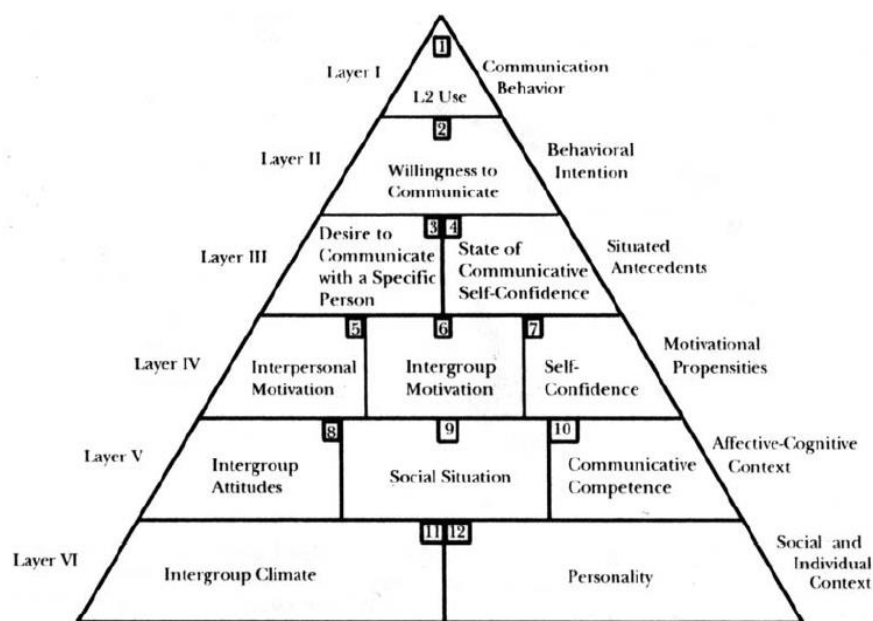
Figure 2.6. Model of variables influencing willingness to communicate (WTC) (MacIntyre et al., 1998).

As can be seen in Figure 2.6, along with a desire to communicate with a specific person, state communicative self-confidence is placed at the bottom of situation-specific influence in MacIntyre et al.'s (1998) model of variables influencing willingness to communicate (WTC). That is, the degree of state communicative self-confidence and desire to communicate can be altered upon different situational contexts. These two variables have a direct influence on willingness or intention to communicate. Eventually, as depicted in the model, the WTC will directly influence L2 communication behavior which is an ultimate goal in language learning, albeit, rare to achieve.

In addition to influencing other variables being WTC and L2 use, state communicative self-confidence is also influenced by other variables which are rather stable regardless of different situational contexts (MacIntyre et al., 1998). These variations include those at the level of motivational propensities, affective-cognitive context, and social and individual contexts. However, considering definitions as well as positions of some variables, they seem to have no or minimal influence on state of communicative self-confidence while the others may be irrelevant to EFL context or are hardly changeable. Therefore, this literature review will focus only on the variables that seem to have a direct influence on state of communicative self-confidence and/or seem to be changeable considering different circumstances. Consequently, this review of literature will focus only on the following variables: L2 self-confidence, communicative competence, and social situations.

Firstly, L2 self-confidence is believed to have a full impact on state communicative self-confidence. L2 self-confidence is defined as an overall belief in an effective L2 communicative ability. It is based on judgment of proficiency and feeling of apprehension. Despite having similar components being competence and anxiety, L2 self-confidence differs from state communicative confidence in alterability. While state communicative self-confidence can be altered momentarily upon changes in a situation, L2 self-confidence is rather stable in almost any circumstance.

Secondly, communicative competence or L2 proficiency includes linguistic competence, discourse competence, actional or pragmatic competence, socio or sociocultural competence, and strategic competence. Especially in the case of L2 users whose competence in each of the communicative competence tends not to be

flawless, it is assumed that the latter, strategic competence, has a significant role in building L2 self-confidence.

Finally, social situation also partially influences L2 self-confidence. Although when narrowing down the scope of social situation, classroom context is, in the same way, asserted to be influenced by social contexts (Tsui, 2001). Variations in classroom interaction include the following aspects.

The first aspect of variation in classroom interaction involves task type particularly referring to the number of participants (Tsui, 2001), which can be a pair, group, and whole class task. Regarding participants in social situation of Thai EFL context, different types of participants should also be included. This is because the status of being a teacher also partakes in influencing English speaking confidence. As a result, the matter of the type of participants was also included as the second factor influencing English speaking confidence in the present study.

The third aspect of variation in classroom interaction is by whom a speaking turn is allocated or taken (Tsui, 2001). To elaborate upon this matter, Tsui (2001) refers to Seligers' (1977, as cited in Tsui, 2001) concept of Low Input Generators (LIGs) and High Input Generators (HIGs). While LIGs refers to a speaking turn allocated by an interlocutor, HIGs refers to a speaking turn taken by a speaker her/himself. That is, variations in classroom interaction can occur when a speaker is speaking in response to being called upon, in response to questions or thought without being called upon, or to initiate questions or thought without being called upon.

To sum up, English speaking confidence plays an important role in influencing students' actual English speaking. The degree of English speaking confidence varies in different situations where anxiety and communicative competence are perceived

differently. Variations in the degree of anxiety and perceived competence are influenced by other variables. These variables include L2 self-confidence, communicative competence, social situation, personality, interpersonal and intergroup motivation, and intergroup attitude and climate. L2 self-confidence which is directly influenced by communicative competence has a complete and direct influence on state communicative self-confidence. While social situation has a partial and indirect influence on state communicative self-confidence, personality has the least indirect influence on state communicative self-confidence. The last four variables have more impact on desire to speak with a specific person from different language backgrounds. As a result, they are not applicable in EFL context and, thus, have been disregarded.

Hence, in the scope of the present study, the degree of English speaking confidence was changeable upon different situations where anxiety and communicative competence were perceived differently. As the present study focused on an EFL classroom context, relevant social situations of investigation included only certain participants and functions. Regarding participants, it included only a Thai EFL teacher and students sharing a common mother tongue. As for the number of participants, variations included two people as in a pair speaking interaction, three to six people as in a group speaking interaction, and more than six people as in a whole class speaking interaction. Variations of social situation regarding functions included whether a student was speaking in response to being called upon, in response to questions or thought without being called upon, or to initiate questions or thought without being called upon.

2.2.3 Speaking Confidence Assessment

To be able to speak English, confidence in doing so is important (Bygate, 2000). This section explores existing research instruments used to assess English speaking confidence so that the information could be used in developing a data collection instrument to assess English speaking confidence in the present study.

English speaking confidence has been investigated in many studies mainly through questionnaires. Students tend to be asked to rate their confidence degree corresponding to statements such as how confident they are when being interviewed by a foreigner. Furthermore, interview questions are also used in a number of studies. English speaking confidence is also qualitatively investigated through observation yielding information based on teachers' perspectives. The followings are two examples of the instruments used to assess English speaking confidence.

2.2.3.1 Confidence in Speaking English as a Foreign Language Questionnaire v.3 (CSEFL)

The first example of such instruments is Confidence in Speaking English as a Foreign Language Questionnaire v.3 (CSEFL) developed by Griffee (1997) purposefully for Japanese university students in Japan. It was also adopted by Kubo (2009) to investigate changes in English speaking confidence as a result of a particular instruction to Japanese college students. By reviewing literature on psychological construct and brainstorming with teacher colleagues from both genders, constructs of confidence in speaking English as a foreign language have been yielded. They are ability and assurance. To elaborate, ability refers to a command of grammar,

vocabulary, and pronunciation, while assurance refers to a feeling of security and comfort in speaking English.

2.2.3.2 Foreign Language Classroom Speaking Confidence (FLCSC)

The second example of the instruments used to assess English speaking confidence is Foreign Language Classroom Speaking Confidence (FLCSC) (Apple, 2011). It was also purposively developed to be used with university students in Japan. Two constructs pertain to the measurement of English speaking confidence in this particular language classroom setting. They are Foreign Language Classroom Speaking Anxiety (FLCSA) and Perceived Foreign Language Speaking Self-Competence (PFLSS). Each of the aforementioned constructs is further elaborated as follows.

Regarding Foreign Language Classroom Speaking Anxiety (FLCSA), it consists of 11 items measuring anxiety towards using English with classmates in a foreign language classroom setting. Terms used to elicit perceived anxiety were 'worried,' 'nervous,' 'tense,' 'afraid,' and 'a pounding heart' to indicate feeling when carrying out various classroom tasks related to speaking, making mistakes, expressing opinions, and discussing.

As for Perceived Foreign Language Speaking Self-Competence (PFLSS), it consists of six 'I can' statements measuring self-perceived English speaking competence. Tasks included are self-introduction, self-related information sharing, giving a speech, and giving a presentation.

2.2.3.3 Summary of English Speaking Confidence Assessment

To sum up, English speaking confidence can be assessed based on two major constructs namely how language learners feel about their English speaking ability, and how they feel when speaking English. Regarding perceived speaking self-competence, they can be asked to assess their English speaking ability in various task types, namely introduction, interview, opinion expression, discussion, information sharing, and giving a speech or a presentation. Regarding feeling, they can be asked to assess their feeling when speaking English whether they feel positive as 'relaxed' or 'cheerful,' or negative as 'worried,' 'nervous,' 'tense,' 'anxious,' and with 'a pounding heart.' As a result, these two aforementioned constructs can be used to assess English speaking confidence.

In the present study, English Speaking Confidence Scale was purposefully developed to assess English speaking confidence of the student participants.

2.2.4 Related Research

Being equally important, if not more important than the cognitive aspect of English speaking ability improvement, affective aspects have also been ones of researchers' interests in the field of language learning. Particular affects in language learning have been studied. To start with, language learner belief in language learning has been investigated. Furthermore, various means of the enhancement of the English speaking confidence have also been experimented to find effective means in this regard.

To start with, Thai EFL learners' beliefs about language learning were revealed in a study conducted by Fujiwara (2011). A Thai language version of

Horwitz's 25-item Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory (BALLI) was administered to 542 male and female first-year university students from science-related fields of study. A practical implication of this study is that simply providing practice opportunities is inadequate to support language learning. The study showed that only a few participants believed in their own possession of the ability to improve English speaking ability, only half of the participants believed that they would learn to speak well, and the majority of the participants felt timid speaking English with other people. Consequently, a sense of confidence in their ability to learn and practice speaking needs to be enhanced to encourage actual practice and language use. Furthermore, as the study revealed the participants' negative attitude towards making mistakes, a positive attitude towards learning from mistakes needs to be raised as it is a crucial part of language learning. Risk taking strategies, particularly L2-based strategies in contrast to L1-based strategies such as translation, need to be encouraged so learners could actually take risks. This could be a sound opportunity to develop language proficiency.

With an attempt to enhance oral participation of Thai EFL learners, D. Brown (2006) experimented with a rewarding system with 61 university students in two intermediate English conversation classes. The implication of the study is that positive affects in language learning can be promoted in a language classroom. Enhancing an extrinsic motivation can be a starting point. Once students' motivation is clear, they will participate more. With more participation, learning can be more fun. Then, more practice can be carried out. With more practice, stress in speaking can be decreased, as the study's survey results revealed that almost all of the students perceived that

their learning was more fun, and that the majority reported being less stressed when speaking. Eventually, their English speaking skill can be enhanced.

Regarding means of enhancing English speaking confidence, efforts in this regard are evidenced in numerous studies such as those conducted by Kubo (2009) and Mir (2006).

With an interest in building confidence and fluency, Kubo (2009) conducted a study to explore effects of pair-taping practice by L2 female English literature first-year college students attending an oral communication class. Students were required to record their weekly 23-minute two-way conversations for 22 weeks. Together with the recorded tape, the students were also required to submit a reflection form reflecting on their strengths and weaknesses. While speaking fluency was assessed by means of word count, speaking confidence was measured with Griffee's (1997) Confidence in Speaking English as a Foreign Language Questionnaire. Data on confidence were also triangulated with qualitative data derived from an open-ended questionnaire requiring students to give a comment on the comparison of their speaking ability before and after taking the course. The implication of the study is that, although not explicitly claimed, it is hypothesized that improvement, particularly in speaking confidence, can be influenced by an element of strategy instruction being reflection upon language use.

Another example of the attempt to enhance English speaking confidence along with speaking fluency was a study conducted by Mir (2006). To enhance self-confidence along with speaking fluency, Mir (2006) introduced oral journals as an assignment in a foreign language conversation class. Students were required to keep a weekly ten-to-15-minute oral journal on topics of their interest. Then they would

exchange their oral journal tapes where they could record responses in a fashion of delayed-informal conversation. With the purpose of enhancing self-confidence and fluency rather than accuracy as previously mentioned, students' oral production was assessed based on completion and effort put forth. The study has yielded several implications for further research.

Firstly, it is hypothesized that a strategy instructional component being reflection upon language use takes part in enhancing English speaking confidence. Based on Mir's (2006) observation, the students had gained more confidence after the oral journal keeping which allowed them to realize how much and how easy they could speak, and how enjoyable speaking the target language could be. Through self-reflection, students could perceive enjoyment in speaking as well as their ability in doing so with concrete evidence. As a result, such evidence or experience could present itself as a baseline upon which commitment in future practice could develop.

Secondly, the concept of the correlation between confidence and fluency is emphasized. As a result, to enhance confidence in language use, fluency should be set as a primary concern, in contrast to a more prominent belief in focusing on accuracy.

Despite a slight difference in the assignment description, an integration of a strategy instructional component was apparent in both aforementioned studies. While Mir's (2006) students were assigned to carry on the task individually, Kubo's (2009) students were assigned to carry on the task in pairs. Despite such a difference, students in both studies were assigned to reflect upon their language use.

A review of literature regarding affects in language learning particularly L2 confidence has proved the significance in the attempt to contribute enhancement in

this regard. As a result, English speaking confidence was one of the aspects addressed in the present study.

2.3. Strategy Instruction

As evidenced in the previous sections, the integration of strategies into language instruction takes part in enhancing speaking ability, and the integration of a strategy instructional component also plays a crucial part in speaking confidence development. To better understand how to develop the Communication Strategy Instruction integrating strategy instructional components, this section will explore aspects of strategy instruction, namely definitions, instructional models, and related research.

2.3.1 Definitions of Strategy Instruction

Strategy instruction is simply defined as an instructional model in which students are taught strategies (Luke, 2006), how strategies can be identified (Cohen, 2008), and how and when strategies can be used (Beckman, 2002). Also, students' awareness of strategies is raised (Kinoshita, 2003). Through strategy instruction, not only will students' awareness in their general learning preferences be raised (Cohen, 2008), but students' personal effective strategies will also be identified (Beckman, 2002). Strategies are not only introduced but are also practiced before the students evaluate their strategy use (Cohen, 2008; Kinoshita, 2003). In terms of practice, Luke (2006) adds that opportunities to practice should be amply provided along with continued guidance rather than practicing independently. Through practice, students receive reinforcement in strategy use, which supposedly results in automacy,

transferability, and autonomy in strategy use. Regarding automacy, through practice, the use of newly learned strategies would be integrated with students' previous behavior to become part of students' strategic behavior where strategies can be used automatically when needed. As for transferability, it is expected that, as a result of strategy instruction, students will be able to use strategies not only in class where strategies are taught but also in other contexts. With transferability, autonomous use of strategies is expected to emerge and result in students' continuing using even beyond their classroom.

In the scope of the present study, strategy instruction not only taught strategies but also gave opportunities for students to practice using strategies as well as to evaluate their strategy use. This practice opportunity was fully integrated into the mainstream instruction of the Experiential English course. Strategy use practice evolved around topics and/or assignments originated from the mainstream curriculum. This was to promote transferability to new tasks in their language classroom. Along with ample opportunities to promote automacy in strategy use, teacher support in the form of guidance or evaluation was gradually removed to promote autonomy in strategy use.

3.3.2 Instructional Models of Strategy Instruction

There have been variations in teaching strategies. This section will first look at traditional frameworks of strategy instruction. It will then move on to more recent frameworks of strategy instruction afterwards.

3.3.2.1 Traditional Frameworks of Strategy Instruction

Several frameworks for teaching strategies compiled by Cohen (1999, 2008) are derived from Pearson and Dole (1987, as cited in Cohen, 1999), Oxford et al. (1990, as cited in Cohen, 1999), Chamot and O'Malley (1994, as cited in Cohen, 1999), Chamot and Rubin (1994, as cited in Cohen, 2008), and Chamot et al. (1999, as cited in Cohen, 2008). These frameworks share some common aspects of strategy instruction but also consist of some aspects unique to only particular frameworks. To start with, Pearson and Dole (1987, as cited in Cohen, 1999) include the stage of teacher modeling where a direct explanation of strategy use and its importance is presented. Then the stage of both guided and independent practice follows allowing scaffolding where teachers assist in identifying and deciding when to use strategies. Finally, the last aspect included in Pearson and Dole's (1987, as cited in Cohen, 1999) framework is students' ability to transfer strategy use to new tasks. Similarly, Chamot et al. (1999, as cited in Cohen, 2008) lists the stage of modeling or presenting, practice, scaffolding, and transferring. A slightly different concept in the stage of practice and scaffolding is noticed. Chamot et al. (1999 cited in Cohen, 2008) points out that multiple practices should be provided to develop autonomy in strategy use and that teacher scaffolding should be gradually withdrawn. As a result, students could have adequate initial support from the teachers and gradually depend more on themselves to be able to use strategies autonomously.

In addition to those slight variations, Chamot et al. (1999, as cited in Cohen, 2008) also includs the stages of awareness-raising, and self-monitoring and evaluation. The aspect of awareness-raising, missing in Pearson and Dole's (1987, as cited in Cohen, 1999) framework, seems to play a very significant initial role in

strategy instruction as it is included in every of the rest of the frameworks compiled by Cohen (1999, 2008). The purpose of the stage of awareness-raising is to help students be aware of their actual strategy use upon which strategies from strategy instruction will be built. Awareness-raising can be done by having students carry out a certain task, discuss, and reflect on the process involved in achieving the task goal. The other aspect missing from Pearson and Dole's (1987, as cited in Cohen, 1999) framework is self-monitoring and evaluation. Students need to be taught to monitor their strategy use during their opportunity to practice and to evaluate their strategy use after they finish the task. Self-monitoring and evaluation of their strategy use play an important role in showing students transferability in applying strategies in other contexts. The lack of some important aspects in these frameworks signifies the need for in-depth investigation and appropriate combination of all the important aspects constituting strategies instruction. Therefore, the most suitable instructional model for strategy instruction could be developed.

A review of the aforementioned frameworks of strategy instruction can be summarized as follows. Important aspects of strategy instruction include awareness-raising, presentation, practice opportunity, monitoring and evaluation, transferability, and scaffolding. While it is possible for each of these aspects to be carried out separately and sequentially, scaffolding should have its involvement in most, if not all, of the aspects with gradually decreasing degree. To illustrate, full support in scaffolding should be available at the initial practice phase and gradually decreased later on to encourage autonomous use of strategies. However, before conceptualizing a framework for the strategy instructional model in the present study, more recent literature is also reviewed.

3.3.2.2 More Recent Frameworks of Strategy Instruction

Several frameworks for strategy instruction from more recent literature are reviewed here. These include frameworks from Manchon (2000), Armbruster, Lehr, and Osborn (2001), Beckman (2002), Rieger (2003), J. Williams (2006), and The University of Nebraska Lincoln (2012). Similar to frameworks of strategy instruction reviewed earlier, these frameworks share some common aspects of strategy instruction as well as consist of some aspects unique to only certain frameworks. To start with, all of these frameworks include the presentation and practice stages. Although in some frameworks being those of Manchon (2000) and Rieger (2003), the presentation stage is referred to as awareness-raising or awareness creating which focuses more on new strategies targeted to be taught rather than strategies already used by students. Nevertheless, despite what it is called, it is considered a stage of presenting strategies, their benefit, and how and when the strategies can be used. The second aspect included in every one of the aforementioned frameworks is practice opportunity. It is suggested that through communicative activities, guided practice should be provided before more independent practice is supplemented. Similarly, opportunities to practice using specific strategies should precede opportunities to practice using integrated strategies. Especially during this practice stage, teacher support is highlighted. Rieger (2003) suggests that teachers could support strategy use by encouraging students to take risks and use strategies, while The University of Nebraska Lincoln (2012) has suggested that teachers adopt a monitoring role in students' performance.

Another additional aspect of strategy instruction is background knowledge awareness-raising. The University of Nebraska Lincoln's (2012) and Williams'

(2006) awareness-raising differs from Manchon's (2000) and Rieger's (2003) awareness-raising in that it refers to students background knowledge unaffected by strategy instruction. The University of Nebraska Lincoln (2012) has pointed out that developing and activating students' background knowledge is important especially for some students who may not have adequate background knowledge. During this stage, to discover students' actual strategy use, students could be provided with an opportunity to observe a communicative performance, discuss, or brainstorm for what students do or should do in a given situation (J. Williams, 2006). In addition, it is also suggested that the terms used in strategy instruction should be made familiar to students (J. Williams, 2006).

In addition to the aspect of awareness-raising, J. Williams (2006) also adds the aspect of reflection and evaluation. After students have practiced using strategies, they can reflect on their strategy use through idea or opinion sharing and evaluate effectiveness of their strategy use. This reflection and evaluation can inform the students which strategies are most or least useful for them, or which strategies are easiest or most difficult to use. Furthermore, effectiveness in strategy use perceived from self-monitoring and evaluation will play a very influential role in adding newly learned strategies to students' strategy repertoire as well as in encouraging transferability of strategy use to other contexts beyond their classroom (Beckman, 2002).

2.3.2.3 Conceptualized Framework of Strategy Instruction

In the scope of the present study, an instructional model was called 4Ps shortened from Pre-Reflection, Presentation, Practice, and Post-Reflection. These instructional stages will be elaborated as follows.

2.3.2.3.1 Pre-Reflection

The first stage of this model of strategy instruction was Pre-Reflection. The purpose of this stage was for students to reflect on their current knowledge or behavior in strategy use to cope with communication problems. At this stage, students were given a situation to discuss or brainstorm what they did or could have done to activate their background knowledge of the target strategies. Alternatively, they were assigned a communicative task before reflecting on their strategy use in the assigned task.

2.3.2.3.2 Presentation

The second stage was Presentation. The purpose of this stage was for students to be aware of strategies which can be used to cope with communication problems. To enhance students' metacognitive thinking process as well as student active involvement, how, when, and why strategies can be used was indirectly or inductively presented. Then the target strategies were once again directly or deductively presented to enhance students' thorough understanding. At this stage, students were provided with opportunity to watch others' performance of the strategy use. Then they were asked to identify communication problems that had occurred and strategies that were used to appropriately cope with such communication problems.

Students were also asked to evaluate effectiveness or benefits of such strategy use. Students were further asked to brainstorm for other examples of such strategies before a summary of the strategies was explicitly given by the teacher.

2.3.2.3.3 Practice

Practice was the third stage of this model of strategy instruction. The purpose of this stage was for students to have a hands-on experience using strategies along with adequate support from the teacher. At this stage, students were provided with a communicative activity where they were encouraged to practice using specific strategies taught in each lesson. While students were practicing, the teacher monitored around the classroom as well as guided and provided feedback when necessary.

2.3.2.3.4 Post-Reflection

Lastly, the Post-Reflection stage came as the final stage of the 4Ps strategy instructional model. The purpose of this stage was for students to reflect on their use of newly learned strategies, to evaluate the effectiveness of the strategy use, and to decide on what to do with the strategies in the future: to practice more or to transfer to use in other contexts. At this stage, students were provided with a reflection sheet. The reflection sheet listed guided prompts for students to reflect on the strategies learned and used in that day's lesson.

A reduced sequence of 2Ps, which was composed of the two stages identically characterized as the last two stages in the 4Ps strategy instructional model, was adopted in other classes after students had received the fully-fledged 4Ps instruction

of each of the target strategies. Regarding the Practice stage, it was suggested that practice opportunity should be extensively provided with a variation in types of communication activities. Furthermore, to enhance awareness in transferability to use the strategies beyond the language classroom context, opportunities to practice using strategies were integrated into activities of the mainstream course, Experiential English. In the same fashion as when Practice and Post-Reflection stages were carried out in the fully-fledged 4Ps strategy instructional model, students had a chance to reflect upon their strategy use right after the Practice stage when they performed a communicative task. With the aspect of scaffolding in consideration, teacher support being explicit presentation of strategies and reminding of strategy use was amply provided initially. Then it was gradually withdrawn to enhance autonomous use of the strategies.

2.3.3 Related Research

Due to its promising benefit, strategy instruction has not only been practiced but also become one of educational aspects worth researching into. A number of research studies have contributed to literature in this area. To begin with, empirical evidence of practice of language teaching through a strategy instructional approach as well as the teaching of communication strategies is documented. In addition to educational practice or how strategies have been taught, the matter of the effectiveness of strategy instruction as well as whether certain strategies are teachable has also been researched into. Despite numerous attempts put forth, rooms remain for better means of both instruction and research methodology.

Attempts in teaching English through strategy instruction are observed. Examples of such studies regarding strategy instruction are those conducted by Huang and Hung (2010) and Provenzano and Yue (2011). Both studies were conducted in EFL context. The difference lies in the fact that while Huang and Hung (2010) provided strategy instruction to Taiwanese students, Provenzano and Yue (2011) provided strategy instruction to Japanese students. Despite differences in terms of settings, both studies have displayed the significance of an integration of a component in strategy instruction being reflection upon language learning and use.

An incorporation of a strategy instruction component can be observed in the attempt of Huang and Hung (2010) to enhance oral performance of 30 Taiwanese EFL junior college students. Half of the students were required to record their speech product online and to record their reflection upon the experience and speaking progress. In addition, this group of the students was also required to listen and give feedback to their peer's speech product, while the other half of the students was required to record their speech product on a CD without giving feedback to their peer.

The study yielded several implications. Firstly, EFL learners should be made aware of availability of communication strategies which can be used to revise a speech product in a real-time interaction where preparation time may not be available. Secondly, EFL learners should learn to monitor their learning progress as monitoring their own learning may contribute to improvement in their oral performance.

An incorporation of a strategy instructional component along with communication strategies can be found in the study of Provenzano and Yue (2011) to enhance fluency, motivation, and communication strategy use in English speaking of Japanese EFL university learners. One hundred and fourteen student participants were

required to hold a three-minute conversation on a lesson-related topic with a partner of their choice. The students were not required to submit any recording but they were required to fill in a form on which a record on preparation and reflection were kept.

With the study findings came implications in terms of not only instruction but also research methodology. Firstly, considering EFL learner needs, the teaching of communication strategies should be provided. Secondly, although self-assessment can be beneficial to language learning, it may not serve as the best research tool possible since cultural beliefs can play an interfering role. Furthermore, despite its promising advantage of reflection as a learning process to language development, an easy-to-use format and/or guidance in self-assessment is required to achieve its optimal benefit.

In addition to the aforementioned integration of the strategy instructional component, reflection, a direct integration of strategies into language instructional practice, can be observed in the study of Motallebzadeh (2009). With an interest in elevating speaking subtest scores of IELTS candidates, Motallebzadeh (2009) experimented on adopting learning strategies in an IELTS preparation course. The participating students' posttest scores proved an improvement at a significant level. Also, the students expressed positive attitude towards the supplemented activities involving cognitive, social, and compensatory strategies. It can be inferred from the study that various kinds of strategies including communication strategies should be taught. This is because these strategies can enhance speaking ability of EFL learners.

Besides researching into what strategies have been taught or integrated into language instruction, how strategies are taught or integrated into language instruction have also been investigated. A number of strategies, particularly communication strategies, are taught through various means of instructional approaches whose

effectiveness has also been investigated in the studies conducted by Maleki (2007), I. B. Brown (2011), Alibakhshi and Padiz (2011), Nakatani (2005, 2010), and Lam (2006, 2010), to name a few.

Maleki (2007) conducted a study to investigate the teachability of communication strategies to Iranian EFL learners. The experimental group of the participating students was taught with a strategy-based textbook including approximation, circumlocution, word coinage, appeal for assistance, foreignizing, and time-gaining, while the control group was taught with a non-strategy based textbook. Furthermore, the experimental group had gone through awareness-raising, explicit instruction, and practice stages. Their speaking test results showed that the students in the experimental group outperformed the students in the control group. From the study, it can be concluded that communication strategies should be taught to EFL learners. This is because communication strategies are teachable and by being taught, the strategies enhance learners' both speaking ability and language learning in general.

Another study providing an insight into what and how strategies were taught was conducted based on acknowledgment of the significance of strategic competence towards fluency and willingness to communicate in English. I. B. Brown (2011) investigated teachability of communication strategies through three means of instruction: involving specific linguistic item, involving model dialogues, and involving both linguistic item and model dialogues. Despite a number of limitations in the research methodology, the study has yielded insightful implication. Firstly, certain communication strategies such as using paraphrasing, fillers, hesitation devices, and clarification requests are teachable, and the strategy use could positively contribute to

speaking fluency for EFL learners. Secondly, different instructional approaches yield different results regarding communication strategy use. Thus, the study has proved that communication strategies are worth teaching, and research into the best possible approach to teach communication strategies is worth being carried out.

Not only short term but also long term effects of teaching communication strategies were investigated by Alibakhshi and Padiz (2011). A posttest and another delayed posttest were administered to the experimental group of the student participants in the study to investigate a long-term effect of the teaching. No change was found with the use of self-repair, circumlocution, word coinage, and restructuring, while differences at a significant level were found with language switch, approximation, appeal for assistance, and self-repetition. Decreases at a significant level in the use of approximation and appeal for assistance, which are considered achievement strategies, might imply that continuous teaching is needed in order to maintain the strategy use. The study yields implication both in terms of pedagogy and assessment. Regarding the pedagogical implication, communication strategies are teachable to a varying extent. Some strategies can be used automatically upon training, while other strategies may need repeated introduction or practice. As for assessment, assessing speaking ability should not rely mainly on frequency of strategy use because the increase or decrease can be a result of several reasons or factors beyond language ability.

Believing in the benefit of teaching communication strategies, Nakatani (2005) conducted a study in order to investigate effects of awareness-raising training on oral communication strategy use. The control group of the student participants was provided with communicative activities such as information-gap, while the

experimental group was also taught based on the same syllabus as the control group. However, the latter was also provided with explicit metacognitive training on oral communication strategies. The posttest scores indicated an improvement at a significant level only in the experimental group.

In addition to the aforementioned results obtained from the oral proficiency test, the research findings were also supported by the results obtained from a retrospective verbal protocol where students were asked to record intention of their strategy use. Furthermore, increases at a significant level in the use of modified interaction, modified output, time-gaining, and maintenance strategies have suggested that the strategies are teachable. However, whether the use of help-seeking and self-solving is teachable could not be confirmed in this particular study.

Building upon the contribution and implication of his previous research, Nakatani (2010) carried out another study regarding on communication strategy instruction to investigate the correlation between language ability and other variables such as strategy use. A correlation at a significant level was found between language ability and the use of responses for maintenance and signal for negotiation.

The implication of the aforementioned two studies is twofold. As for the pedagogical implication, EFL learners' speaking ability can be enhanced by the use and the teaching of certain communication strategies. As for the researching implication, since strategy use may or may not be observable, participant perception will need to be taken into consideration. However, provided that self-perceived information is not flawless and may not be accurate according to actual behavior, additional means of eliciting this sort of information will also need to be taken into

consideration to triangulate the self-perceived data and to enhance accuracy of the information.

Another attempt in enhancing speaking ability through teaching communication strategies is evidenced in the studies conducted by Lam (2006, 2010). Throughout the 20 weeks of ESL education, 16 hours of explicit oral communication strategy teaching (OCST) were provided to the experimental group of Hong Kong ESL secondary students. In contrast, mere task-based activities being problem-solving, ranking, information-gap, and opinion sharing were provided to the control group of the student participants. Based on the results of the speaking testing tasks, an overall positive effect of the OCST on speaking ability was evidenced in an overall performance of the experimental group.

With an empirical positive effect of the OCST in her previous research (Lam, 2006), Lam (2010) conducted another study in this regard and paid particular attention to its effect on students from different language ability levels. An overall finding revealed a greater positive effect of the OCST towards speech product of low ability students. When comparing low ability students in both the experimental group and the control group, it was found that the experimental group receiving the OCST had more improvement in English ability. In addition, stimulated recall interview results revealed a positive effect on communication strategy use by low ability students, but not by students with high language ability. That is, the students with low language ability reported using communication strategies more frequently as well as using more types of communication strategies. Nevertheless, a shared positive effect of the OCST lay in the development of the ability to reflect upon their performance which could not be found in the control group.

The implication of the series of these studies conducted by Lam (2006, 2010) is as follows. Primarily, language education should provide language learners an opportunity to reflect on their learning as well as an opportunity to use strategies to enhance their language use. Language learners should be aware of their actual language ability as well as their learning process. To achieve this objective, learners need to be introduced, if not formally taught, to reflect on these aspects: language use and learning. Besides being informed of their current status about themselves, learners may also be informed of what can be done to solve their problems in their language use as well as what can be done to further develop their language learning to achieve a higher English speaking ability.

Inconsistencies in the findings of the aforementioned studies (Alibakhshi & Padiz, 2011; I. B. Brown, 2011; Lam, 2006, 2010; Maleki, 2007; Nakatani, 2005, 2010) may initially come from contextual differences. Moreover, variations in strategies taught and how they are taught may possibly be responsible for such inconsistencies in the instructional effectiveness. Unless an identical means of communication strategy instruction is employed, effectiveness in communication strategy instruction will remain inconclusive.

Despite the perceived benefit of communication strategy use for development of the ability to speak English, a systematic overview of research into communication strategy instruction has still been lacking. The lack of a systematic overview of research into this aspect urged Burrows (2009) to conduct a study on this regard. Through a database search, 27 research studies conducted in an EFL country, Japan, were reviewed, resulting in a total number of 500 learners most of whom were at a university level. These learners received an average of one month of communication

strategy instruction. The most to the least frequently taught strategies were paraphrasing, generalizing, guessing, circumlocution, clarification, and vocabulary acquisition, respectively. The majority of the research studies yielded positive effects of communication strategy instruction on strategy use and language proficiency. Generally, communication strategy instruction was perceived to be more beneficial to low level language learners. On the other hand, either mixed findings or negative effects were also found in some other research studies.

This overview provided by Burrows (2009) shed light on limitations in conducting research in regard to effects of communication strategy instruction. The limitations lay in sample size, duration, and, most importantly, the testing method. Testing task types seem to be the most important limitation. By relying upon picture description and word identification tasks, the test failed to measure the effect of communication strategy use in actual communication in a naturalistic setting where two-way communication is the dominant type of daily life communication. For another thing, some communication strategy use is unobservable, hence, resulting in a necessity to adopt a stimulated recall interview, verbal reports, and questionnaires to gain more data in an introspective manner.

Despite the aforementioned limitations to overcome in future research, further implication can be obtained from the aforementioned study conducted by Burrows (2009). In terms of pedagogical implication, communication strategies should be taught to EFL learners. In terms of measurement, a more interactive-based testing type should be adopted in future studies to reveal its effects on a more interactive communication in daily life.

This review of related literature has proved that strategy instruction is one issue worth researching into. Despite numerous efforts previously made regarding this aspect, there is still room for further enhancement of EFL students' speaking ability and confidence by means of strategy instruction.

2.4 Conceptualized Frameworks of Communication Strategy Instruction

In order to develop the Communication Strategy Instruction to enhance English speaking ability and confidence of EFL undergraduates, related issues were reviewed, analyzed, synthesized, and conceptualized into a theoretical framework used to develop the Communication Strategy Instruction in the present study.

Two main conceptualized frameworks under the Communication Strategy Instruction were communication strategies used as strategy instructional contents and strategy instruction used as strategy instructional model. Along with the original frameworks upon which the conceptualized framework of the present study was based, each conceptualized framework is displayed as follows.
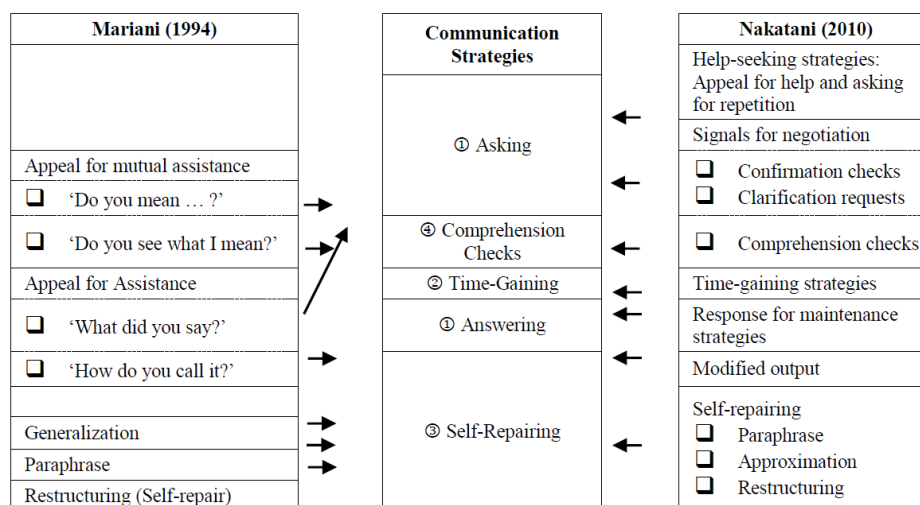

Figure 2.7. Conceptual framework for communication strategies.

Table 2.2 *Conceptual Framework for Strategy Instruction: 4Ps*

Pearson & Dole (1987)	Oxford et al. (1990)	Chamot & O'Malley (1994)	Chamot & Rubin (1994)	Chamot et al. (1999)	Manchon (2000)
	ask learners to do a language activity **without** strategy training have them discuss how they did it, and ask them to **REFLECT** on how the strategies they selected may have facilitated the learning process	Planning: The teacher presents the students with a language task and explains the rational behind it. Students are then asked to plan **their own** approaches to the task, choosing strategies that they think will facilitate its completion.	**DISCOVERING** and discussing strategies that students **already use** for specific learning task	**RAISING AWARENESS** of the strategies learners are already using	The instruction phase **RAISING** the student's **AWARENESS** of (i) the existence of CS; (ii) their crucial role in communication as problem-solving devices; and (iii) the communicative efficacy of different CS.
initial **MODELING** of the strategy, with direct **EXPLANATION** of the strategy's use and importance	**SUGGEST** and **DEMONSTRATE** other helpful **strategies**, **MENTIONING** the need for greater self-direction and expected **benefits**, and making sure that the students are aware of the **rational** for strategy use.	**PRESENTING** explicitly **DESCRIBING MODELING** the strategies **EXPLAINING** why and when the strategies are	**PRESENTING** new strategies by **NAMING** and **MODELING** the strategies **EXPLAINING** why and when the strategies can be used	**PRESENTING** and **MODELING** strategies so that learners become increasingly aware of their own thinking and leaning processes	**EXPLANATIONS** and/or **MODELING** of CS
guided **PRACTICE** of the strategy	allow learners **plenty of time** to **PRACTICE** the new strategies with language tasks	Monitoring: During the task, the students are asked to 'SELF-MONITOR' their performance by paying attention to their strategy use and checking comprehension. **PROBLEM SOLVING**: As they encounter difficulties, the students are expected to find their own solutions.	providing extensive **PRACTICE**	providing **multiple PRACTICE** opportunites to help learners move towards autonomous use of the strategies through **gradual withdrawal of teacher SCAFFOLDING**	The practice phase actual **PRACTICE** in the use of CS
consolidation where teachers **help students** identify the strategy and decide when it might be used independent **PRACTICE** of the strategy	help students understand how to **EVALUATE** the success of their strategy and use to gauge their process as more responsible and self-directed learners	Evaluation: After the task has been completed, the students are then given time to 'de-brief' the activity, i.e. **EVALUATE** the effectiveness of the strategies they used during the task.		getting learners to **MONITOR AND EVALUATE** the effectiveness of the strategies used...	
application of the strategy to **NEW TASKS**	show how the strategies can be **TRANSFERRED** to other tasks	They can also be given time to verify their predictions, assess whether their initial goals are met, give summaries of their performance, and reflect on how they could **TRANSFER** their strategies to similar language tasks or across language stills.		(getting learners to monitor and evaluate) ... their efforts to **TRANSFER** these strategies to new tasks	
	provide practice using the techniques with **NEW TASKS** and allow learners to make choices about the strategies they will use to complete the language learning task				

Table 2.2 *Conceptual Framework for Strategy Instruction: 4Ps*

Armbruster, Lehr, and Osborn (2001)	Beckman (2002)	Rieger (2003)	Williams (2006)	University of Nebraska Lincoln (2012)	PPPP
		RAISING AWARENESS	RAISING AWARENESS Have a class discussion and brainstorm about what students usually do, should and should not do in each situation.	Develop and ACTIVATE BACKGROUND KNOWLEDGE	Pre-reflection
Direct EXPLANATION MODELING	DESCRIBE the strategy. MODEL its use.	TEACHING, TRAINING of strategies	EXPLAIN to students what communication strategies are, their uses and benefits. EXPLICITLY TEACHING	DISCUSS the strategy MODEL the strategy MEMORIZE the strategy	Presentation
		Encouraging learners to take risks and use the strategy		Support the strategy	
Guided PRACTICE APPLICATION The teacher helps students PRACTICE the strategy until they can apply it independently.	Provide ample assisted PRACTICE time.	USAGE of strategies in classroom interactions Providing opportunities for PRACTICING the use of the strategy	PRACTICING strategies	Independent PERFORMANCE	Practice
	Promote student SELF-MONITORING and EVALUATION of personal strategy use.		EVALUATION		Post-reflection
	Encourage CONTINUED USE and generalization of the strategy.		CONTINUATION and Incorporating Vocabulary Acquisition		Transfer

After related issues regarding strategy instruction were reviewed, analyzed, synthesized, and conceptualized, the 4Ps were used in strategy instruction in the present study to deliver the conceptualized communication strategies. As a result, the two conceptualized frameworks were not used separately. Rather, they were used inter-dependently and referred to as the Communication Strategy Instruction. In order to present the conceptual framework of the Communication Strategy Instruction clearly, the conceptual framework of communication strategies and the conceptual framework of strategy instruction were displayed as follows.

Communication Strategies	Strategy Instruction
↓	↓
Communication Strategy Instruction	
↓	↓
① Answering and Asking ② Time-Gaining ③ Self-Repairing ④ Comprehension Checks	Pre-Reflection Presentation Practice Post-Reflection
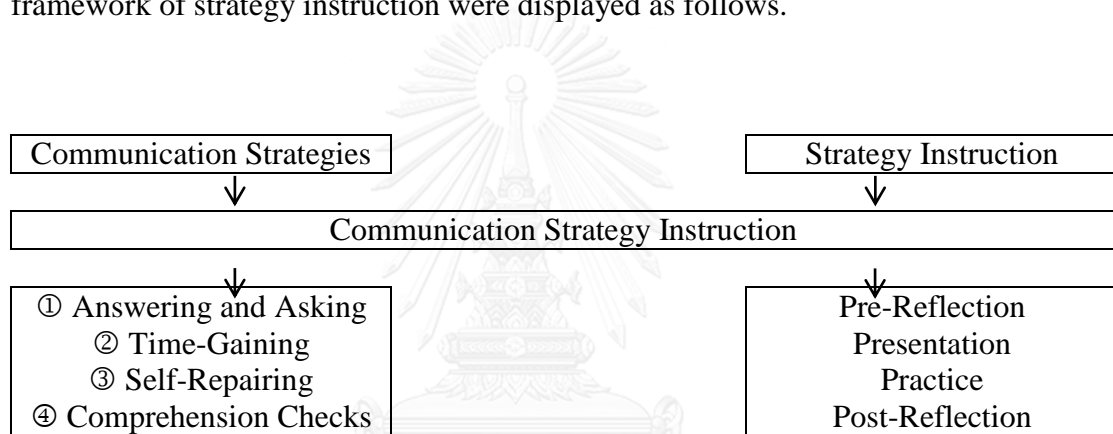
Figure 2.8. Conceptual framework for Communication Strategy Instruction.

In this chapter, literature was reviewed on the related topics namely English speaking ability, English speaking confidence, and strategy instruction. It was then analyzed, synthesized, and conceptualized into the framework in the present study as previously described.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

In this chapter, procedures in conducting the present study to investigate the effects of the Communication Strategy Instruction on English speaking ability, confidence, and attitudes of EFL undergraduates are detailed. It begins with research design, population and sample, research instruments and data collection instruments, data collection, and data analysis.

3.1 Research Design

A one-group pretest-posttest quasi-experimental design was used to investigate the effects of the Communication Strategy Instruction on English speaking ability and English speaking confidence of EFL undergraduates that had occurred as a result of the Communication Strategy Instruction. This commonly used design (Harris et al., 2006) involving a set of assessments taken before and after a treatment (McDonough, n.d.) was implemented. The scores from the pre-assessment serving as a control value yielded the value prior to the treatment, while the scores from the post-assessment yielded a value following the treatment. Then, the scores from the pre-assessment and the post-assessment were compared. The comparison occurred within the group as there was no comparison or control group. The design was chosen because it was the most suitable and feasible research design in the present study as, due to the issue of practicality, neither true experimental designs in which random assignment is required nor other quasi-experimental designs in which matching on certain variables is implemented was feasible.

To be specific, the one-group pretest-posttest design was chosen because the researcher was assigned to teach two intact groups of students who had freedom in registering into any certain sections of their choice. Despite having two groups of students, quasi-experimental designs that use one control group and one experimental group would not yield valid results as not everything could be controlled. For instance, the number of hours spent on giving the treatment to the experimental group could not be ethically spent on nothing when teaching the control group. Those hours must be spent on something else which would not allow the identical practice to both groups. As a result, only one intact group of the students was included in the present study. To this intact group of the students, assessments were administered before and after the ten-week Communication Strategy Instruction which was integrated into an existing foundation course entitled Experiential English I. The findings from the pre-assessments and the post-assessments were compared and used to determine the effects of the Communication Strategy Instruction on the students' English speaking ability and confidence.

The independent variable was the Communication Strategy Instruction purposefully developed in the present study. The dependent variables were the students' English speaking ability, English speaking confidence, and attitudes towards the treatment or the Communication Strategy Instruction. The students' English speaking ability was assessed with the English Speaking Test, the students' English speaking confidence was assessed with the English Speaking Confidence Scale, and the students' attitudes towards the treatment was assessed with the Attitude Questionnaire. The Communication Strategy Instruction and the aforementioned data collection instruments were purposefully developed in the present study.

As there was one intact group of students involved in the present study, neither random sampling technique nor random assignment was involved. Although there were possible threats to internal validity such as attitudes, testing, data collector characteristics, data collector bias, implementer, instrumentation, and history threats, the last three threats were said to be uncontrollable by any designs as they are independent of the design itself (Wasanasomsithi, 2004). On the contrary, the attitudinal aspect was not considered a threat as the students' subjective attitudes constituted one of the dependent variables of investigation. For the remaining three aspects of threats, a systematic means of assessment and data collection was designed to prevent these possible threats in the aforementioned regards.

3.2 Population and Sample

The population in the present study was male and female EFL undergraduates regardless of their field of study who were attending a compulsory foundation English course entitled Experiential English I in their first semester of the academic year 2013 at Chulalongkorn University. According to the course textbook selected by the university's Language Institute for these students, their English language proficiency was said to be at the upper-intermediate level. However, the students' English language proficiency was shown to be varied, according to the data on their Chulalongkorn University Test of English Proficiency or CU-TEP scores.

Living in Thailand and speaking Thai as their first language, an intact group of seven male and 27 female Thai first-year undergraduates from the Faculty of Commerce and Accountancy majoring in Business Administration was included as the sample of the present study. Based on the scores of Chulalongkorn University Test

of English Proficiency (CU-TEP) measuring the ability to use English for academic purposes in reading, writing, listening, and speaking, taken at the beginning of the semester, 21 were classified as intermediate and 13 as advanced language users. These students registered in the Experiential English I course in the first semester of the academic year 2013 starting from the last week of May until September. Despite not receiving a formal consent form, participation was voluntary. All participants remained their enrolment after being informed on the first day of the class that by enrolling in this section of the course, they would automatically participate in the present study.

The different numbers of participants were excluded in the process of data analysis for the following reasons. Firstly, in analyzing the effects of the Communication Strategy Instruction on English speaking ability, eight participants were excluded as they had missed at least one lesson of the Communication Strategy Instruction. Secondly, in analyzing the effects of the Communication Strategy Instruction on English speaking confidence and attitudes towards the instruction, two participants were excluded as they were absent on the day that the post-assessment of English speaking confidence and that of attitudes towards the instruction were administered. Although the aforementioned eight participants were excluded when analyzing the effects of the Communication Strategy Instruction on English speaking ability as they had missed at least one lesson, it was not feasible to exclude them from the analysis of the effects on English speaking confidence and attitudes towards the instruction as their identity could not be tracked for anonymity purpose. As a result, the total number of 26 participants was included in the analysis of the effects of the instruction on English speaking ability, and the total number of 32 was included in the

analysis of the effects of the instruction on English speaking confidence and attitudes towards the instruction.

3.3 Instrumentation

The instruments used in this study could be divided into research instruemtns and data collection instruments.

3.3.1 Research Instruments

In the present study, research instruments included the instructional design of the Communication Strategy Instruction and Reflection Sheet. These research instruments were designed according to the theoretical frameworks that had been conceptualized to be employed during the implementation of the Communication Strategy Instruction for the duration of ten weeks to enhance English speaking ability and confidence of EFL undergraduates.

3.3.1.1 Communication Strategy Instruction

3.3.1.1.1 Development

The instruction in the present study was designed based on the conceptualized framework of the strategy instruction. Precisely, it was designed based on the strategy instructional model referred to as 4Ps: Pre-Reflection, Presentation, Practice, and Post-Reflection.

3.3.1.1.1.1 Pre-Reflection

In the first instructional stage, Pre-Reflection, students' reflection on their current knowledge or behavior in strategy use to cope with communication problems as well as students' background knowledge upon which strategies to be taught could be enhanced through several means. For instance, students may be assigned to carry on a communicative task or simply presented with a communicative situation about which they would be discussing, brainstorming, or reflecting in the process involved in achieving the task goal. Alternatively, the reflection could be done through the use of a questionnaire.

In the present study, an instructional instrument employed in the first instructional stage, Pre-Reflection, was designed employing mainly visual prompts displaying communicative situations and a written prompt relevant to a communicative task.

Visual prompts would be used as instructional instruments in the first, third, and seventh weeks focusing on the Answering and Asking strategy, the Time-Gaining strategy, and the Comprehension Checks strategy, respectively. Despite the difference in the target instructional content, visual prompts would be chosen and/or adopted and displayed according to the same criteria. The very first visual prompts would raise students' awareness in communicative problems arisen or in the cause of the lack of communicative problems. Then, the communicative situations would be narrowed down to classroom context displaying as later visual prompts. Along with the presentation of the visual prompts, students would be asked to identify potential problems and/or potential solution presented in the visual prompts and/or suggested by the students themselves.

As for a written prompt, it would be used as an instructional instrument in the fifth week focusing on the Self-Repairing strategy. The written prompt displaying a list of vocabulary was based on a previously learned unit of the Experiential English I course. Based on this list, the class was to give hints by whatever verbal means of English communication for each of the six volunteer or randomly chosen students to guess what word it was under the time limit of one minute. As students would have a chance to observe the communicative situation featured with the use of the target strategy, no visual prompt would be further provided.

3.3.1.1.1.2 Presentation

After the background knowledge had been activated, in the second instructional stage, Presentation, students' awareness of the target strategies could be raised through several means either inductively or deductively. By inductively or indirectly presenting how, when, and why strategies could be used, students' metacognitive thinking process as well as student active involvement could be enhanced. This could be done through the use of audio and/or visual materials such as a quote, a photograph, a checklist, a chart of process, a linguistic item, and a model dialogue. Alternatively, students may be provided with an opportunity to watch others' performance featured with the use of the strategies. Afterwards, they would be asked to identify communication problems that had occurred and strategies that were used to appropriately cope with such communication problems. Students would also be asked to evaluate effectiveness or benefits of such strategy use. Students would be further asked to brainstorm for other examples of such strategies. Then the target strategies would be once again directly or deductively presented to enhance students'

thorough understanding. To ensure students' understanding, a summary of the strategies presented would be explicitly given by the teacher.

In the present study, an instructional instrument employed in the second instructional stage, Presentation, was designed in a form of an audio and/or visual material displaying a communicative situation or a written prompt relevant to a communicative task. As the Presentation stage in each lesson of the Communication Strategy Instruction focused on different instructional contents or strategies, an instructional instrument used in the first, third, fifth, and seventh weeks was designed differently. To illustrate, an audio and/or visual material or a written prompt featured with the use of the Answering and Asking strategy, the Time-Gaining strategy, the Self-Repairing strategy, and the Comprehension Checks strategy was used in the first, third, fifth, and seventh weeks, respectively.

After the audio and/or visual material was presented, the students would be asked to identify strategies used in the material previously presented. A set of prepared guided questions would be asked to facilitate the students' understanding of the strategy use, if it was deemed necessary. Then they would be asked to compare their own strategy use with the strategy use presented in the material. After that, a summary list of each learned strategy presented along with some examples in English would be displayed on a PowerPoint slide. The slide would also be exhibited throughout the Practice stage so as to provide a language resource for the students to rely on when communication problems occurred while they were participating in class activities.

3.3.1.1.1.3 Practice

To enhance automacy, transferability, and autonomy in strategy use, students would be provided with a practice opportunity in the third instructional stage, Practice. For instance, students would be provided with a communicative activity such as story-telling, picture description, and information-gap. While students would be practicing, the teacher would be monitoring around the classroom and providing feedback or guidance if it was deemed necessary to ensure an adequate support from the teacher encouraging the use of the target strategies taught in each lesson. This hands-on experience in using the strategies would not only enhance automacy, transferability, and autonomy in strategy use, but would also provide concrete resources to reflect upon in the following instructional stage.

In the present study, an instructional instrument employed in the third instructional stage, Practice, would be adopted and/or adapted from contents and/or requirements of the Experiential English I course so as to integrate the strategies into the main course. Regarding language use, all the materials would be written in English as it was the target language of the instruction of both the Communication Strategy Instruction and the Experiential English I course.

3.3.1.1.1.4 Post-Reflection

In the last instructional stage, Post-Reflection, students' reflection on their use of the newly learned strategies could be enhanced through the same means used in the first instructional stage, Pre-Reflection, in addition to idea or opinion sharing. However, rather than to activate background knowledge, the aim of the last instructional stage, Post-Reflection, would be for students to evaluate the

effectiveness of their strategy use, and to decide on what to do with the strategies in the future: to practice more or to transfer its use into other contexts.

In the present study, an instructional instrument employed in the last instructional stage, Post-Reflection, was designed in a form of a journal and would be referred to as the Reflection Sheet. Detailed description on the development and validation of the Reflection Sheet is provided in the following section.

Table 3.1

Instruction Schedule

Lesson	Contents (Strategies)	Instructional Model
1	Answering and Asking	4Ps
2	Answering and Asking	2Ps
3	Time-Gaining	4Ps
4	Time-Gaining	2Ps
5	Self-Repairing	4Ps
6	Self-Repairing	2Ps
7	Comprehension Checks	4Ps
8	Comprehension Checks	2Ps
9	Four strategies altogether	2Ps
10	Four strategies altogether	2Ps

Table 3.1 displays the instructional schedule. As can be seen, initially, the strategies would be explicitly taught through the fully-fledged cycle of the 4Ps in four separate weeks. To illustrate, the first lesson plan following the fully-fledged cycle of the 4Ps communication strategy instructional model would focus on the Answering and Asking strategy, the first set of the conceptualized communication strategies. This first lesson plan was scheduled to be delivered in the first week of the Communication Strategy Instruction, which would fall on the fifth week of the semester.

The second lesson plan following the fully-fledged cycle of the 4Ps communication strategy instructional model would focus on the Time-Gaining strategy, the second set of the conceptualized communication strategies. This second

lesson plan was scheduled to be delivered in the third week of the Communication Strategy Instruction, which would fall on the seventh week of the semester.

The third lesson plan following the fully-fledged cycle of the 4Ps communication strategy instructional model would focus on the Self-Repairing strategy, the third set of the conceptualized communication strategies. This third lesson plan was scheduled to be delivered in the fifth week of the Communication Strategy Instruction, which would fall on the ninth week of the semester.

The fourth lesson plan following the fully-fledged cycle of the 4Ps communication strategy instructional model would focus on the Comprehension Checks strategy, the fourth set of the conceptualized communication strategies. This fourth lesson plan was scheduled to be delivered in the seventh week of the Communication Strategy Instruction, which would fall on the 11th week of the semester.

After each set of the strategies was explicitly taught, they would then be further practiced through the reduced communication strategy instructional model referred to as 2Ps: Practice and Post-Reflection. The reduced 2Ps communication strategy instructional model was planned to be delivered in the weeks following each of the fully-fledged cycle of the 4Ps strategy instructional model lessons so as to provide further practice opportunities. To illustrate, the lesson plan for the second, fourth, sixth, and eighth weeks would be designed to provide an extensive opportunity to practice using strategies of the Answering and Asking strategy, the Time-Gaining strategy, the Self-Repairing strategy, and the Comprehension Checks strategy, respectively. In addition, two more lesson plans following the 2Ps model would be designed to be delivered in the ninth and tenth weeks to provide extensive

opportunities to practice using the Answering and Asking strategy, the Time-Gaining strategy, the Self-Repairing strategy, and the Comprehension Checks strategy altogether.

The reduced 2Ps communication strategy instructional model was designed to reflect one important component of strategy instruction concerning transferability of the strategy use. In addition to providing extensive practice into which the main course contents would be integrated, the reduced 2Ps communication strategy instructional model was also designed to reflect another important component of strategy instruction concerning teacher scaffolding. With the aspect of scaffolding in consideration, teacher support being explicitly presenting strategies and reminding of strategy use would be amply provided initially. Then it would be gradually withdrawn to enhance autonomous use of the strategies. To be precise, in the first eight lesson plans of the Communication Strategy Instruction, the teacher's reminding of and encouraging the strategy use would be provided along with a summary list which would be displayed extensively. Then in the ninth lesson of the Communication Strategy Instruction, the teacher would not be reminding of or encouraging the strategy use but would simply display the summary list so as to gradually remove the teacher's scaffolding to sequentially encourage autonomous strategy use. Finally, in the last lesson of the Communication Strategy Instruction, in addition to the removal of the teacher scaffolding, the summary list of the strategies would not be displayed at all to completely remove the teacher's scaffolding so as to encourage completely autonomous strategy use.

Regarding the means of instruction, ideally, the target language or L2 would highly be preferred to be used as both a medium of instruction and a means of

learning. The teacher was determined to deliver the instruction in English and at the same time the students were supposed to participate by communicating in English. However, to enhance understanding and true reflection of the students, Thai, if necessary, would also be allowed in all the stages, except in the Practice stage in which students would be required to maintain the use of the English language at all time so as to practice using not only the English language but also the communication strategies taught.

3.3.1.1.2 Validation

A panel of four experts in the field of language teaching who also had experience in teaching the student population was invited to validate the developed instructional design. However, the validation results were returned within the time frame from only three of the experts. As a result, the revision was made based on the comments and suggestions of the three experts.

Primarily, the instructional design and a validation form were sent to these experts who were asked to mark whether they thought each of the instrument's components was appropriate. They were further asked to indicate reasons and give suggestions if they disagreed with or thought it was questionable. The three experts unanimously considered the instructional model appropriately designed for the enhancement of English speaking ability and confidence. However, one of the experts raised a concern whether the model could fit in with the overall lesson plan and whether it could actually be integrated into the main course, Experiential English I. In addition, this expert was also concerned whether the students would participate in the

target activities knowing that the speaking skill would not be tested, or scores would not be counted as part of the final grade.

No revision was made based on the concerns because they were beyond the appropriateness of the instructional design itself. However, they were kept to be considered when further revision regarding the instructional plan and instruments would be made.

Next, the lesson plan for the ten weeks of the Communication Strategy Instruction and a validation form were also sent to the same panel of experts with the same directions. The three experts unanimously agreed that the objectives of the lesson plans were appropriate, the procedures in the lesson plans were consistent with the instructional design, and the length of each stage was sufficient. However, one of the experts found the following three aspects questionable: materials and tasks, pedagogical procedures, and language use. Firstly, one expert was not certain whether the materials and tasks used in the lesson plans were appropriate. The expert was concerned whether the materials and/or tasks used may not elicit expected answers or raised awareness about communication strategies as it might be a too difficult concept. Secondly, another expert was not certain whether the pedagogical procedures in the lesson plans were appropriate for the enhancement of English speaking and confidence. The expert suggested using a different activity in a certain lesson plan so as to avoid potential boredom from repeating the activity and to enhance transferability to use the strategies in different contexts or situations. Lastly, the other expert was not certain whether the language used in the lesson plan was clear. The expert suggested that the target language should be explicitly addressed to achieve the expected outcome as well as to facilitate learning assessment. This lack of clarity was

possibly because the expert had not been shown the complete list of the contents or the strategies. In addition, there was additional concern whether the developed instruction could be incorporated seamlessly into the main course, Experiential English I, although the procedures and time allotted were clear and appropriate.

The experts' comments and suggestions were used in the subsequent revision of the instructional plan and instruments. That is, a communicative task giving a hands-on communicative experience was assigned to students replacing simply presenting communicative situations through picture prompts in the Pre-Reflection stage.

After the developed instructional plan and instruments were validated and revised based on the experts' comments and suggestions, the instructional plan and instruments were piloted.

For the first pilot study, due to the time constraint, it was not feasible to conduct the pilot study with another group of students enrolling in the Experiential English I. As a result, the pilot study was conducted with 30 Chulalongkorn University students enrolling in one section of an Experiential English II in the summer semester of the academic year 2012 which was prior to the semester the main study was conducted. Despite the lack of their Chulalongkorn University Test of English Proficiency (CU-TEP) scores, it could be assumed that these students may be classified as lower than intermediate because more than half of them (17 out of 30) received a D grade or lower while only two received a B grade and none received an A grade. For the sake of rough comparison, no sample of the main study received a D grade or lower. To be specific, five of the sample in the main study received an A grade, 19 of the sample received a B grade, and ten of the sample received a C grade.

As a result, the characteristics of the samples in the main study and in the pilot study were not identical. The students in this pilot study varied in terms of gender, field of study, and age. Regarding gender, there were 15 male and 15 female participants in the sample of the pilot study. As for their field of study, three were from the Faculty of Engineering, seven were from the Faculty of Science, one was from the Faculty of Law, seven were from the Faculty of Fine and Applied Arts, one was from the Faculty of Allied Health Sciences, and two were from the Faculty of Sport Science. When classified by the number of year enrolling in the university, one was in his fourth year, four were in their third year, 12 were in their second year, and 13 were in their first year. Although their characteristics may differ, there were some common grounds between them being the university affiliation and the age range which differed approximately no more than three years. Especially when the purpose of the pilot was to investigate language and test task appropriateness, the aforementioned slight difference was not considered a major concern.

In this round of the pilot, regarding the instructional plan, due to the time constraint, a part of the instructional plan was selectively piloted. To be precise, only the third Communication Strategy Instruction's fully-fledged lesson of the 4Ps scheduled to be delivered in the fifth week of the Communication Strategy Instruction implemented in the main study was piloted. As a result, only one fully-fledged lesson of the 4Ps focusing on the third set of the conceptualized communication strategies was piloted. The rationale for selecting this lesson to be piloted was it involved least adaptation in the contents as the only thing that needed to be changed was the word list. Also, it was most appropriate to be placed along the main course instruction as it could function as a vocabulary review lesson for the students.

As for the instructional instruments, the instructional instruments developed to be used in all the instructional stages except the Practice stage in the fifth week of the Communication Strategy Instruction in the main study was piloted. The rationale for the exception was concerned with integratedness. To elaborate, the contents of the main course, Experiential English, at the moment feasible for conducting the pilot study were not in parallel with the contents of the main course at the moment scheduled for conducting the main study. Therefore, the instructional instruments used in the Practice stage in the main study and the pilot study could not be identically designed. This was because the contents at different phases of the main course instruction needed to be of primary concern. Feedback from the first round of the pilot study suggested no revision needed to be made.

However, to ensure that the instruction could be carried out as planned in the main study, the researcher seized another opportunity to pilot the whole instructional plan and instruments. In the second round of the pilot study, six first-year students were invited to participate in the pilot study to experience the ten-lesson Communication Strategy Instruction. However, due to the time constraint, activities that were repeated or adapted from the main course textbook were skipped. These six students sharing some common characteristics with the participant population were composed of one male and five females; three students were from the Faculty of Science, and three students were from the Faculty of Commerce and Accountancy.

Feedback from the second round of the pilot study suggested modification in the following aspects. The first aspect dealt with how directions should be given. It was suggested that giving step-by-step directions should be preceded by telling the general goal or what the end product of the activity would be and then incorporated

with demonstration. In addition, the written prompts used in the activity should be clearly explained beforehand, and should be kept at a minimal length as it was time-consuming to read a long text, although some texts were too short to keep the students engaged in the task for the pre-assigned duration. Furthermore, giving directions in Thai, instead of English, would enable quick understanding in how to carry out the task. The second aspect regarded time. They suggested that every activity needed a preparation time. However, it needed not be long: 15 second would suffice as they would carry on thinking while talking or doing the task. Moreover, in a particular activity, it was observed that time needed to be limited as it was in the first round of the pilot study. Without the time limitation, the students seemed much less energetic as observed in the second round of the pilot study. The third aspect concerned with PowerPoint slide design. It was suggested that the difference in the design of the slides presenting different stages of the instruction should be more easily noticeable if students were to be able to separate each stage from one another. Specifically regarding a slide presenting the summary list of the strategies, it was perceived to be useless as when the students carried on the communicative task, they were completely engaged in communicating that they did not refer to the slide and, thus, did not try to use the presented strategies. Furthermore, pictures might be added to enhance quick understanding.

Based on the feedback from the second round of the pilot study, modification was made regarding time to be better compatible with the activity, directions giving to enhance a clear and quick understanding, PowerPoint slide design to clearly separate each stage from the others by using different colors for the slide background of each stage, and written prompts to have a more appropriate length better compatible with

the time assigned for each stage. As for the summary list of the strategies, it was redesigned to be distributed as a hard copy either to groups or an individual student based on each day's content.

3.3.1.2 Reflection Sheet

As previously mentioned, the Reflection Sheet would be employed as an instructional instrument in the final instructional stage for the students to reflect upon their strategy use. What follow are detailed description on the development and the validation of the Reflection Sheet.

3.3.1.2.1 Development

The Reflection Sheet consisted of two parts. The first part consisted of eight items involving communication strategy use. In this part, students would be directed to circle the word that best described their actual English speaking in each class and elaborate on their chosen choice in a provided blank. The students would choose whether they applied, did not apply, or could not apply each of the target strategies to reflect on their communication strategy use behavior. A space was provided for the students to elaborate on their chosen response. To illustrate, a space was provided after the word "by" for the students to elaborate on how they had applied a communication strategy. On the other hand, a space was provided after the word "because" for the students to elaborate on the reason for not applying or not being able to apply a certain communication strategy.

The second part consisted of two items involving students' perceived English speaking ability and English speaking anxiety. In this part, students would circle the

word that best described their perception of their English speaking ability and English speaking anxiety. Available response choices were "worse/decreasing," "stable," and "better/increasing."

As for directions given, the instructions would indicate that there would be no right or wrong answer (Patton, 2001) and that the information given would not affect their grade for the course. This was to enhance their willingness to truthfully self-assess (Brindley, 2001). In terms of language, the instrument would be written in Thai to ensure students' comprehension of the guided prompt. However, students would be given the choice of language use in filling in this form. That is, students could choose to answer in Thai or English as they saw fit.

3.3.1.2.2 Validation

The Reflection Sheet, along with a validation form, was sent to the same panel of experts with the same directions. The validation form consisted of two parts. In the first part, the experts were asked to validate the overall aspect of the Reflection Sheet. Three items were agreed upon by two experts, while they were questionable to the other.

Firstly, it was questionable whether the items matched the objectives of the study as it seemed that giving feedback to show understanding was missing. The expert suggested that showing understanding was more important than showing that one was listening and so should be added. Secondly, the same expert also expressed uncertainty in the language use whether it was clear and easy to understand, and suggested some rephrasing. Thirdly, another expert was not sure whether the length of

the Reflection Sheet was appropriate as it depended on the time allotted for this activity.

The other four items were agreed only by one of the experts while they were questionable to the other two. Firstly, the directions did not seem clear enough for the students to know what they were expected to do. Secondly, the items may not be able to directly elicit students' reflections towards the strategy use. One of the experts was concerned that the students might not be able to remember the name of the strategies, or that the students might not understand what to fill in the provided blank. For the other two items, suggestions were made regarding item switching and format refinement to make it easier to understand on how to give responses. In addition, for the aspect of space provided for open-ended answers, while one of the experts suggested more space to be provided, another expert commented that the space provided need not be long as students were often reluctant to answer open-ended questions or it would be more time-consuming.

The Reflection Sheet was revised on the directions, wording, and format, accordingly. Regarding the space provided for the open-ended response, and as a matter of length, whether they were appropriate would be tested in the pilot study. Additionally, after a second consideration and consultation with the researcher's advisor, the three response choices were collapsed down to two: "applied" and "did not apply," dropping the other response choice "could not apply". This was because students could choose "did not apply" and give an elaboration such as they did not apply the strategy because they could not do so.

In the second part of the validation form, the experts were asked to validate each individual item in the Reflection Sheet. Six out of the ten items were

unanimously considered appropriate, while three other items were suggested to be rephrased for better clarity. As for the other item, as mentioned earlier, it was suggested to be switched to the second part of the Reflection Sheet. The revision was made accordingly, and the final version of the Reflection Sheet is presented in Appendix A.

3.3.2 Data Collection Instruments

In order to investigate the effects of the Communication Strategy Instruction, data collection instruments were purposefully developed. The development and validation process of the data collection instruments are described .

3.3.2.1 English Speaking Test and English Speaking Rating Scale

3.3.2.1.1 English Speaking Test

3.3.2.1.1.1 Development

A ten-minute direct English Speaking Test was designed to include two cooperative discussion tasks: a picture discussion task and a conversation discussion task. Regarding function and content of the test tasks, it was designed based on the benchmark set for the populations' level of language proficiency, upper-intermediate, and on curriculum of the main course's textbook, *English Unlimited*, which was used with the population of the study.

3.3.2.1.1.2 Validation

Once it was developed, the test, along with the test specification, task summary, and a validation form, was sent to a panel of four experts who had experience in teaching students at an undergraduate level for validation.

The experts were asked to mark whether they thought each of the instrument's components was appropriate. They were further asked to indicate reasons and give suggestions if they disagreed with or thought it was questionable.

The validation form consisted of five items. The first two items were for part one of the test and unanimously received agreement. For the last three items, they were for part two of the test. Unfortunately, based on the validation result, this part required modifications as the experts commented that it may not fully motivate the use of communication strategies. There was also a concern for consistency in terms of difficulty and context, and whether it would be too difficult to carry out the task without additional facilities or a curriculum manual for the subjects to search for information.

Although based on the validation result that only part two required modifications, one expert suggested that information gap tasks could better elicit communication strategy use. Hence, the whole test was redesigned.

The test was redesigned to better assess English speaking ability of students at an upper-intermediate English language proficiency first-year undergraduate level with no specific field of study. Student responses were elicited by both visual and written prompts and produced orally in a form of a live interactive dialogue which was audio-recorded for the subsequent rating process. The students were also required to produce a written response by filling in information and circling chosen choices.

The redesigned direct speaking test consisted of three parts including two cooperative discussion tasks. The first task was presented in the first part of the test in a form of picture identification. In this task, each student was provided with a different set of a two-page picture prompt. One page displayed one colored-picture, and the other displayed six gray scale-pictures, one of which was identical to the colored-picture of the other set given to the other student. What they needed to do was to find one out of the six gray scale-pictures that was identical to the one colored-picture of their partner only by communicating orally as they would not be allowed to see each other. The second task was presented in the second and third parts of the test. Although both parts were an information gap activity for students to find out the missing information from their partner, the task in the second part involved smaller gaps to be filled and required students to make their own decision based on the information obtained as well as provide reasons. On the other hand, the task in the third part involved longer gaps and required students to collaboratively make a decision based on the information obtained as well as provide reasons.

The actual testing time would be 12 minutes. However, the students would be given one more minute for preparation prior to taking the test. As for the rating scheme, students' speaking ability would be rated with the English Speaking Rating Scale purposefully developed in the present study.

Once the redesigned test was developed, it was sent to the expert who had suggested an information gap task be adopted in the test. It was approved by the expert.

Prior to the test administration in the main study, the test was piloted with the original purpose to assess consistency in difficulty between the pre-assessment and

the post-assessment. Unfortunately, due to the time constraint, the test's consistency in difficulty could not be statistically assessed as there was not enough time to rate the performance.

It was not possible to pilot the test with the whole group of the sample at the same time, and the test could be piloted with only two students at a time. As a result, the pilot went on for five inconsecutive days on which the sample of the pilot study took the pre-assessment and the post-assessment continuously, yielding repeated revisions. That is, after each piloting, information on problems arisen was used to revise the test before it was piloted again on the following day.

The problems included the test booklet and directions, contents, and test duration. Consequently, modifications concerning these aspects were made. In dealing with the first problem, the test booklet full of directions was removed and replaced with a mock exam. Despite considerable revision in the directions given, the sample suggested that an opportunity to have a hands-on experience would yield familiarity in the test format. Modifications were also made with content and test duration. Regarding the test content, the sample reported that they could not do it because they did not know some words in the written prompt. Consequently, some of the content was revised by adopting words suggested by some participants in the sample. As for the test duration, it seemed that a longer duration might be required as only a very few participants in the sample could finish the test in time. However, as the lengthening of the testing time would be impractical, some parts of the contents were dropped instead. Nevertheless, one extra minute was added to each part totaling 15 minutes altogether for the whole test. The final version of directions and sample (mock exam)

of the English Speaking Test and the sample of the picture prompt, as well as both pre-assessment and post-assessment is presented in Appendix B to Appendix E.

3.3.2.1.2 English Speaking Rating Scale

3.3.2.1.2.1 Development

An analytic criterion-referenced rating scale with two main categories based on the conceptualized speaking ability as well as communication strategies of the present study was designed to assess English speaking ability. The English speaking ability would be evaluated based on the students' linguistic competence and strategic competence. As regards linguistic competence, it would be evaluated based on the frequency of intelligible use of grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation. As for strategic competence, it would be evaluated based on frequency of strategy use, kind of strategies used, and difficulty or success in strategy use. To be precise, it would be evaluated based on the frequency of behaviors that test takers are expected to perform. These behaviors included the use of the Answering and Asking strategy and the Comprehension Checks strategy along with the accurate completion of the task given, the use of the Time-Gaining strategy along with communication flow and pauses, and the use of the Self-Repairing strategy. Altogether, the English Speaking Rating Scale consisted of 11 items, and the frequencies of these observable behaviors were 'always,' 'often,' 'sometimes,' 'seldom,' and 'never.'

In rating the aforementioned observable behaviors, the following scale would be followed: always = 5, often = 4, sometimes = 3, seldom = 2, and never = 1, to determine the frequency of these observable behaviors. With an exception for the

items observing pauses and the unsuccessful use of the Self-Repairing strategy as well as the use of reductions strategies, namely message abandonment and language switch, these items would be rated with the reverse scoring scheme. That is, the latter items would be rated based on the following scale: always = 1, often = 2, sometimes = 3, seldom = 4, and never = 5.

3.3.2.1.2.2 Validation

The English Speaking Rating Scale, along with a validation form, was submitted to the same panel of four experts who had validated the English Speaking Test for validation. In the same way, the experts were asked to mark whether they thought each of the instrument's components was appropriate. They were further asked to indicate reasons and give suggestions if they disagreed with or thought it was questionable.

The validation form consisted of two parts. In part one, the experts were asked to evaluate the classification of the levels of frequency of observable behaviors which was perceived as appropriate. Part two consisted of 11 items addressing specifically each individual item of the English Speaking Rating Scale assessing English speaking ability. Nine items unanimously received agreement leaving the other two with necessary revision. Those two items were marked as questionable by two experts whose suggestion involved revision in terms of the terms used and the writing format as the items should be written in a full-sentence format.

All the problematic aspects were revised based on the experts' suggestion. To start with, certain problematic items were rewritten as well as readjusted, yielding the total number of 14 items instead of 11. Furthermore, the format of the whole rating

scale was revised leaving out some details rationalizing the inclusion of each item as it was perceived as information overload by the co-rater who was also asked to give some comments on the rating scale.

Due to the time constraint, the English Speaking Rating Scale was not piloted to see if it could really be used to evaluate the subjective aspect as speaking ability. The final version of the English Speaking Rating Scale is presented in Appendix F.

3.3.2.2 English Speaking Confidence Scale

3.3.2.2.1 Development

The English Speaking Confidence Scale was designed by the researcher to assess students' perceived English speaking confidence. Particularly, it was designed to assess students' English speaking confidence in various classroom situations based on a literature review of Bailey (2001) and Tsui (2001). These situations varied according to the number of participants, the type of participants, and the type of tasks or functions. As for the number of participants, the situations varied according to the number of the participants in the conversation: a pair involving two people, a group involving three to six people, or a whole class involving more than six people. Considering the type of participants, the situations varied according to whether the students were speaking to the teacher or to other students. Regarding the type of tasks or functions, the situations varied according to whether the students were speaking in response to being called upon, speaking in response to questions or thoughts voluntarily, or deliberately initiating questions or thoughts without being called upon. Therefore, 18 classroom situations resulted. However, four among the 18 classroom situations were collapsed to two classroom situations, leading to the total

number of 16 classroom situations. To elaborate, in a pair conversation, responding to questions or thought with and without being called upon by the teacher were combined into one situation. In the same way, responding to questions or thoughts with and without being called upon by a peer student were combined into one situation. This was because in the aforementioned situations where only two people were involved in the conversation, it seemed mandatory for one conversation partner to respond to the other regardless of whether they were called upon or no. As a result, the English Speaking Confidence Scale consisted of 16 items.

This 16-item scale adopted a five-point Likert-scale format. In coding the data obtained from the five-point Likert scale questionnaire, the following scale would be followed: strongly agree = 5, agree = 4, not sure = 3, disagree = 2, and strongly disagree = 1. The directions would also instruct the students to choose the item that was closest to their perception as there would be no "undecided" or "neutral" response choice provided. The instruction would indicate that there was no right or wrong answer (Patton, 2001) and that the information given would not affect their grade for the course. This was to enhance their willingness to truthfully self-assess (Brindley, 2001). In terms of language, the scale was written in Thai to ensure students' comprehension of the questions.

3.3.2.2.2 Validation

Once it was developed, the English Speaking Confidence Scale, along with a validation form, was sent to a panel of four experts who had experience in teaching students at an undergraduate level for validation.

The validation form consisted of two parts. In part one, the experts were asked to evaluate the overall Likert-scale format which was perceived as appropriate. Part two consisted of 16 items addressing specifically each individual item of the English Speaking Confidence Scale. No item received less than 0.50 degree of acceptance. However, the experts commented that wording and Thai translation needed modification.

All the problematic aspects were revised based on the experts' suggestions. To start with, the wording and the Thai translation were revised based on the experts' suggestions. In addition, pairs of each individual item's English statement and Thai translation were presented to three colleagues who had an educational background in English. They were asked to give opinions whether they thought these pairs conveyed the same meaning and whether the Thai translation could be readily understood. It was commented that the statements in both languages conveyed the same meaning and that the Thai translation could be readily understood.

The English Speaking Confidence Scale was piloted with the sample of the first pilot study who was also asked to give opinions on comprehensibility of the item wording and the number of the Likert scale employed. No negative feedback was found regarding either of the concerns or any other aspects. The final version of the English Speaking Confidence Scale is presented in Appendix G.

3.3.2.3 Attitude Questionnaire

3.3.2.3.1 Development

The Attitude Questionnaire was designed to investigate the students' attitudes towards the Communication Strategy Instruction. The

questionnaire consisted of two parts. In the first part, the students would be directed to choose the number that would best indicate the degree of agreement on the questionnaire items. In the second part, the students would be encouraged, though not required, to provide further comments and/or suggestions on a provided space.

To elaborate, items in the first part dealt with the effects of the Communication Strategy Instruction regarding important aspects of teaching and learning. Genesee and Upshur's (1996) important of aspects of teaching and learning are instructional purposes, plan, practice, and input factors. Instructional purposes deal with objectives or goals whether they are accomplished at the end of the instruction. The aspect of instructional plan and practice deals with contents, organization, materials, activities and roles possibly including teacher support, and resources possibly including time for the instruction. The criterion to measure whether the aforementioned aspects of evaluation are appropriate is based on whether they match with the input factors. Examples of input factors are students' needs, their current language proficiency level, and their attitudes towards schooling.

In the present study, the factors that seemed relevant to the context were as follows. To start with, learning objectives or goals were measured whether they matched students' needs and whether they were accomplished because of the instruction. Other selected classroom-based factors of evaluation were appropriateness of contents, organization, materials, activities, teacher support, and time for instruction.

The students would be asked to rate their agreement on positive or negative effects of the Communication Strategy Instruction regarding the aforementioned

important aspects of teaching and learning. Altogether, the questionnaire consisted of 25 items.

The questionnaire adopted a five-point Likert-scale format. In coding the data obtained from the five-point Likert scale questionnaire, the following scale would be followed: strongly agree = 5, agree = 4, not sure = 3, disagree = 2, and strongly disagree = 1. This system would be used with all the questionnaire items except for the questionnaire item four which would receive a reverse coding system. That is, instead of the aforementioned coding scheme, the following scale would be followed: strongly disagree = 5, disagree = 4, not sure = 3, agree = 2, and strongly agree = 1. Finally, to determine the students' attitudes towards the Communication Strategy Instruction, the following scale would be followed: 1.00 - 1.50 = very negative, 1.51 - 2.49 = negative, 2.50 - 3.50 = neutral, 3.51 - 4.49 = positive, and 4.50 − 5.00 = very positive.

In terms of language, the questionnaire was written in Thai in order to ensure accurate comprehension. However, it included some specific terms in English regarding the names of the instructional content, the target strategies, and the name of the instructional stages in the strategy instructional model 4Ps as a reminder to enhance accurate perception.

The second part of the Attitude Questionnaire employing an open-ended format targeted at receiving further comments and/or suggestions. This part was presented under the heading "Further Comments and/or Suggestions" in a form of a blank space. Moreover, the instruction would indicate that there would be no right or wrong answer (Patton, 2001) and that the information given would not affect the students' grade for the course. This was to enhance their willingness to evaluate the

instruction. The students would be given the choice of using Thai or English. The rationale for using and allowing the completion in Thai was to overcome language barrier.

Quantitative data obtained from part two of the Attitude Questionnaire would be tallied and descriptive statistics of frequency and percentage would be calculated. In addition, content analysis would be used with the obtained open-ended data. Regarding the instructional design, the main categories were as follows: objective reached, activities, materials used, directions, other positive aspects, other negative aspects, and miscellaneous. As for the instructional contents, the main categories were as follows: benefits perceived, real life application, not new knowledge, further instruction or practice required, not useful knowledge, and miscellaneous.

3.3.2.3.2 Validation

Once it was developed, the Attitude Questionnaire, along with a validation form, was sent to a panel of four experts who also had experience in teaching students at an undergraduate level for validation. The validation form consisted of three parts. The experts were asked to mark whether they thought each of the instrument's components was appropriate. They were further asked to indicate reasons and give suggestions if they disagreed with or thought it was questionable.

In part one, the experts were asked to evaluate the overall Likert-scale format. Although it did not receive any disagreement, it was marked as questionable by two experts, one of whom questioned about the absence of the 'not sure' option and the other commented that generally rating scales should rather be in a five-scale format.

Part two consisted of 25 items addressing specifically each individual item of the Attitude Questionnaire. Twenty-two items were unanimously agreed and accepted as constructs measuring the participants' attitudes towards the course. However, some of the items were advised to be revised in terms of wording. Two items were agreed by three of the experts, while they were marked as questionable by the other expert who suggested revision in terms of wording and separating each of the items into two items. A further suggestion addressed the order of the items, pointing out that items closely related should be placed adjacently.

Part three consisted of one open-ended item. It was unanimously agreed on without any comments or suggestions.

All the problematic aspects of the instrument were revised based on the experts' suggestions. To start with, the Likert-scale format was changed to five scales: 'strongly disagree,' 'disagree,' 'not sure,' 'agree,' and 'strongly agree.' Secondly, the wording as well as its Thai translation was rewritten. Afterwards, the revised Attitude Questionnaire was submitted to another expert who also had experience in teaching the participant population. This expert had also been asked to validate instructional instruments in the present study. As a result, she further recommended revising the open-ended part of the Attitude Questionnaire to be more specific to better expect the desired data. Therefore, apart from the revision based on the former panel of experts' suggestions, the Attitude Questionnaire was also revised according to the additional suggestion. That is, such one open-ended questionnaire item was broken down to four items. To be specific, the first item elicited the most favorite instructional stage, the second item the least favorite instructional stage, the third item the most useful

instructional content, and the fourth item the least useful instructional content. In each of the aforementioned items, there was a space provided for open-ended elaboration.

The Attitude Questionnaire was piloted once with the sample of the pilot study in the first round after they received a sample lesson of the Communication Strategy Instruction. The students were told not to worry about some items as the information might seem incorrect as only a part of the Communication Strategy Instruction rather than the whole course was presented to them. They were asked to focus on the wording whether it was comprehensible. It was found that the Attitude Questionnaire was not perceived to be difficult to understand. Therefore, no further revision was applied. The final version of the Attitude Questionnaire is presented in Appendix H.

3.4 Data Collection

In the present study, data were collected before and after the implementation of the treatment or the Communication Strategy Instruction. Data collection was conducted as follows:

3.4.1 Pre-Assessments

One to two weeks prior to the course of the Communication Strategy Instruction, the pre-assessment of the English Speaking Test was administered to elicit information on the participants' level of English speaking ability without any impact of the Communication Strategy Instruction. The test was introduced to the sample of the main study as the Out-of-Class English Speaking Assignment rather than a test. They were informed that by simply showing up on time and finishing up the task, they would receive a full score for one piece of assignment regardless of how

well they could do it in order to lower their test anxiety. The students were asked to schedule their test taking time slot and to choose their own partner within the sample group. Following the schedule, two students came to meet the researcher at a private room based on the chosen time slot.

Each time slot lasted one hour although the actual testing time was only 15 minutes. The extra time was for icebreaking, introducing the purpose of the test, giving directions, providing a hands-on experience or doing the mock exam, and preparing for the task before the actual testing time began.

The mock exam was provided to ensure students' familiarity with the task so as to prevent unfamiliarity to the task from affecting students' speaking ability. As for language use, the mock exam was carried out using the Thai language instead of English to prevent students from knowing exactly what strategies to use when communicating in L2, which might have yielded a suggestive effect on the test result.

The students were seated on the same side of the table with some space in between where the researcher placed a barrier between the students so as not to let them see each other and communicate non-verbally while doing the task. Next, they were given the actual test paper including the picture prompt and the written prompt which also functioned as the answer sheet on which they were asked to write down their name. Then, one-minute preparation time was given so that they could go through the test paper and the students' performance was audio-recorded.

One week prior to the course of the Communication Strategy Instruction, the administration of the English Speaking Confidence Scale was administered by the researcher to elicit information on the participants' level of English speaking confidence without any impact of the Communication Strategy Instruction.

Prior to the administration, as the confidence scale items involved three types of classroom situations, namely pair communicative situation, group communicative situation, and whole class communicative situation, activities involving pair work, group work, and whole class work were organized to provide the participants a hands-on experience to reflect upon. The confidence scale was administered in class to all the 34 student participants without additional scheduling. The participants were reminded that the result of the questionnaire would have no effect on their grade, but that the purpose of the questionnaire was to raise awareness of how confident they were in speaking English. In addition, they were not asked to write their name on the questionnaire for the purpose of anonymity. As a result, they should answer the questions truthfully by choosing the level of agreement that best described their true feeling. However, some of them did write their name on the questionnaire. Right after the administration, the students were asked to place the scale in front of the class for the researcher to collect for a subsequent data analysis.

3.4.2 Implementation of Treatment

After the pre-assessments of the English speaking ability and confidence were administered, the treatment or the Communication Strategy Instruction was implemented.

The instruction lasted ten weeks inconsecutively due to the university's scheduling for midterm examination and a compensatory holiday, resulting in two-week discontinuance. In each week, the participants had to attend the Experiential English I class taught by the researcher for three hours. Out of the total of the three hours, approximately one hour was distributed to the implementation of the

Communication Strategy Instruction through the fully-fledged cycle model consisting of the four instructional stages: Pre-Reflection (15 minutes), Presentation (15 minutes), Practice (20 minutes), and Post-Reflection (ten minutes), or half an hour through the reduced model consisting of the last two instructional stages: Practice and Post-Reflection. In the last instructional stage, Post-Reflection, the researcher also distributed the Reflection Sheet which the students returned as soon as they finished filling in the information. Details on specific objectives and methodology of each week are presented in Appendix I.

3.4.3 Post-Assessments

Within one week after the implementation of the Communication Strategy Instruction, the post-assessment of the English Speaking Test was administered to provide information on the participants' level of English speaking ability with a potential impact of the Communication Strategy Instruction. In the test administration, the overall procedure was similar to the administration of the pre-assessment which was previously described. Additionally, some pairs which finished the English Speaking Test much more quickly than the time allowed were asked to compare the difficulty of the pre-assessment and the post-assessment. The feedback was found to be varied. While some said the pre-assessment was easier than the post-assessment, others said otherwise. For those who said the post-assessment was easier, they also raised their doubt whether it was the test was easier or because they were more familiarized with the tasks, knowing exactly what to do. As a result, they could do the tasks much faster without hesitating about what to do and how to approach the tasks.

As for the confidence scale, it was administered again one week after the implementation of the Communication Strategy Instruction to provide information on the participants' level of English speaking confidence with a potential impact of the Communication Strategy Instruction. As for the administration of the English Speaking Confidence Scale, the overall procedure was similar to the administration of the pre-assessment which was previously described. However, there were two students absent from class leaving the total number of 32 students to participate in the data collection. After completing the English Speaking Confidence Scale, the students were asked to place the English Speaking Confidence Scale in front of the class and to take the Attitude Questionnaire placed on the table.

The Attitude Questionnaire was then administered to provide information on the participants' attitudes towards the instruction. Similarly, the students were informed that there was no right or wrong answer and that the information given would have no effect on their grade. Rather, it would be beneficial for the teacher's teaching improvement. Right after the administration, the students were asked to place the Attitude Questionnaire in front of the class for the researcher to collect for a subsequent data analysis.

3.5 Data Analysis

In order to investigate the effects of the Communication Strategy Instruction on English speaking ability, English speaking confidence, and attitudes of EFL undergraduates, both descriptive and inferential statistics were used. In addition, content analysis was also applied with qualitative data. The following are details regarding data analysis.

3.5.1 English Speaking Ability

The first research question asked to what extent the Communication Strategy Instruction affected English speaking ability of EFL undergraduates. The audio recorded speech production of the 26 participants, excluding those eight participants who had missed at least one lesson of the Communication Strategy Instruction, was rated by two independent teacher raters using the English Speaking Rating Scale.

Afterwards, the rating results were analyzed. Descriptive statistics being means and standard deviations from the pre-assessment and post-assessment were calculated. Then, pre-assessment and post-assessment scores given by the two raters were computed to find inter-rater reliability using Pearson's correlation coefficient. It revealed a significant correlation between the pre-assessment mean scores of English speaking ability rated by the two independent raters, $r(25) = .588$, $p = .002$, and between the post-assessment mean scores of English speaking ability rated by the two independent raters, $r(25) = .696$, $p < .001$. Then, a paired-samples t-test was conducted to compare the mean scores of English speaking ability before and after the implementation of the Communication Strategy Instruction to test the Null Hypothesis One that there would be no significant difference in the mean scores of English speaking ability before and after the implementation of the Communication Strategy Instruction.

Next, to present the standardized mean differences or the effect size, an inferential statistics of Cohen's d was calculated to identify whether the effect size was small ($d = .20$), moderate ($d = .50$), or large ($d = .80$).

The construct of English speaking ability in the present study consisted of strategic competence and linguistic competence. Regarding strategic competence, it

was calculated from items zero to ten. As for linguistic competence, it was calculated from items 11 to 13.

3.5.2 English Speaking Confidence

The second research question asked to what extent the Communication Strategy Instruction affected English speaking confidence of EFL undergraduates. Despite the total number of 34 participants, two participants were excluded as they were absent on the day that the post-assessment of English speaking confidence was administered, leaving the total number of 32 to be included in the analysis of the effects of the instruction on English speaking confidence.

Data obtained from the English Speaking Confidence Scale were analyzed by means of descriptive statistics of means and standard deviations. Then, a paired-samples t-test was conducted to compare the mean scores of English speaking confidence before and after the implementation of the Communication Strategy Instruction to test the Null Hypothesis Two that there would be no significant difference in the mean scores of English speaking confidence before and after the implementation of the Communication Strategy Instruction.

Next, to present the standardized mean differences or the effect size, an inferential statistics of Cohen's d was calculated to identify whether the effect size was small ($d = .20$), moderate ($d = .50$), or large ($d = .80$).

In the present study, English speaking confidence was further investigated into confidence in speaking English in various classroom situations. That is, English speaking confidence was further divided by three different means. Firstly, in order to calculate the mean scores for English speaking confidence when communicating with

different numbers of participants, the mean scores derived from items one to four were used to indicate the level of English speaking confidence in a pair conversation involving two people, items five to ten in a group conversation involving three to six people, and items 11 to 16 in a class conversation involving more than six people, respectively.

Secondly, in order to calculate the mean scores of English speaking confidence when communicating with different types of participants, the mean scores derived from items one, two, five to seven, and 11 to 13 were used to indicate the level of English speaking confidence when communicating with the teacher, while items three, four, eight to ten, and 14 to 16 were used to indicate the level of English speaking confidence when communicating with one or more fellow students, respectively.

Thirdly, in order to calculate the mean scores of English speaking confidence when communicating in different types of tasks or functions, the mean scores derived from items two, four, seven, ten, 13, and 16 were used to indicate the level of English speaking confidence when communicating in response to being called upon or involving low input generators (LIGs). The mean scores derived from items one, three, five, six, eight, nine, 11, 12, 14, and 15 were used to indicate the level of English speaking confidence when voluntarily communicating in response to questions or thoughts or to deliberately initiate questions or thoughts without being called upon, or involving high input generators (HIGs).

3.5.3 Attitudes towards the Communication Strategy Instruction

The third research question elicited the attitudes of EFL undergraduates towards the Communication Strategy Instruction. Despite the total number of 34 participants, two participants were excluded as they were absent on the day that the Attitude Questionnaire was administered, leaving the total number of 32 to be included in the analysis of the effects of the instruction on attitudes.

In order to investigate the attitudes towards the Communication Strategy Instruction of EFL undergraduates, data collected from the Attitude Questionnaire were analyzed. Part one of the Attitude Questionnaire was analyzed by means of descriptive statistics of means and standard deviations.
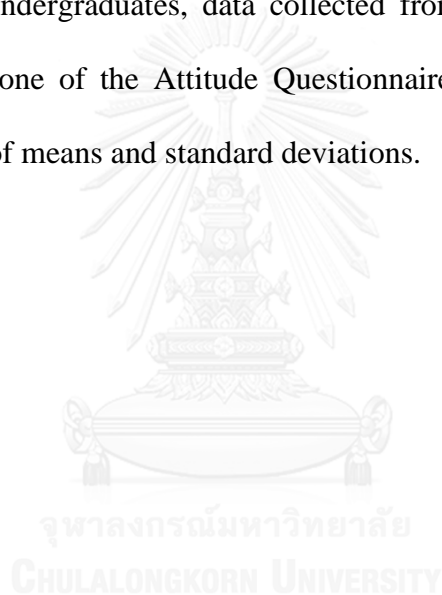
CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS

In this chapter, the findings obtained from conducting the present study to investigate the effects of the Communication Strategy Instruction on English speaking ability, confidence, and attitudes of EFL undergraduates are detailed. An intact group of seven male and 27 female Thai first-year undergraduates from the Faculty of Commerce and Accountancy majoring in Business Administration at Chulalongkorn University participated in the present study. Their language proficiency levels ranged from intermediate to advanced based on the results of Chulalongkorn University Test of English Proficiency (CU-TEP). These students registered in the Experiential English I course in the first semester of the academic year 2013. The findings regarding effects of the Communication Strategy Instruction on English speaking ability, confidence, and attitudes of EFL undergraduates are presented in this chapter.

4.1 English Speaking Ability

A paired-samples *t*-test was conducted to compare the mean scores of English speaking ability before and after the implementation of the Communication Strategy Instruction. As displayed in Table 4.1, the paired-samples *t*-test revealed a significant difference in the pre-assessment mean scores of English speaking ability ($M = 3.09$, $SD = 0.39$) and the post-assessment mean scores of English speaking ability ($M = 3.45$, $SD = 0.38$); $t(25)= -2.89$, $p = .008$. Therefore, the null hypothesis that there would be no significant difference in the mean scores of English speaking ability before and after the implementation of the Communication Strategy Instruction was

rejected. Further, Cohen's effect size value ($d = -0.95$) suggested a large practical significance.

Table 4.1

Findings from English Speaking Test

	Pre		Post				
	M	SD	M	SD	t	p	d
Overall Findings							
Speaking Ability	3.09	0.39	3.45	0.38	-2.89	.008*	-0.95***
Detailed Findings							
0 Written Task	3.42	1.42	4.08	1.23	-1.56	.131	-0.51
1. Answering	3.90	0.77	4.33	0.56	-2.06	.050*	-0.65**
2. Asking	3.54	0.79	4.04	0.76	-2.00	.056	-0.66
Answering & Asking	3.72	0.71	4.18	0.61	-2.16	.041*	-0.71**
3. Comprehension Checks	1.37	0.59	1.75	0.65	-2.08	.048*	-0.62**
4. Fluency	3.40	0.84	3.62	0.70	-0.90	.375	-0.29
5. Long Pauses	3.02	0.92	3.38	0.94	-1.35	.190	-0.39
6. Short Pauses	3.13	0.71	3.46	0.71	-1.99	.057	-0.47
7. Time-Gaining	1.69	0.74	1.46	0.76	1.05	.305	0.31
8. Cooperative SR	1.85	0.54	2.17	0.73	-1.74	.094	-0.51
9. Non-Cooperative SR	3.35	0.52	4.10	0.51	-5.09	.000*	-1.49***
10. Effectiveness	2.71	0.64	3.19	0.58	-2.79	.010*	-0.80***
Strategic Competence	2.85	0.41	3.23	0.41	-2.80	.010*	-0.95***
11. Grammar	3.69	0.55	4.00	0.63	-2.06	.050*	-0.53**
12. Vocabulary	3.90	0.51	4.31	0.62	-2.27	.032*	-0.74**
13. Pronunciation	4.27	0.45	4.42	0.58	-1.03	.311	-0.29
Linguistic Competence	3.96	0.43	4.24	0.43	-2.28	.031*	-0.66**

Note.
* = $p \leq .05$, two-tailed test; n = 26; df = 25;
** = moderate effect size, *** = large effect size, Cohen's *d*

As the construct of English speaking ability in the present study consisted of strategic competence and linguistic competence, detailed findings corresponding to each competence will be presented as follows.

4.1.1 Strategic Competence

A paired-samples *t*-test was conducted to compare the mean scores of strategic competence before and after the implementation of the Communication Strategy Instruction. The paired-samples *t*-test revealed a significant difference in the pre-assessment mean scores of strategic competence ($M = 2.85$, $SD = 0.41$) and the post-assessment mean scores of strategic competence ($M = 3.23$, $SD = 0.41$); $t(25)= -2.80$,

p = .010. Further, Cohen's effect size value (d = -0.95) suggested a large practical significance.

4.1.2 Linguistic Competence

A paired-samples t-test was conducted to compare the mean scores of linguistic competence before and after the implementation of the Communication Strategy Instruction. The paired-samples t-test revealed a significant difference in the pre-assessment mean scores of linguistic competence (M = 3.96, SD = 0.43) and the post-assessment mean scores of linguistic competence (M = 4.24, SD = 0.43); $t(25)$= -2.28, p = .031. Further, Cohen's effect size value (d = -0.66) suggested a moderate practical significance.

In short, the students' English speaking ability increased with statistical significance with a large effect size after the students received the Communication Strategy Instruction. However, the Communication Strategy Instruction seemed to have more impact on the students' strategic competence than on linguistic competence.

Next, the effects of the Communication Strategy Instruction on English speaking confidence will be presented.

4.2 English Speaking Confidence

A paired-samples t-test was conducted to compare the mean scores of English speaking confidence before and after the implementation of the Communication Strategy Instruction. As shown in Table 4.2, the paired-samples t-test revealed that the mean scores of English speaking confidence before the implementation of the

Communication Strategy Instruction were not significantly different (M = 3.34, SD = 0.34) from the mean scores of English speaking confidence after the implementation of the Communication Strategy Instruction (M = 3.51, SD = 0.41), t(31) = -1.89, p = .069. Therefore, the findings failed to reject the null hypothesis that there would be no significant difference in the mean scores of English speaking confidence before and after the implementation of the Communication Strategy Instruction.

Table 4.2

Findings from English Speaking Confidence Scale

	Pre		Post				
	M	SD	M	SD	t	p	d
Overall Findings							
English Speaking Confidence	3.34	0.34	3.51	0.41	-1.89	.069	-0.45
Detailed Findings							
Confidence when communicating with different numbers of participants							
Pair	3.58	0.52	3.70	0.44	-0.93	.358	-0.25
Group	3.30	0.37	3.53	0.47	-2.43	.021*	-0.54**
Class	3.22	0.41	3.36	0.55	-1.34	.190	-0.29
Confidence when communicating with different types of participants							
Teacher	3.44	0.33	3.60	0.43	-1.76	.089	-0.42
Peers	3.25	0.50	3.42	0.47	-1.40	.171	-0.35
Confidence when communicating for different types of tasks or functions							
LIGs	3.62	0.40	3.78	0.47	-1.61	.118	-0.37
HIGs	3.18	0.35	3.35	0.45	-1.75	.089	-0.42

Note.
* = p ≤ .05, two-tailed test; n = 26; df = 25; ** = moderate effect size

In the present study, English speaking confidence was further investigated. It was classified into different communication situations involving different numbers of participants, types of participants, and types of tasks or functions. The paired-samples *t*-test revealed that only the mean scores of English speaking confidence in group conversations before the implementation of the Communication Strategy Instruction were significantly higher (M = 3.30, SD = 0.37) than the mean scores of English speaking confidence in group conversations after the implementation of the Communication Strategy Instruction (M = 3.53, SD = 0.47), t(31) = -2.43, p = .021.

Further, Cohen's effect size value ($d = -0.54$) suggested a moderate practical significance.

In short, the students' English speaking confidence in group conversations increased with statistical significance with a moderate effect size after the implementation of the Communication Strategy Instruction. However, the Communication Strategy Instruction seemed not to have enough impact on the students' English speaking confidence across communication situations.

4.3 Attitudes towards Communication Strategy Instruction

Findings regarding the effects of the Communication Strategy Instruction on the attitudes of the EFL undergraduates are presented in two sections. The first section presents the findings from part one of the Attitude Questionnaire yielding overall findings, while the second section presents the findings from part two of the same questionnaire yielding elaborated findings regarding the instructional design and the instructional contents of the Communication Strategy Instruction.

4.3.1 Overall Findings Regarding Effects of the Communication Strategy Instruction on Attitudes of EFL Undergraduates

Descriptive statistics of means and standard deviations indicated the students' positive attitudes towards the overall Communication Strategy Instruction. As displayed in Table 4.3, the grand mean score ($M = 3.84$, $SD = 0.22$) and the mean scores of all items, except for item four regarding the students' needs whether the students wanted to use the Time-Gaining strategy ($M = 3.12$, $SD = 0.83$), were higher than 3.51. Table 4.3 presents the findings regarding each questionnaire item along

with means, standard deviations, categorization of the responses, and interpreted

attitudes.

Table 4.3

Findings from Attitude Questionnaire (Part One)

Items	M	SD	Response	Attitude
1. I want to answer/reply back so that my conversation partner would know that s/he is being understood.	4.22	0.42	Agree	Positive
2. I want to ask questions when I cannot hear, understand, or be certain in the accuracy of what heard.	4.19	0.47	Agree	Positive
3. I want to ask questions to check whether my conversation partner accurately understand what I said.	4.09	0.59	Agree	Positive
4. I want to pause my conversation in order to think of words or answers quietly.*	3.12	0.83	Not sure	Neutral
5. When I cannot express what I think, I want to ask my friends.	3.91	0.73	Agree	Positive
6. When I cannot express what I think, I want to ask my teacher.	3.81	0.69	Agree	Positive
7. When I cannot express what I think, I want to try to overcome the difficulty by myself.	4.00	0.57	Agree	Positive
8. Communication strategies can actually be used in practice.	4.03	0.65	Agree	Positive
9. The sequence of the four instructional stages (4Ps) effectively makes me understand how to use the communication strategies.	3.97	0.47	Agree	Positive
10. The duration of the instruction (10 weeks) is appropriate.	3.81	0.54	Agree	Positive
11. The difficulty level of the instructional contents (four communication strategies) is appropriate matching with my language ability.	3.78	0.42	Agree	Positive
12. The quantity of the instructional contents (four communication strategies) is appropriate responding to my needs.	3.75	0.51	Agree	Positive
13. Instructional instruments used effectively make me understand how to use the communication strategies.	4.00	0.57	Agree	Positive
14. Instructional activities used effectively make me understand how to use the communication strategies.	4.06	0.56	Agree	Positive
15. During the instruction, I received adequate assistance/advice from my teacher.	4.03	0.60	Agree	Positive
16. Communication Strategy Instruction makes me like to learn English more.	3.84	0.52	Agree	Positive
17. Communication Strategy Instruction makes me like to practice speaking English more.	4.09	0.39	Agree	Positive
18. CSI makes me more confident to speak English.	3.94	0.56	Agree	Positive
19. CSI has positive effects on English speaking ability of English language learners.	4.00	0.62	Agree	Positive
20. CSI has positive effects on my English speaking ability.	4.13	0.49	Agree	Positive
21. CSI has positive effects improving my ability in answering/replying back while listening.	3.97	0.31	Agree	Positive
22. CSI has positive effects improving my ability in asking when I cannot hear, understand, or be certain in the accuracy of what heard.	4.13	0.61	Agree	Positive
23. CSI has positive effects improving my ability in checking whether my conversation partner accurately understand what I said.	4.13	0.66	Agree	Positive
24. CSI has positive effects improving my ability in gaining more thinking time so that I would not have to keep silent while thinking of words or answers.	4.31	0.59	Agree	Positive
25. CSI has positive effects improving my ability in trying to overcome difficulty by myself when I cannot express what I think.	4.25	0.44	Agree	Positive
26. CSI has positive effects on my English listening ability.	3.94	0.67	Agree	Positive
27. I will keep using communication strategies in learning the language in other English classes.	3.91	0.69	Agree	Positive
28. I will keep using communication strategies in English communication outside language classroom.	4.09	0.68	Agree	Positive
Total	3.84	0.22	Agree	Positive

Note.
An item indicated with * was calculated with reversing scoring system.

The first aspect of teaching and learning of assessment was learning objectives or goals whether they matched the students' needs. Items one to seven indicated that the use of the target strategies matched the students' needs. To be specific, the ability to use the Answering strategy ($M = 4.22$, $SD = 0.42$) and the Asking strategy ($M = 4.19$, $SD = 0.47$) seemed to match the students' needs the most, as seen from items one and two, respectively. These were followed by the ability to use the Comprehension Checks strategy ($M = 4.09$, $SD = 0.59$). Items five to seven indicated the students' agreement that the ability to carry on their intended message despite some language incompetence, especially by means of using the Self-Repairing strategy matched the students' needs, as seen from item seven.

However, with an exception for the ability to use the Time-Gaining strategy, item four indicated neither agreement nor disagreement on whether the students wanted to use the aforementioned strategy exactly matched the students' needs ($M = 3.12$, $SD = 0.83$).

The learning objectives or goals of the instruction were also measured whether they were perceived to be accomplished due to the instruction. Item 18 indicated that because of the instruction, the students perceived that they had gained more confidence in speaking English ($M = 3.94$, $SD = 0.56$). As for English speaking ability, item 20 signified a perceived overall accomplishment that the students' English speaking ability was enhanced ($M = 4.13$, $SD = 0.49$). When further examined, in contrast to the findings regarding the students' needs of the ability to use the Time-Gaining strategy, item 24 indicated that the instruction had the highest perceived positive effects on the ability to appropriately deal with hesitation or cognitive working process rather than keeping silent ($M = 4.31$, $SD = 0.59$). It was

followed by the instruction's perceived positive effects on the ability to strategically apply their own limited yet available knowledge to overcome communicative difficulties ($M = 4.25$, $SD = 0.44$), as seen in item 25.

In addition to the perceived positive effects of the Communication Strategy Instruction on the students' ability to use the Time-Gaining strategy and the Self-Repairing strategy, the students also agreed with the perceived positive effects of the instruction on their ability to use the Comprehension Checks strategy ($M = 4.13$, $SD = 0.66$), the Asking strategy ($M = 4.13$, $SD = 0.61$), and the Answering strategy ($M = 3.97$, $SD = 0.31$), as seen in items 23, 22, and 21, respectively. Finally, although listening ability was not a predetermined learning objective or a predetermined dependent variable of the present study, the students also agreed that the instruction somehow had perceived positive effects on their English listening ability ($M = 3.94$, $SD = 0.67$), as seen from item 26.

Another implicit learning goal was the transferability of the instructional contents. Items 27 and 28 indicated that the students had an intention to continue using the instructional contents beyond the realm of their current language classroom. To elaborate, there was a tendency that the students would continue to use the instructional contents or the communication strategies taught in out-of-class context ($M = 4.09$, $SD = 0.68$) as well as in other in-class contexts ($M = 3.91$, $SD = 0.69$).

Perhaps, although not every objective of using the target strategies matched the students' needs, the instruction was perceived as effective, appropriate, and adequate, possibly resulting from the students' perceived improvement in the language ability and confidence. Therefore, it was likely that the students would carry on using the strategies well after the completion of the instruction.

In addition to the instructional purposes being the learning objectives or goals whether they matched the students' needs and whether they were perceived to be accomplished because of the instruction, other important aspects of teaching and learning regarding instructional plan and practice were also measured. To start with, regarding the instructional contents, item eight signified that the communication strategies taught were appropriate as they could be used in real life (M = 4.03, SD = 0.65). The difficulty level (M = 3.78, SD = 0.42) as well as the quantity of the instructional contents (M = 3.75, SD = 0.51) were also appropriate and adequate, as can be seen from items 11 and 12, respectively.

Other classroom-based factors of evaluation, namely organization, materials, activities, teacher support, and time for instruction were also found to be appropriate. Item 14 seemed to indicate that the students had the highest positive attitudes towards activities or tasks employed that they were effective in helping the students understand how to use the strategies taught (M = 4.06, SD = 0.56). Item 15 indicated adequate teacher support (M = 4.03, SD = 0.60). Appropriateness of the instructional instruments (M = 4.00, SD = 0.57) and the sequence of the four instructional stages (M = 3.97, SD = 0.47) was agreed, as seen from items 13 and nine, respectively, that they effectively made the students understand how to use the target strategies. Item ten also indicated that the duration of the instruction (M = 3.81, SD = 0.54) was appropriate.

Another important aspect of teaching and learning of investigation was the attitudes towards L2 learning. It was found that the instruction had positive effects on the students' attitudes towards L2 learning. To illustrate, item 19 indicated that the instruction had positive effects on English speaking ability of English language

learners (M = 4.00, SD = 0.62). The instruction also seemed to have positive effects on affective aspects that it made the students like to learn the target language more (M = 3.84, SD = 0.52) and to practice speaking the language more as well (M = 4.09, SD = 0.39), as seen from items 16 and 17, respectively.

As for the elaborated findings regarding the effects of the Communication Strategy Instruction, they will be displayed in the following section.

4.3.2 Elaborated Findings Regarding Effects of the Communication

Strategy Instruction on Attitudes of EFL Undergraduates

In addition to the overall findings presented in the previous section, data obtained from part two of the Attitude Questionnaire also elaborated the students' attitudes towards the Communication Strategy Instruction further. This section will first present an elaboration upon the instructional design. Next, it will present an elaboration upon the instructional contents. Along with the elaborated findings, examples of supporting statements most of which were translated by the researcher are provided.

4.3.2.1 Instructional Design

The Communication Strategy Instruction was implemented through the four instructional stages: Pre-Reflection, Presentation, Practice, and Post-Reflection. The third instructional stage, Practice, was perceived to be the most favorite stage by 81% of the students (26: N = 32), while the first instructional stage, Pre-Reflection, was perceived to be the least favorite stage by 47% of the students (15: N = 32). These findings were also confirmed by the data obtained which showed the lower

percentage when the students were asked which was the least favorite stage. That is, the third instructional stage, Practice, was perceived to be the least favorite stage by only 6% of the students (2: N = 32), while the first instructional stage, Pre-Reflection, was not chosen at all to be the most favorite stage (0: N = 32).
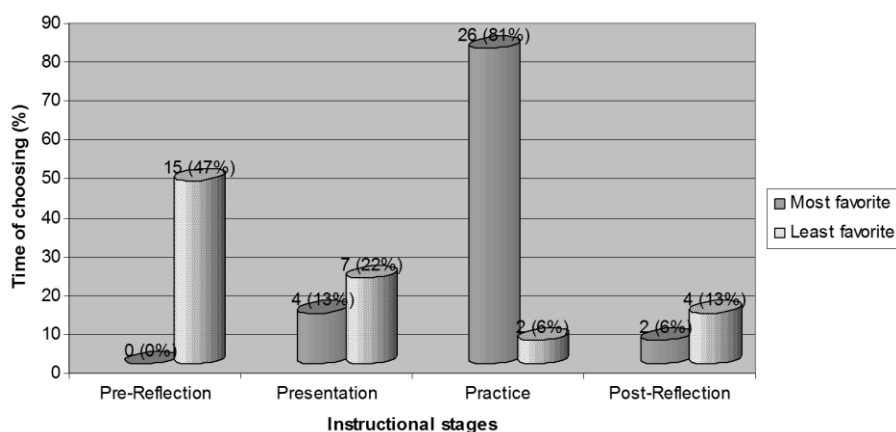

Figure 4.1. Frequency and percentage of responses chosen in questionnaire item one (most favorite stage) and questionnaire item two (least favorite stage).

Figure 4.1 displays frequency and percentage of responses regarding the most and least favorite instructional stages. Findings of each of the instructional stages of objectives, activities, instructional instruments, directions, other positive aspects, other negative aspects, and miscellaneous are presented, starting from the most to the least favorite stage.

4.3.2.1.1 Practice

The third instructional stage, Practice, was perceived to be most favorable by 81% of the students (26: N = 32). The objective of this stage was for the students to have a hands-on experience using strategies along with adequate support

from the teacher. At this stage, the students were provided with a communicative activity where they were encouraged to practice using target strategies taught in each lesson. While the students were practicing, the teacher was monitoring around the classroom and providing feedback or guidance when it was deemed necessary. The confirmation that the objective of this instructional stage was reached was reported by 59% of the students (19: N = 32). Qualitative findings also yielded support to such conclusion, as can be seen in the following excerpts:

I got to have a hands-on experience practicing using communication strategies. I got a chance to apply my knowledge and actually put it in practice. (AQ-23)

It gave me a chance to actually practice. As theories did not normally help much in practicing speaking, I tended not to dare to speak outside of the classroom if I was asked to. (AQ-19)

The aforementioned excerpts confirmed that the objective of this instructional stage was reached as the students reported to have a hands-on experience using the strategies and practicing speaking English. Furthermore, practicing speaking English was claimed to be crucial in improving English speaking ability as simply studying the English language could not directly improve the skill.

Regarding activities, they were brought up by 16% of the students (5: N = 32). The activities were reported to be fun, as one of the students explained that *"It was fun. There were always new prompts and games to do"* (AQ-02). The activities were

said to keep the students active, as one of the students described that *"It was fun. It kept me awake and made me more alert"* (AQ-22). Fun activities seemed to be essential in engaging the students with the target lesson. More importantly, the activities employed were reported to be the most effective way of learning, which was also conformed to their learning style, as one of the students stated that *"Practice was the most effective thing to do to improve the skill. Also, I did not quite prefer listening and slow learning. I would rather get my hands on the task"* (AQ-04). Not only the activities served the purpose of improving English speaking ability, but the activities were also conformed to the students' learning style, so they more effectively engaged the students in the target lesson.

Regarding this instructional stage, there were other positive aspects reported. Firstly, it was reported by 13% of the students (4: N = 26) to contain useful content, as one of the students said *"It was useful"* (AQ-05). Secondly, 9% of the students (3: N = 32) reported that this instructional stage enhanced familiarization, as one of the students described *"Practice made me feel used to it and dare to speak more"* (AQ-14). Similarly, 9% of the students (3: N = 32) reported that this instructional stage also enhanced transferability, as one of the students explained that *"It was useful and could actually be applied in daily life making us able to communicate more effectively"* (AQ-05). Thirdly, 6% of the students (2: N = 32) reported that this instructional stage also functioned as a self-assessment tool, as can be seen in the following excerpts.

I could test myself whether I could really understand. (AQ-03)

I could check the level of my English skill, so I know how to improve it or

what to fix. (AQ-14)

Lastly, one student reported that this instructional stage enhanced the thinking process, as s/he explained that *"I got to listen to others' opinions"* (AQ-25). In addition to the direct benefit on English speaking ability, this instructional stage also served other purposes. That is, the students could practice the speaking skill and simultaneously assess their own skill while doing the activities. Furthermore, the students were given a chance to widen their perspective by listening to the others.

Nevertheless, negative aspects regarding this instructional stage, Practice, were obtained from 6% of the students (2: N = 32). Such negative aspects dealt with individuals' background in language learning and language use, as one of the students mentioned that *"I was not used to speaking English in class"* (AQ-10). The negative aspects also dealt with interlocutors or conversation partners, as the other student rationalized that *"Sometimes, I could not think of the target word in English or my conversation partner tended not to speak English as it was harder than communicating in Thai, so sometimes Thai was used"* (AQ-30). Although these aspects were not a direct result of the instruction, they were also important factors affecting the students' English speaking.

As shown above, the Practice stage did give the students an opportunity not only to have a hands-on experience using the strategies taught but also to practice the speaking skill in general. The fun activities used in this instructional stage involving useful contents kept the students engaged in the lessons as well as familiarized the students with using the strategies. In addition, this instructional stage also gave the

students a chance to self-assess, practice their thinking skill, as well as listen to others' points of view.

4.3.2.1.2 Presentation

The second instructional stage, Presentation, was perceived to be most favorable by 13% of the students (4: N = 32). The objective of this stage was for the students to be aware of strategies which could be used to cope with communication problems. To enhance the students' metacognitive thinking process as well as their active involvement, how, when, and why strategies could be used were indirectly or inductively presented. Then the target strategies were once again directly or deductively presented to enhance the students' thorough understanding. At this stage, the students were provided with opportunity to watch others' performance of the strategy use before they were asked to identify communication problems that had occurred and strategies that were used to appropriately cope with such communication problems. The students were also asked to evaluate effectiveness or benefits of such strategy use. The students were further asked to brainstorm for other examples of such strategies before a summary of the strategies would be explicitly given by the teacher. The confirmation that the objective of this instructional stage was reached was reported by 6% of the students (2: N = 32), as one of the students stated that *"I had a chance to learn new communication strategies which could be suitably used in learning and in a daily life"* (AQ-27). The aforementioned statement confirmed that this instructional stage, Presentation, gave the students an opportunity to learn new strategies which could be used when carrying out communication.

Regarding instructional instruments in this second stage, it was reported to be interesting by one student (1: N = 32) who described that *"It was colorful and consisted of motion pictures making it interesting and not boring to learn"* (AQ-26). It seemed that the design of the instructional instruments also played a part in engaging the student with the target lesson.

Lastly, negative aspects regarding this instructional stage, Presentation, obtained from 22% of the students (7: N = 32), involved activities, directions, and instructional instruments. Regarding activities, it was reported by 9% of the students (3: N = 32) to be a less effective way of learning compared to an actual practice, as one of the students described that *"I felt that the Practice stage gave a better result than the Presentation stage"* (AQ-31). Also, it was reported that it was not conformed to their learning style, as one of the students complained that *"I had to only sit still and watch"* (AQ-16). It seemed that this student preferred actively practicing to passively listening to what the teacher had to say.

As for directions, 6% of the students (2: N = 32) found them to be not clearly given, as can be seen in the following excerpts:

Sometimes, I did not understand what the teacher wanted us to do.
(AQ-09)

As a result, I needed some time before I understood what to do. (AQ-08)

It seemed that clearer directions were required to enhance the students' understanding of what to do so that no or not too much time would be wasted on

figuring out what to do. In so doing, the students could make the most of the time learning about the newly presented strategies.

Lastly, as for instructional instruments, it was reported by one student not to be clear and interesting, as the student explained that *"Some parts of the Presentation stage were not quite interesting nor clear enough in informing how to apply the content"* (AQ-17). Although some instructional instruments in this particular stage were perceived positively as previously reported, other instructional instruments seemed to require a better design.

Given these points, the Presentation stage did provide the students language resources to use in different situations although it was not perceived to be the most effective means of learning as compared to the Practice stage. While some instructional instruments were appropriately designed, others still needed a better depiction as well as clearer directions.

4.3.2.1.3 Post-Reflection

The fourth instructional stage, Post-Reflection, was perceived to be most favorable by 6% of the students (2: N = 32). The objective of this stage was for the students to reflect on their use of newly learned strategies, to evaluate the effectiveness of the strategy use, and to decide on what to do with the strategies in the future: to practice more or to transfer them to use in other contexts. At this stage, students were provided with the Reflection Sheet. The confirmation that the objective of this instructional stage was reached was reported by 6% of the students (2: N = 32), as can be seen in the following excerpts.

I felt that I had learnt something. (AQ-7)

I could make use of it in my real life. (AQ-24)

It appeared that the students had a chance to reflect upon their learning realizing that they actually learned something. Furthermore, they felt that what they learnt could also be used even beyond the realm of their language classroom.

Nevertheless, negative aspects regarding this instructional stage, Post-Reflection, were obtained from 13% of the students (4: N = 32). It was commented that the Reflection Sheet was too frequently used, and they suggested the Reflection Sheet be completed only once every three weeks, as one of them explained, *"The frequency of filling in the Reflection Sheet should be reduced to only once every three lessons"* (AQ-13). They rationalized this as either because they were lazy, did not know what to answer, or could not remember words or sentences employed, and, as a result, had to think very hard. One of the students explained that *"I felt lazy to fill in the Reflection Sheet. Sometimes, I did not know what to answer, so I had to work my brain very hard"* (AQ-12). The solution to these problems was to give the same answer every week, as one of the students added that *"Doing it after every communication strategy lesson, I might have answered the same thing every time"* (AQ-03). Another reason why the students liked this particular instructional stage the least was due to the fact that it was against a natural communication procedure. This can be seen in the following excerpt:

Sometimes, I could not remember what I had spoken because when I spoke, it was fun and the conversation would keep continuing that I could not remember what was spoken. (AQ-01)

As far as the students were concerned, the conversation should be made without any pause or interruption that they should not have to ponder about the sentences they used.

In short, although the Post-Reflection stage could provide beneficial results, the frequency of this stage might be reconsidered as well as a reflection training might be required to even further enhance the desirable results.

4.3.2.1.4 Pre-Reflection

The first instructional stage, Pre-Reflection, was perceived to be most favorable by none of the students (0: N = 32). The objective of this stage was for the students to reflect on their current knowledge or behavior in strategy use to cope with communication problems. At this stage, students were assigned a communicative task before being asked to reflect on their strategy use in the assigned task to activate their background knowledge of the target strategies. Forty-seven percent of the students (15: N = 32) considered Pre-Reflection as their least favorite instructional stage. Nevertheless, the confirmation that the objective of this instructional stage was reached was reported by 22% of the students (7: N = 32), as can be seen in the following excerpts:

I was not confident to speak. (AQ-07)

I had not learned any communication strategy before, so I did not have the

communication skill yet. (AQ-06)

The aforementioned statements confirmed that the objective of this first instructional stage, Pre-Reflection, was reached as the students could realize their English speaking skill. For example, they had learned whether they were confident to speak, and how much they knew about strategies available to cope with communicative problems.

Regarding activities, they were reported by 6% of the students (2: N = 32) to be boring, as one of the students shared that "I think it's boring sometimes like talk about the same old things that most people know. Anyway, I think I'm bored, not hate or don't like this part" (AQ-29). The activities used in the Pre-Reflection stage were also reported to be too complicated, as another student explained that "There seemed to be much more procedures than the speaking itself" (AQ-19). This might be the reason why the students did not like this instructional stage. Instead of jumping into practicing, they felt they had to spend a lot of time understanding the activity procedure before carrying on the actual practice.

As for miscellaneous aspects, 9% of the students (3: N = 32) found reflecting on their strategy use not to be a natural communication procedure, as one of the students rationalized that *"Communication should be done fast that we should not have to think about it. We should be able to just communicate back immediately"* (AQ-04).

As has been noted, although the Pre-Reflection stage was not positively received, its objective was reached as it made the students know how they behaved or

felt in a situation. However, the activities used and directions given might need to be redesigned to facilitate the students' understanding of how to proceed the tasks so as to save time for explanation and increase time for carrying on the tasks.

Each of the instructional stages, namely Pre-Reflection, Presentation, Practice, and Post-Reflection, was perceived to be both positive and negative for the aforementioned reasons. Next, elaborated findings regarding the instructional contents will be presented.

4.3.2.2 Instructional Contents

The instructional contents of the Communication Strategy Instruction consisted of the Answering and Asking strategy, the Time-Gaining strategy, the Self-Repairing strategy, and the Comprehension Checks strategy. Among the four instructional contents, the third instructional content, the Self-Repairing strategy, was perceived to be most useful by 44% of the students (14: N = 32) while the fourth instructional content, the Comprehension Checks strategy, was perceived to be least useful by 50% of the students (16: N = 32). Figure 4.2 displays frequency and percentage of responses chosen regarding the most and least useful instructional contents. Each of the instructional contents regarding the following categories: benefits perceived, real life application, not new knowledge, further instruction or practice required, not useful knowledge, and miscellaneous. Findings regarding each of the communication strategies starting from the most to the least favorite are described.
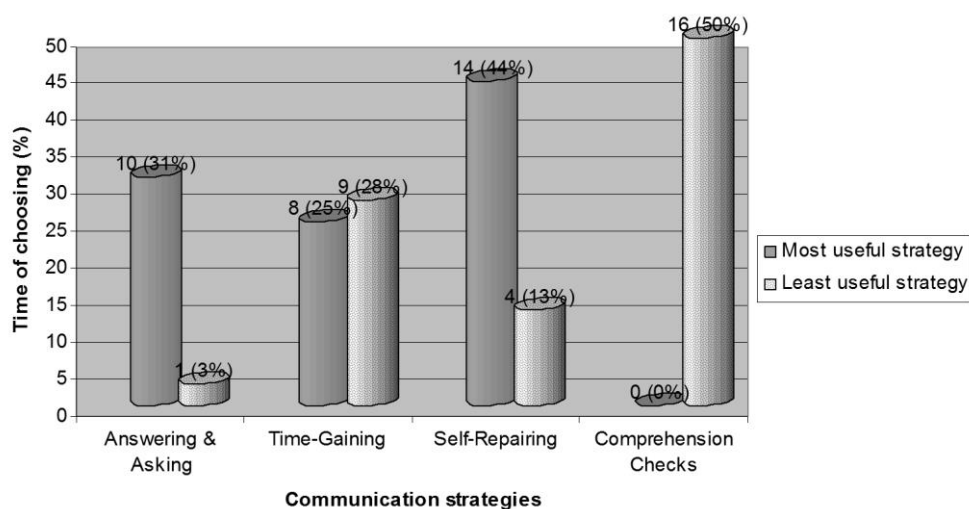
Note. Two participants omitted their answer for item four.

Figure 4.2. Frequency and percentage of responses chosen in questionnaire item three (most useful strategy) and questionnaire item four (least useful strategy).

4.3.2.2.1 Self-Repairing

The third instructional content, the Self-Repairing strategy, was perceived to be most useful by 44% of the students (14: N = 32). In general, the Self-Repairing strategy can be used to help speakers pursue the communicative goals despite the speakers' insufficiency in their personal linguistic repertoires. The speakers can either ask their conversation partners for a cooperative assistance or keep using other devices such as using generalization or approximation, and paraphrase. The confirmation that the benefit of this strategy was perceived was reported by 19% of the students (6: N = 32), as can be seen in the following excerpts:

Sometimes, when I could not think of the target word, I would use this strategy to enhance my speaking. (AQ-17)

I had learned how to deliver my target message in various ways such as by

giving examples, using antonyms, and using synonyms. (AQ-30)

The students accepted that the strategy could be used in making a conversation whether to give them a wider range of options in delivering the message or to solve their lack of vocabulary repertoire.

Regarding real life application, it was reported by 9% of the students (3: N = 32) that the strategy could be applied in their real life, as one of the students said that, *"It allowed me to practice and better improve my communication skill that I could make use of in a real situation"* (AQ-18). It appeared that the strategy could not only be used for language learning purposes but also for real life communicative purposes as well.

Other miscellaneous aspects regarding the Self-Repairing strategy were benefits in terms of language learning, as reported by 9% of the students (3: N = 32), and linguistic competence, as reported by one student. The strategy seemed to motivate the students to make use of what had already been learned instead of simply storing it inside. This can be seen in the following statements:

It made me think and practice speaking all the time. It allowed me to apply

what had been learned such as vocabulary and sentences to speak

English. (AQ-13)

I could apply what had been learned to communicate and make others

understand. (AQ-23)

Furthermore, the strategy seemed to trigger another way of using English as one of the students described that *"I had practiced that I did not have to think in Thai before arranging my thoughts into English"* (AQ-26). It seemed that by using the strategy, the student could produce English sentences starting from English language itself instead of starting from a Thai sentence and translating it into English afterwards.

As for linguistic competence, the Self-Repairing strategy seemed to facilitate English speaking even though the speakers had not mastered vocabulary skill as one of the students stated that *"I was not good at vocabulary"* (AQ-11). As a result, the strategy became useful to the speakers would become to communicate despite the lack of a complete vocabulary repertoire.

On the other hand, this instructional content, the Self-Repairing strategy, was perceived to be least useful by 13% of the students (4: N = 32) for three main reasons. Firstly, it was claimed not to be new knowledge, as reported by one student saying that, *"I had already had this strategy equipped"* (AQ-10). As a result, it seemed unnecessary to teach or learn about this strategy.

Secondly, it seemed that further instruction or practice was required, as one student described that *"Sometimes, I had tried but my conversation partner still could not understand me"* (AQ-03). Despite being categorized as a negative aspect of the strategy, the true cause of this issue seemed to lie in part in inadequate practice of the strategy use, or in the language competence of the conversation partner. Perhaps, with a prolonged practice, the students may become more perseverant in trying, or may be better equipped with more alternative means of the strategy to pursue the mutual understanding between or among the communicators.

In conclusion, the Self-Repairing strategy was praised to be beneficial as it allowed the students to pursue the communication goals despite the students' lack of language repertoire. Not only did the strategy enhance language use, but the strategy also enhanced language learning and linguistic competence. However, a different duration of the instruction for different students might be considered as some students may get the grasp of the strategy quickly, while others may need a longer practice time to be able to use the strategy effectively.

4.3.2.2.2 Answering and Asking

Ranked at number two, the first instructional content, the Answering and Asking strategy, was perceived to be most useful by 31% of the students (10: N = 32). The Answering strategy can be used to show understanding or interest to enhance the cooperation between or among the communicators. In the absence of the application of this strategy, an obscure perception whether the listener is listening or understanding, or a false perception that the listener is ignorant, may be created. As for the Asking strategy, it can be used to ask for further information to enhance comprehension when the message received is not clear, appropriate, or understood. In the absence of the application of this strategy, the listeners may not be equipped with completely accurate understanding crucial for taking the following turn of speaking or responding. This will inevitably prevent the listeners from being an efficient speaker in the conversation. Altogether, the Answering and Asking strategy allows conversation partners to know that they are still actively or willingly engaging in the conversation and whether the message sent across is understood. The confirmation that the benefit of this strategy was perceived was reported by 13% of

the students (4: N = 32), as one of the students stated, *"We could check whether we understood our conversation partner correctly and whether our conversation partner understood us correctly"* (AQ-24). Clearly, the students realized that the Answering and Asking strategy was a tool to allow the speakers to check their own understanding as well as to allow the conversation partners to know that their message was correctly sent across.

Regarding real life application, it was reported by 13% of the students (4: N = 32) that the Answering and Asking strategy could be applied in their real life, as one of the students described, *"It could always be applied in daily life"* (AQ-09). Based on the aforementioned student's perspective, the Answering and Asking strategy seemed to be highly useful as it could be of use in many situations.

Finally, another miscellaneous aspect regarding the Answering and Asking strategy was unintentional benefits in terms of listening skill as reported by one student, and thinking process as reported by 6% of the students (2: N = 32), as can be seen in the following excerpts:

> *Answering and asking allowed us a chance to practice listening when listening to our friends' answers... Answering questions allowed us a chance to practice analytical thinking for answers and using English in answering back.* (AQ-01)

It seemed that by using the Answering strategy, in particular, the students were indirectly required to pay attention to what the other students were saying, giving

them a chance to actually listen and think, instead of being ignorant when their friends were speaking.

On the contrary, this instructional content, the Answering and Asking strategy, was perceived to be least useful by one student whose response suggested that further instruction or practice was required, as the student described, *"I could not smoothly ask or answer questions"* (AQ-16). Perhaps, a prolonged duration of practice was required for this student to achieve the mastery in the strategy use.

In short, it was accepted that the Answering and Asking strategy helped enhance mutual understanding and the sense of the cooperation between or among the communicators. Furthermore, it was said to also promote listening and thinking skills so that students would be able to answer or ask questions appropriately. However, to some students, a longer period of learning or practice might be required so that the students could use the strategy effectively.

4.3.2.2.3 Time-Gaining

The third instructional content, the Time-Gaining strategy, was perceived to be most useful by 25% of the students (8: N = 32). The Time-Gaining strategy can be used to enhance or gain more time to come up with the answer and/or to think of words to represent it while keeping the communication channel open. As a result, not only will the speakers have more time to plan or develop alternative means of communication, listeners will also be signaled of the speakers' interest in remaining engaged in the conversation. The confirmation that the benefit of this strategy was perceived was reported by 22% of the students (7: N = 32). This can be seen in the following excerpts.

... so that we did not keep silent as other people might have misunderstood that we were not listening. (AQ-12)

Prior to studying communication strategies, I used to keep silent while thinking. After learning about the strategy, I could make use of it letting my conversation partner know that I was thinking. (AQ-15)

The students realized that the Time-Gaining strategy was useful as it could be used when they needed time to think instead of keeping silent as doing so could give a false perception of ignorance to the conversation partners.

Moreover, once the Time-Gaining strategy was used, but the speakers could still not come up with the target message, it could function as a bridge transferring the speakers to the use of another strategy such as the Asking strategy. This showed that the speakers did try to rely on their own part before relying on the others by asking them for help. This can be seen in the following statement:

I tended not to be able to think of or remember the target word, so I thought it would be a good idea to use the Time-Gaining strategy to buy more thinking time. If I still could not figure out the word, I could later ask for the word. (AQ-19)

Regarding real life application, it was reported by 6% of the students (2: N = 32) that the Time-Gaining strategy could be applied in their real life, as one of the students said, *"I thought it could really be used"* (AQ-12). It seemed that the

students could probably transfer the use of the strategy to the realm beyond their language classroom which would be even more beneficial than solely using it in class.

Finally, another miscellaneous aspect regarding the Time-Gaining strategy was benefits in terms of linguistic competence, as reported by one student describing that *"It allowed us a chance to think for the target words and better structure our sentences"* (AQ-25). As mentioned earlier, the strategy seemed to encourage the students to try to restore their passive knowledge as well as to manage that language knowledge into a more accurate output.

On the other hand, this instructional content, the Time-Gaining strategy, was perceived to be least useful by 28% of the students (9: N = 32) for three main reasons. Firstly, it was claimed not to be new knowledge, as brought up by one student. The student explained that *"I've already known that I always do it in general conversation. So, I think I just don't get anything more. However, this strategy is useful, not useless at all"* (AQ-29). The strategy seemed to be useful; however, it may have been unnecessary to be taught to some students who may have already used it.

Next, the Time-Gaining strategy was claimed not to be useful as reported by 6% of the students (2: N = 32). One of the students explained, *"As I could not think of the word, the time gained would still be worthless"* (AQ-22). It seemed that the time gained would not be of any advantage as the students still had not mastered the use of the other strategy such as the Self-Repairing strategy which would allow alternatives in delivering words.

Thirdly, the responses of 13% of the students (4: N = 32) seemed to suggest that further instruction or practice of the Time-Gaining strategy use was required. This can be seen in the following statements:

I tended to forget to use the strategy when I was thinking. (AQ-11)

I tended to say "Ummm…" as my regular habit. Although it was not a formal way to do it, I did not just keep silent. (AQ-24)

It did not help improve English speaking skill. (AQ-06)

While to some students, a prolonged practice may enhance automatic use of the strategy, other students may need to be enlightened with a wider or different perspective. That is, the students should be made aware that there could be a short-coming from using an informal way of gaining time and that a formal way of doing it could prevent such short-coming. Furthermore, some students may need to be made aware that their language skill could not be improved simply by using the Time-Gaining strategy. Rather, the strategy was just a tool to give them time to get by additional means to improve their language as well as communication skills.

To sum up, by using the Time-Gaining strategy, the students were at an advantage in keeping the conversation channel open even when the students fell short of words or ideas. Besides, the strategy also took part in enhancing linguistic competence allowing the students the chance to polish their language output to be as correct as possible. While to some students, it was not necessary to teach them the strategy as they had already used it, other students needed a prolonged practice to be able to use it naturally. Furthermore, some students may need to be made better aware of its potential so that they would see its benefits and eventually try to employ it more often to enhance not only the communication but also their language skill.

4.3.2.2.4 Comprehension Checks

The fourth instructional content, the Comprehension Checks strategy, was not perceived to be most useful at all although it can be used to test or check whether listeners understand the conveyed message in a cooperative attempt to solve communicative problems that may occur. Rather, it was perceived to be least useful by 50% of the students (16: N = 32) for two main reasons. Firstly, it was claimed not to be new knowledge, as reported by 16% of the students (5: N = 32). One of the students described that *"I had already usually checked my conversation partner by asking 'Do you get it?'"* (AQ-05). It seemed that even without being taught, the students had already known what to do to check their conversation partners' understanding. As a result, it may not be necessary to teach the Comprehension Checks strategy to some students.

As for the second reason, negative attitudes towards the strategy use was brought into light. To illustrate, it seemed that further instruction or practice was required, as reported by 6% of the students (2: N = 32). One of the students shared that *"Sometimes, I forgot to use it"* (AQ-27). It seemed that further practice might be required to enhance automacy in the strategy use. Another reason supporting a call for a prolonged duration of learning or practicing as reported by 19% of the students (6: N = 32) was that the students were not used to the idea of checking their partners' understanding as they either thought that they were being understood or relying on the partners to ask for help if the partners did not understand. This can be seen in the following excerpts.

I tended not to ask my conversation partner if s/he understood as I tended

to think that I was being understood. (AQ-12)

I tended not to ask my conversation partner if s/he understood because if

my conversation partner did not understand, s/he would have such

reaction. (AQ-19)

All in all, it seemed unnecessary to teach the Comprehension Checks strategy to some students who may already have used it naturally in their communication. However, teaching the strategy to other students could facilitate their oral communication as it could enable them to use the strategy naturally and effectively. Consequently, they could take an active role in checking their partners' understanding rather than having a false perception of being understood or passively relying on their partners' reaction.

4.4 Summary of Findings

By and large, this chapter presents the findings corresponding to the three research questions regarding the effects of the Communication Strategy Instruction on three dependent variables, namely English speaking ability, English speaking confidence, and attitudes towards the instruction of the EFL undergraduates. While the students' English speaking ability increased with statistical significance with a large effect size, the Communication Strategy Instruction seemed not to have as much impact on the students' English speaking confidence. Nevertheless, the instruction seemed to have positive effects on the students' attitudes towards the instruction.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

This final chapter firstly presents the summary of the present study and the summary of findings. Then, the findings are discussed and implications of the findings are indicated. Finally, the chapter describes limitations of the present study and puts forward recommendations for future research.

5.1 Summary of the Study

With the belief that communication strategies have the potential to improve English speaking ability as well as confidence in EFL learners, the present study was carried out to investigate the effects of the Communication Strategy Instruction on EFL undergraduates' English speaking ability, confidence, as well as attitudes towards the instruction. It was hypothesized that after receiving the Communication Strategy Instruction, EFL undergraduates' English speaking ability and confidence would be different at a significant level.

By adopting a one-group pretest-posttest design, an intact class of Chulalongkorn University undergraduates was provided with the Communication Strategy Instruction which was integrated into an existing English foundation course. Literature was reviewed on related topics upon which the Communication Strategy Instruction including instructional instruments and data collection instruments were developed. Afterwards all of the aforementioned instruments were validated by experts in related fields, piloted, and revised. Then, the pre-assessments of English speaking ability and confidence were administered prior to the implementation of the

Communication Strategy Instruction. After the implementation of the Communication Strategy Instruction, the post-assessments of English speaking ability, confidence, and attitudes towards the instruction were administered. The data obtained from both the pre-assessments and the post-assessments were analyzed, and the findings were described in detail as can be seen in the previous chapter.

5.2 Summary of the Findings

As previously mentioned, the present study was set out to investigate the effects of the Communication Strategy Instruction on EFL undergraduates' English speaking ability, confidence, as well as attitudes towards the instruction. While a significant increase was found in the students' English speaking ability with a large effect size, no significant difference was found in the students' English speaking confidence. As for the students' attitudes towards the instruction, overall positive attitudes were revealed.

5.3 Discussion

In this section, the findings of the present study previously mentioned in regards to the effects of the Communication Strategy Instruction on EFL undergraduates' English speaking ability, confidence, and attitudes towards the instruction are discussed.

5.3.1 English Speaking Ability

The present study revealed a significant increase with a large effect size in the students' English speaking ability after the implementation of the Communication

Strategy Instruction. This finding was consistent with the findings revealed in several research studies. For example, Burrows (2009) looked into a number of research studies involving communication strategy instruction and found that the majority of the research studies had shown enhancing effects of communication strategy instruction on strategy use as well as language proficiency. To name a few, Alibakhshi and Padiz (2011) had found that the participating EFL learners used communication strategies significantly more often as well as utilized more types of communication strategies after receiving a ten-week teaching of nine communication strategies. In addition to the increasing frequency and type of strategy use, the increase at a significant level in language proficiency was evidenced in the studies conducted by Motallebzadeh (2009), Maleki (2007), Nakatani (2005), and Lam (2006). In the aforementioned four research studies, it was found that after receiving an explicit strategy instruction, the participants in the experimental group outperformed those in the control group. Furthermore, it was only the participants in the experimental group whose proficiency improved at a significant level.

Such a statistically significant increase in the students' English speaking ability may be rationalized as follows:

Firstly, the nature of the instruction may help explain such a statistically significant increase in the students' English speaking ability. The Communication Strategy Instruction was designed based on the combination of learning theories proposed by behaviorists, cognitivists, and socio-cultural theorists. As a result, the students were provided with a presentation of language models which were the target strategies and repeated practice opportunities based on the behaviorist theory. In

addition to having an opportunity to practice, the students also had a chance to interact with their peers reflecting socio-cultural learning theory.

Furthermore, in the first and the last instructional stages: Pre-Reflection and Post-Reflection, in particular, the students' conscious attention was called for, which reflected the cognitivist learning theory. Similarly, reflection, a strategy instructional component, was claimed to play an influential role in promoting English speaking ability in one group of Huang and Hung's (2010) students who had a chance to reflect upon their language use and learning process.

Particularly, in addition to the nature of the instruction, perhaps how the instruction was provided may have contributed to promotion of the students' English speaking ability. Based on the findings revealed in the Attitude Questionnaire, the students perceived the instruction to be an effective means of instruction. With an effective instruction comes enhancement in the target ability. This is probably because language teaching practice is one of the most important factors influencing student speaking or participation in a language classroom (X. Cheng, 2000). Perhaps how the instruction was provided yielded a safe learning environment encouraging student active risk taking and participation (Saengboon, 2006). Actively participating, the students had more practice opportunities which had a potential to facilitate the improvement in their speaking ability. Therefore, it seems logical that the students' English speaking ability statistically significantly increased.

In addition to the improvement in the English speaking ability, the enhancing effects of the Communication Strategy Instruction also pertain in the students' affective domain. To illustrate, based on the Attitude Questionnaire, the students agreed that the Communication Strategies made them like to learn as well as to

practice speaking English more. Potentially, the students' positive attitudes toward learning and practice speaking English may have taken part in providing the students with a better sense of their ability to improve their English speaking ability

In a nutshell, the Communication Strategy Instruction seemed to enhance not only the students' English speaking ability but also the positive attitudes towards L2 learning which was important for a language enhancement process.

5.3.2 English Speaking Confidence

The present study failed to reject the null hypothesis that there would be a statistically significant difference in the students' English speaking confidence before and after the implementation of the Communication Strategy Instruction. This is possibly because confidence in speaking English was also influenced by other variables that were beyond the control of the developed instruction of the present study. Examples of variables influencing the level of English speaking confidence are individual aspects, namely attitude, learning styles, belief, self-perception, cultural norm or background (Tsui, 2001), personality (MacIntyre et al., 1998), and previous experience (Bandura, 1986). However, three main variables explicitly investigated in the present study were the number of participants, the type of participants, and the type of tasks or functions. The aforementioned three variables will be discussed as follows.

5.3.2.1 Number of Participants

One of the variables classifying classroom communication situations in the present study was the number of participants. Among all the classroom

communication situations in the present study, a statistically significant increase with a moderate effect size was found only in the students' English speaking confidence when communicating in a small group of three to six people after the implementation of the Communication Strategy Instruction.

Similarly found in the study conducted by de Saint Léger and Storch (2009), a student reported continuing her attempt to pursuing her communicative goal in a small group discuss, while she admitted that she would not do so in a whole class discussion. To further elaborate, most students in the study conducted by de Saint Léger and Storch (2009) revealed that the whole class discussion was most difficult compared to pair and group discussion due to the possibility of being negatively judged by peers. Speaking to or in front of the class was perceived as a threatening process in itself (de Saint Léger & Storch, 2009).

In the same way, students preferred speaking in a small group possibly because they could take turn speaking, listening, and helping each other (Cao & Philp, 2006). Cao and Philp (2006) further explain that perhaps the sense of cohesiveness was missing in the whole class communication pattern making language learners less confident to speak. Unfortunately, this notion may seem to contradict the aspect of intergroup affiliation. That is, a better sense of cohesiveness in pairs or small groups may not necessary encourage English speaking. This is because the students might feel less obligated to speak in English unlike in a whole class situation that the necessity to do so is rather clear.

That said, it seemed to explain why in the present study a statistically significant increase occurred in the students' English speaking confidence in small group conversations but did not take place in the students' English speaking

confidence in pair conversations. Possibly, perhaps the sense of cohesiveness was so strong, making the students feel much less obligated to speak in English. Thus, the students' English speaking confidence in pair conversations did not occur at a statistically significant level.

As for whole class type of activities, they should not remain predominant in a language classroom as they seemed to have more detrimental effects in English speaking confidence. However, it should not be completely removed. Rater, group activities may be set as a starting point to prepare students for the subsequent whole class activities so that students would not take for granted the opportunity to practice and prepare themselves in a less intimidating atmosphere before performing whole class activities.

5.3.2.2 Type of Participants

Another variable classifying classroom communication situations in the present study was the type of participants. The two types of participants investigated in the present study were a non-native English teacher and peer students. Confidence in English speaking with different types of participants may vary according to L2 proficiency of and intimacy level with conversational participants or interlocutors, which were beyond the control of the developed instruction of the present study.

Regarding L2 proficiency of conversation participants or interlocutors, the students' English speaking confidence seemed to be low in a situation where students perceived their interlocutors to have higher L2 proficiency (Kang, 2005; Osboe, Fujimura, & Hirschel, 2007). However, this matter was not simple. Possibly, as an

exception, L2 higher proficiency of language teachers may not be seen as intimidating. Rather, it might have been seen as a potential in developing language learners' skill. For example, a student in Cao's (2011) study asserted her/his preference in having the teacher involved in the conversation as the teacher would correct her/his mistakes when they occurred.

As for level of intimacy, it was found that the students would be more confident to speak provided that the level of intimacy between or among the interlocutors was high (Cao & Philp, 2006). On the contrary, a student participant in de Saint Léger and Storch's (2009) study showed the opposite. That is, speaking L2 with a stranger was said to be more practical. As the student elaborated, it might also be practical to speak L2 with classmates at the beginning of the semester as they would not have known each other well. This aspect might intertwine with the cultural norm or background aspect. Perhaps the habit of communicating with each other in L1 was already formed, and so they were familiar with speaking L1 with each other. Therefore, it may seem more difficult to remove such language use habit to communicate in L2 instead.

Based on the aforementioned notion, it seemed that in addition to the level of intimacy, whether L1 was shared between or among interlocutors also partook in influencing English speaking confidence in a language classroom. Similar findings were found in the studies conducted by Osboe et al. (2007), Kang (2005), and de Saint Léger and Storch (2009). To illustrate, some students were found less confident to speak English with their classmates because they felt it was bizarre to speak an L2 with those who shared the same L1.

5.3.2.3 Type of Tasks or Functions

The last variable classifying classroom communication situations in the present study was the type of tasks or functions. Types of tasks or functions, in the scope of the present study, was mainly classified as Low Input Generators (LIGs) involving responding upon being called upon, and High Input Generators (HIG) involving volunteering or taking initiative in communicating (Seligers, 1977, as cited in Tsui, 2001). It was hoped that by receiving the Communication Strategy Instruction, the students would be more confident and take more initiative roles in class volunteering to answer or deliberately ask question when in doubt. However, it seemed that simply providing the Communication Strategy Instruction was inadequate to enhance the students' English speaking confidence at a significant level when it comes to LIGs or HIGs.

It is worth noting that perhaps rather than an effort put forth in enhancing confidence in speaking in a situation involving HIGs, language teachers may start with focusing on a speaking situation involving LIGs. Perhaps, if asking for volunteers and no one explicitly indicates their willingness to participate, language teachers may need to look for implicit nonverbal clue and call for the volunteer accordingly. This is because despite learners' confidence in their perceived linguistic competence, for instance, culture regarding the appropriacy of class participation also takes part in influencing English speaking confidence (Cao & Philp, 2006). As a result, although learners may be equipped with the linguistic competence, without being asked, they might not be confident enough to volunteer possibly because they are not familiar with doing so, or perhaps so doing may give them an undesirable attention.

5.3.3 Attitudes towards Communication Strategy Instruction

The study revealed overall positive attitudes towards the Communication Strategy Instruction. Based on a survey results ("Learning English: Suan Dusit Poll," 2004), speaking was perceived to be important by the majority of the respondents. However, speaking skill was perceived to be learners' weakest language area (Rongsa-ard, 2002). Compared to the context of the present study, although it remained inconclusive whether speaking was the students' weakest language area or not, it could be assumed that speaking was probably one of the most desirable skills to master.

Therefore, the first plausible reason why the students in the present study had positive attitudes towards the instruction might be due to the instructional purposes being learning objectives or goals of the instruction. To explicate, the learning objectives or goals of the Communication Strategy Instruction was for the students to gain the ability and confidence in communicating orally in spontaneous daily life conversations regardless of their lack of native-like English proficiency. Clearly, the students wanted to be able to use the language not just for classroom evaluation but ultimately for effective communication. Based on what was claimed by Rivers (1981), C. Williams et al. (2008), and Wiriyachitra (2002), speaking is the most used skill not only in but also beyond the sphere of language classrooms including in the workplace.

Another possible explanation is that learning objectives or goals of the Communication Strategy Instruction reflected genuine communication. To elaborate, the objectives or goals of the instruction accepted the fact that in a course of a communication, there were intelligibility and misunderstanding, hesitation, and lack of complete repertoire of grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation. Compared to other

traditional language courses, the objectives or goals of the Communication Strategy Instruction did not include accuracy. Rather, the focus was on mutual understanding which was far more important in a genuine communication than complete accuracy in a traditional language classroom.

Although some students perceived that the instructional purposes or learning objectives did not match the students' needs, others felt that the learning objectives or goals were somehow accomplished. As might be expected, the positive effects of the Communication Strategy Instruction were primarily perceived when it came to the ability to use the Self-Repairing strategy. This was also confirmed by the English Speaking Test results that yielded a statistically significant increase in the use of the aforementioned strategy with a large effect size. The findings were consistent with that of the study conducted by Nakatani (2005) in which a significant increase in using achievement strategies was found in the experimental group of the participants not only through a transcription analysis but also through a retrospective verbal protocol.

On the other hand, it was interesting to see the contradictory findings regarding the ability to use the Answering and Asking strategy and the Time-Gaining strategy. To elaborate, while the ability to use the Answering and Asking strategy, particularly the Asking strategy, matched the students' needs the most, the students seemed to perceive the least positive effects of the Communication Strategy Instruction on the ability to use the aforementioned strategy, compared to the ability to use the other target strategies. Similar findings were found in the study conducted by Maleki (2007). To explicate, the increase in the students' use of the appeal for assistance strategy which was in parallel with the Asking strategy in the present study

was less prominent than the increase in the students' use of other achievement strategies which were referred to as the Self-Repairing strategy in the present study. Possible explanations could be due to the effectiveness of the instructional means or the necessity in the strategy use. That is, perhaps the instructional means of the Self-Repairing strategy was more effective than that of the Asking strategy, resulting in a more highly increasing use of the Self-Repairing strategy. It could also be a result of the lack of the necessity to use the Asking strategy. Students may have encountered a few receptive communicative problems, resulting in a smaller increase in the use of the Asking strategy, while the need to express themselves intelligibly was immense resulting in a more need to use the Self-Repairing strategy.

In contrast, while the students were not certain whether the ability to use the Time-Gaining strategy would match their needs, they perceived the highest positive effect of the use of the Time-Gaining strategy. However, despite such perception, no statistically significant difference in the use of the Time-Gaining strategy was found in the English Speaking Test results. It was possible that the students perceived the sound benefit of using the Time-Gaining strategy that it could really enhance the communication. However, the students' cultural background may have had a bearing on an impact at the behavioral level. To illustrate, in Thai culture, face is important (Smyth, 2000). This means that the students tend not to speak for fear of making mistake. As a result, the students might have been familiarized with the behavior of keeping silent until they had a definite idea of what to say. Having become part of the students' personality, the habit of keeping silent while thinking may unlikely to be altered, especially not within a short period of ten weeks of the Communication

Strategy Instruction. As a result, such positive effects could be seen only at the perceptive level but not at the behavioral level.

Apart from the instructional purposes previously mentioned, another important aspect of teaching and learning being instructional plan and practice was also perceived to be positive. To start with, the instructional contents of the present study or the target strategies were perceived as appropriate because they could facilitate language learning. In particular, they helped improve the students' linguistic competence. To illustrate, one student described that a chance to better structure sentences was provided by using the Time-Gaining strategy. This finding was consistent with that found in the study conducted by Jamshidnejad (2011) who found that communication strategies not only enhanced communication but also promoted linguistic accuracy.

Moreover, the instructional contents could be used beyond the current language course. Basically, the instructional contents or the target strategies could be used in real life. As a result, the students agreed that they would keep using the strategies in English communication outside language classrooms. For example, one student described positive effects of the Self-Repairing strategy on compensating the student's linguistic competence when reasoning why the Self-Repairing strategy was the student' most favorite strategy. It seemed that by using the Self-Repairing strategy, the student could get by even though the s/he was not good at vocabulary.

Another important aspect of teaching and learning was the organization of the instruction. The 4Ps instructional design was perceived as appropriate, effectively making the students understand how to use the target strategy. Although each of the instructional stages was perceived with different degrees of preference, they all served

their purpose. To illustrate, the students got to know about their strategy use behavior at the initial phase of the instruction. Possibly, this might have helped bring the contents closer to the students' perception. Then, they got to learn about what they could do to compensate for the lack of full mastery in their language proficiency. Not only had the students had a chance to learn about the strategies, but they also gained hands-on experience to actually use them. The students got to reflect about the learning that had taken place as well.

However, despite serving their purpose, the stages of the Pre-Reflection and the Post-Reflection seemed not to be welcomed by the students in the present study. The finding were inconsistent with the study conducted by Mir (2006). Based on Mir's (2006) observation, through self-reflection, students could perceive enjoyment in speaking as well as their ability to do so with concrete evidence. Perhaps, despite its promising advantage of reflection as a learning process to language development, an alternative means of reflection or guidance in self-assessment may be required to achieve its optimal benefit.

5.4 Implications

As it was found that the Communication Strategy Instruction had positive effects on the students' English speaking ability, confidence particularly in small group conversations, and attitudes toward the instruction, the following implications of the present study can be made.

5.4.1 Implications on Enhancing English Speaking Ability

Communication strategies should have their place in EFL education. This is because communication strategies can be applied in order to compensate for gaps in language proficiency as well as to overcome constraints in thinking and planning time in a course of a genuine communication. Richards (2001) has pointed out that two components crucial for developing speaking ability are the development of communication strategies and engagement in negotiation of meaning. To illustrate, communication strategies such as those used for asking questions and participating in discussion should be taught to enhance English speaking ability (N. Liu & Littlewood, 1997). While there are a number of useful strategies to use in different situations, a small number of four main communication strategies can be a starting point so that it will not be too overwhelming for both language teachers and learners. Similarly, while it is unpredictable whether all these strategies will be needed, or they will be needed in a fixed order, teaching these strategies in the order of the Answering and Asking strategy, the Time-Gaining strategy, the Self-Repairing strategy, and the Comprehension Checks strategy can raise EFL learners' awareness that their not fully developed listening ability needs not be a barrier to their speaking ability development. This is because, by teaching EFL learners in the aforementioned order, the first strategy, the Answering and Asking strategy, will help these learners cope with their listening incompetence. This first strategy can also enhance communication by enlightening EFL learners on how to explicitly cooperate with their conversation partners. This can take result in prolonging language learners' conversation, which stretches out speaking practice as well.

In addition to the gaps in language proficiency, limited thinking and planning time can be dealt with more properly by using the Time-Gaining strategy. Theoretically, the Time-Gaining strategy will benefit listeners perceiving that the conversation is still ongoing and will benefit speakers earning more time to think of what to say and how to say it. Furthermore, it may conceivably serve as a commitment learners make to persist in pursuing the intended communicative goal. To illustrate, without using the Time-Gaining strategy, it might be easier for language learners to gradually choose to give up on their intended communicative goals. Now that they explicitly express their wish to remain in the conversation or their desire to have more thinking time by explicitly using the Time-Gaining strategy, they could feel committed to and so keep on trying their best to reach their intended communicative goals.

As for the Self-Repairing strategy, its positive effects were clearly found not only in the realm of language use but also in the realm of language learning, which provides language learners an efficient means of vocabulary acquisition as addressed by the students participating in the present study.

Finally, the Comprehension Checks strategy has a potential to make language learners become more active. Learners can assess whether the intended meaning of the message is understood accurately. In addition to the aforementioned benefit, it may raise language learners' awareness that they can take an active role in checking whether they have effectively communicated or not, hence no need to worry whether they will be understood.

5.4.2 Implications on Enhancing English Speaking Confidence

As described in related literature, communication strategies can enhance speaking ability. Precisely, they can enhance strategic competence which has a significant role in building L2 self-confidence (MacIntyre et al., 1998). However, English speaking confidence is also influenced by many other variables besides strategic competence. Therefore, in addition to teaching communication strategies to enhance language learners' strategic competence, further attempts should also be made in facilitating other factors influencing English speaking confidence. For example, learning activities should be designed as pair or small group activities rather than whole class activities. This is because language learners tend to feel more secure when doing pair or small group activities, and because their sense of responsibility to communicate or contribute something will also be promoted (Kang, 2005). Similarly, as stated by Richards (2005), in pair or small group activities, the amount of language produced will be greater than that of whole class or teacher-fronted activities. Other benefits of providing pair or group activities can be the potential to increase language learners' motivation as well as the opportunity to develop fluency (Richards, 2005).

In addition to utilizing pairs or small groups, learning activities should provide language learners opportunities to get to know each other, as level of intimacy or familiarity is one factor influencing English speaking confidence. Cao and Philp (2006) have suggested that good relationships among peers should be fostered. This can easily be arranged by having language learners mingle around the class and converse with a person whom they have not known before or simply who sits far from them. However, regulations of some sort should be made to ensure that the students maintain using the target language.

5.4.3 Implications on Teaching Communication Strategies

Although strategies can be taught through several means, the fully-fledged cycle of Pre-Reflection, Presentation, Practice, and Post-Reflection should be adopted pertaining that the time allows. This is because each instructional stage has its own expected outcome which also links to the other stages that follow. That is, without the chance to reflect upon their actual strategy use behavior given in the Pre-Reflection stage, language learners may overestimate their actual strategy use behavior, wrongly believing that they already use target strategies in their real life. Therefore, they may not see the significance in learning about and practicing using the target strategies.

As for the Presentation stage, it does not present only what can be used, but it also describes why they should be used. This instructional stage can be very important especially when teaching the Time-Gaining strategy and the Comprehension Checks strategy. This is because despite the sound benefit of the strategies perceived by educators and scholars in related fields, the aforementioned benefit or necessity may not already be clearly known to language learners. To illustrate, some language learners may not see the necessity to use the Time-Gaining strategy because they are not used to the idea. As for another example, the Comprehension Checks strategy may not be perceived as important as language learners tend to place the clarification or confirmation request on listeners' responsibility rather than their own when they feel the need to check comprehension. Considering that some language learners may not already have been equipped with the Answering and Asking strategy, not applying the Comprehension Checks strategy can potentially contribute to ineffective communication. As a result, it is recommended that language teachers take an active

role to explicitly make learners understand that the target strategies are indeed beneficial for the effectiveness of communication.

Further implication in the instructional stage of Presentation is related to the design of the instructional materials. Rather than simply presenting fixed phases corresponding to the target strategies, audiovisual materials such as videos could enhance the effectiveness of the materials used to learn the target strategies. Furthermore, rather than simply presenting the strategies independently without context, the instructional materials should be designed with creativities. That is, strategies should be put together into a story which has more potential to retain students' active attention.

Thirdly, the Practice stage could be the most crucial instructional stage giving language learners a hands-on experience. The benefit derived is incomparable to teaching strategies by simply presenting strategies in the coursebook. However, without proper instruction including the Pre-Reflection stage and the Presentation stage, language learners may lose the focus of what to practice and why to practice using such strategies.

Finally, the Post-Reflection stage seems to provide language learners with a concrete positive self-feedback, resulting in enhanced English speaking confidence. This is possibly because by reflecting upon their language use, language learners would realize how much and how easy they could speak and how enjoyable speaking the target language could be (Mir, 2006). However, the frequency of reflecting upon learners' language use should be considered to better match with the time and learner preference. Moreover, to further enhance the effectiveness of the reflection process, providing a proper training on how to reflect might be considered.

5.5 Limitations

Due to the issue of practicality and uncontrollable variables, some limitations of the study can be acknowledged as follows:

1.   The sample of the study was an intact group of Thai EFL undergraduates with one major, differing in gender, level of proficiency, or other individual factors such as learning styles, personality, etc. Therefore, a careful consideration should be made when generalizing the study findings to other groups of students in the populations.

2.   As the one-group pretest-posttest design was adopted with the feasible duration of ten weeks of implementation, the interval between the pre-assessments and post-assessments was considered rather short. Therefore, the effect size might have been due to the fact that practice opportunities could not be amply provided.

5.6 Recommendations

1.   Further research should be conducted with EFL learners from various fields of study, with equal numbers of males and females, and with different levels of language proficiency so that the effects of Communication Strategy Instruction on English speaking ability and confidence of EFL learners can be more clearly determined.

2.   Future research should be carried out with a true experimental design involving both control and experimental groups to shed more light on effects of the Communication Strategy Instruction on English speaking ability and confidence of EFL learners.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Reflection Sheet

Date: _____ REFLECTION Sheet Name: _____

คำแนะนำ

❑ REFLECTION Sheet เป็นส่วนหนึ่งของการเรียน**กลวิธีการสื่อสาร** (Communication Strategies) ในขั้นตอนการนึกถึงการใช้กลวิธีการสื่อสารที่ได้ฝึกใช้ไปในแต่ละวัน (Post-Reflection)

❑ REFLECTION Sheet มีทั้งหมด 2 **หน้า** และแบ่งออกเป็น 2 **ส่วน**

❑ โปรดกรอกข้อมูลให้ครบถ้วนและตรงกับความเป็นจริงให้มากที่สุด ตอบของนิสิตจะ<u>ไม่มีผลกระทบใดๆต่อผลการเรียนในรายวิชานี้</u>

❑ หากนิสิตมีข้อสงสัยประการใด โปรดถามอาจารย์ทันที

ส่วนที่ 1

จุดประสงค์: เพื่อให้นิสิตได้นึกถึงการใช้กลวิธีการสื่อสารที่ได้ฝึกใช้ไปในแต่ละวัน (Post-REFLECTION)

วิธีทำ: นึกถึงพฤติกรรมการพูดภาษาอังกฤษของนิสิตในขั้นตอนการฝึกใช้กลวิธีการสื่อสาร (PRACTICE) วันนี้ตามความเป็นจริง แล้วทำเครื่องหมาย ✓ ลงในช่อง ❑ ทางซ้ายมือเพียงช่องเดียว ("ใช่" หรือ "ไม่ใช่") ที่ตรงกับพฤติกรรมต่างๆ ในการพูดภาษาอังกฤษของนิสิตและเขียนอธิบายเพิ่มเติมเกี่ยวกับพฤติกรรมต่างๆทางขวามือตามความเป็นจริง

ในการพูดภาษาอังกฤษวันนี้ ฉัน…
0) ตอบคำถามของอาจารย์ ☑ ใช่ ด้วยประโยคดังนี้ "My name is สมหญิง." _____ ❑ ไม่ใช่ เพราะ _____
1) พูดตอบกลับเพื่อให้คู่สนทนารู้ว่าฉันเข้าใจในสิ่งที่เขาพูด ❑ ใช่ ด้วยประโยคดังนี้ _____ ❑ ไม่ใช่ เพราะ _____
2) ถามคำถามเมื่อไม่ได้ยิน / ไม่เข้าใจในสิ่งที่ได้ยิน ❑ ใช่ ด้วยประโยคดังนี้ _____ ❑ ไม่ใช่ เพราะ _____
3) ถามคำถามเมื่อไม่แน่ใจในความถูกต้องของสิ่งที่ได้ยิน ❑ ใช่ ด้วยประโยคดังนี้ _____ ❑ ไม่ใช่ เพราะ _____
4) **นิ่งเงียบ**เมื่อกำลัง**คิด**คำพูด/คำตอบ ❑ ใช่ เพราะ _____ ❑ ไม่ใช่ เพราะในขณะที่คิดฉันพูดไปด้วยว่า _____
5) ถามคู่สนทนาเมื่อฉันไม่สามารถพูดในสิ่งที่คิด ❑ ใช่ ด้วยประโยคดังนี้ _____ ❑ ไม่ใช่ เพราะ _____

6) พยายามสื่อความหมายด้วยตัวเองเมื่อไม่สามารถพูดในสิ่งที่คิด
☐ ใช่ ด้วยวิธีดังนี้ _____
☐ ไม่ใช่ เพราะ _____
7) ถามคำถามเพื่อตรวจสอบความเข้าใจว่าคู่สนทนาเข้าใจในสิ่งที่ฉันพูดได้อย่างถูกต้องหรือไม่
☐ ใช่ ด้วยประโยคดังนี้ _____
☐ ไม่ใช่ เพราะ _____

ส่วนที่ 2

จุดประสงค์: เพื่อให้นิสิตได้ทราบถึงพัฒนาการในการพูดภาษาอังกฤษในชั้นเรียน

วิธีทำ: ทำเครื่องหมาย ✓ ลงในช่อง ☐ ทางขวามือให้ตรงกับ**ความรู้สึกที่แท้จริง**ที่มีต่อ**ความสามารถ**และ**ความกังวล**ในการพูดภาษาอังกฤษในชั้นเรียน**วันนี้**เปรียบเทียบกับการพูดภาษาอังกฤษที่ผ่านๆ มา

ในการพูดภาษาอังกฤษวันนี้	☹	😐	☺
ฉันรู้สึกว่า**ความสามารถ**ในการพูดภาษาอังกฤษของฉัน	☐ แย่ลง	☐ เท่าเดิม	☐ ดีขึ้น
ฉันรู้สึกว่า**ความกังวล**ในการพูดภาษาอังกฤษของฉัน	☐ มากขึ้น	☐ เท่าเดิม	☐ น้อยลง

ขอบคุณที่ให้ความร่วมมือค่ะ

Appendix B: Directions and Sample (Mock Exam) of English Speaking Test

Speaking Assignment

กติกา:

◈ ช่วยกันรวบรวมข้อมูลโดยสลับกันสอบถามและให้ข้อมูล 3 เรื่อง ได้แก่ เรื่องห้อง เรื่องงาน และเรื่องสถานที่

◈ ทำเครื่องหมาย ✓ ลงในช่อง ☐ เพื่อเลือกตัวเลือกที่ต้องการ

◈ **กรอกข้อมูล**ลงในช่องว่าง ____ **ให้ถูกต้องและครบถ้วน** (โดยไม่ต้องกังวลเรื่องความถูกต้องด้านตัวสะกดหรือโครงสร้างประโยค) และหากจำเป็น สามารถกรอกข้อมูลเป็นภาษา**ไทย**แทนก็ได้

◈ ในการให้ข้อมูล <u>ห้ามอ่าน</u>"<u>คำที่ขีดเส้นใต้</u>" ให้สื่อสารด้วยคำพูดของตัวเองโดยหาวิธีต่างๆเพื่อสื่อสารความหมายของคำคำนั้นแทน

◈ ควรใช้เวลาไม่เกิน 5 นาที ต่อ 1 เรื่อง และหากเสร็จก่อน 5 นาที **สามารถคุยเรื่องต่อไปได้ทันที** แต่จะหมดสิทธิ์คุยทันทีเมื่อครบ 15 **นาที**

◈ มีเวลา 1 นาทีเพื่อเตรียมคำถามก่อนจะเริ่มคุย

วิธีทำ:

① **ถามรายละเอียดเกี่ยวกับห้องของเพื่อน**โดยดูรูป**ภาพขาวดำ**ทั้ง 6 ภาพ (1 ในนั้นจะเป็นภาพ**ห้องของเพื่อน** ซึ่งจะเป็นภาพเดียวกับ**ภาพสี** 1 **ภาพ**ที่เพื่อนถืออยู่) เพื่อ**เลือก** ☑ ว่ารูปไหนคือ**ห้องของเพื่อน** โดยให้ A เริ่มถามก่อน แต่ละคนมีเวลา 2 **นาที** 30 **วินาที** (หรือจะเร็วกว่าก็ได้ แต่ถ้าช้ากว่า B สามารถเริ่มถาม A ได้เลยแม้ A ยังเลือกภาพไม่ได้)

ทดลอง:

② **ถามรายละเอียดเกี่ยวกับงาน**อีก 2 **งาน** (งานทางด้านขวา) เพื่อ**กรอกข้อมูลให้ถูกต้องและครบถ้วน** และ**ตอบคำถามเพื่อน**เพื่อให้รายละเอียดเกี่ยวกับงานอีก 2 **งาน** (งานทางด้านซ้าย) เมื่อกรอกข้อมูลได้ถูกต้องและครบถ้วนแล้ว ให้**แต่ละคน** ☑ **เลือก**ว่าอยากจะสมัครงานไหน พร้อม**กล่าวถึงเหตุผล**ที่เลือกสมัครงานนั้นโดย<u>**ห้าม**เลือกงานเดียวกัน</u>

ทดลอง:

③ **ถามรายละเอียดเกี่ยวกับสถานที่**อีก 1 **สถานที่** (สถานที่ทางด้านขวา) เพื่อ**กรอกข้อมูลให้ถูกต้องและครบถ้วน** และ**ตอบคำถามเพื่อน**เพื่อให้รายละเอียดเกี่ยวกับสถานที่อีก 1 **สถานที่** (สถานที่ทางด้านซ้าย) เมื่อกรอกข้อมูลได้ถูกต้องและครบถ้วนแล้ว ให้ ☑ **เลือก**สถานที่**ร่วมกัน** พร้อม**กล่าวถึงเหตุผล**ว่าเพราะเหตุใดสถานที่นั้นจึงเหมาะสมที่สุดสำหรับการไปสังสรรค์กับเพื่อนใหม่

Any question?
ARE YOU READY?

Date _____   Speaking Assignment   Name {A} _____

0:00-1:00	**เตรียมตัว**: ดูภาพขาวดำทั้ง 6 ภาพเพื่อเตรียมคำถามก่อนจะเริ่มสอบถามข้อมูล
เริ่ม	A: What is your name? B: My name is _____ and what is your name? A: My name is _____ and I will ask you about your room. (ดูภาพประกอบ)

0:00-2:30 2:30-5:00	A: (ถามและตัดสินใจเลือกภาพห้องของ B) ⇨⇨ Now, you can ask about my room.* B: I will ask about your room now.* (ถามและตัดสินใจเลือกภาพห้องของ A) ⇨⇨⇨	☑	คำตอบ: ☐ Room 1 ☐ Room 2 ☐ Room 3 ☐ Room 4 ☐ Room 5 ☐ Room 6

5:00-10:00	B: Now, please tell me about Job ①/② and the skill needed. A: Now, please tell me about Job ③/④ and the skill needed.	
	☐ Job ①: ผู้สื่อข่าว Skill: หน้าตาดี	☐ Job ③: _____ Skill: _____
	☐ Job ②: บุรุษไปรษณีย์ Skill: วิ่งเร็ว	☐ Job ④: _____ Skill: _____
	A/B: I think I will choose Job (หมายเลขงาน) because (เหตุผลที่เลือกงานนั้น). A/B: (☑ เลือกงานที่ไม่ซ้ำกัน) ⇗ Now, you can ask me about my place. ⇲	

10:00-15:00	☐ Goody Buffet 🍴 What: ต้มยำกุ้ง และ ก๋วยเตี๋ยวผัด Cost: 49 บาท Special Offer: 1 ซองเปล่าแมวม่ารสต้ม ยำกุ้ง ลด 10 บาท	☐ River View Restaurant 🍴 What: _____ Cost: _____ Special Offer: _____
จบ	A/B: I think (ชื่อสถานที่ที่เลือก) is better because (เหตุผลที่เลือกสถานที่นั้น). A/B: (☑ เลือกสถานที่ร่วมกัน) ⇗ Yes! We've finished!	

Appendix C: Sample of Picture Prompt of English Speaking Test

(Student A)

ห้องของฉัน
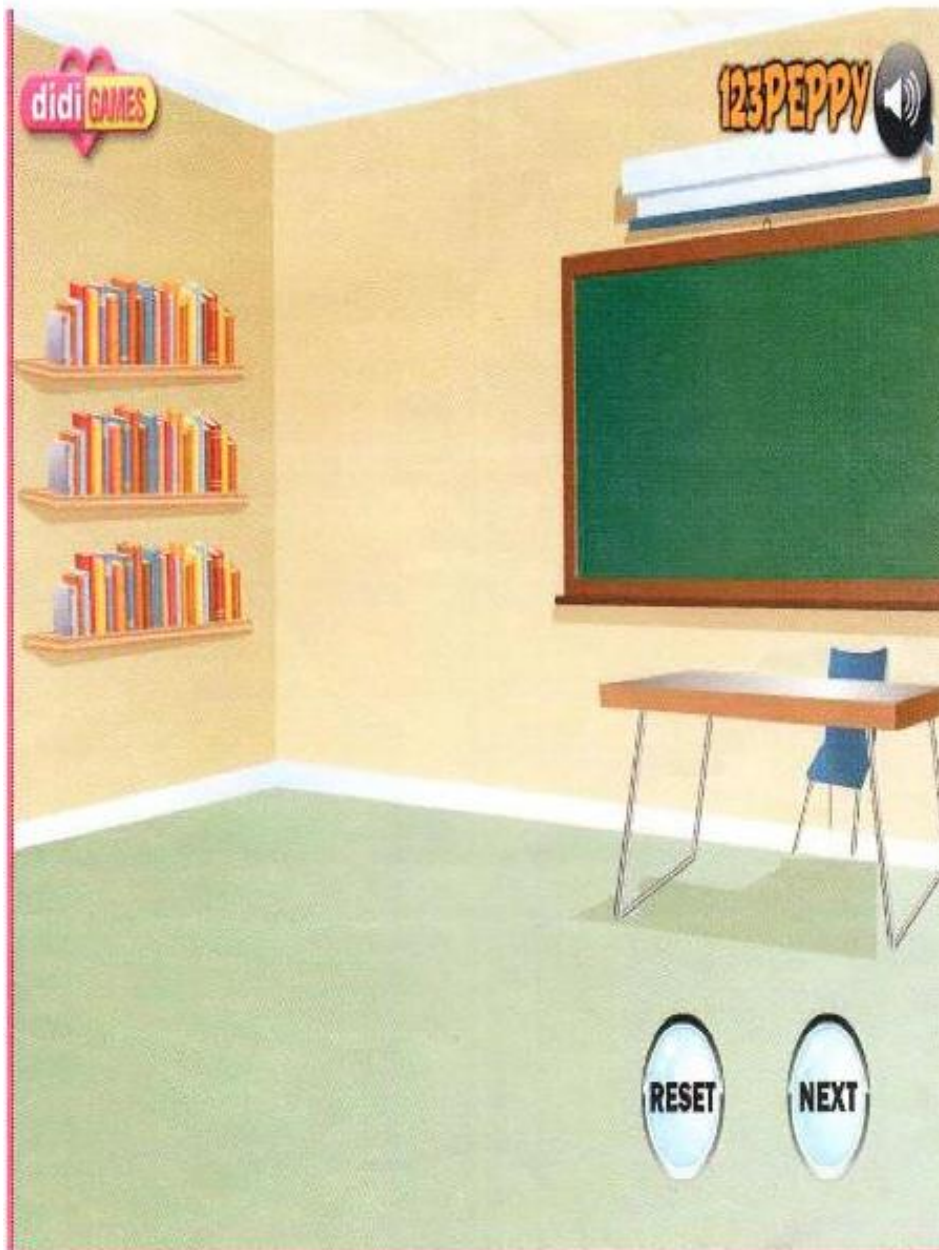
เมื่อเพื่อนเลือก ☑ ห้องได้แล้ว
เตรียมตอบคำถามเกี่ยวกับงาน

Appendix C: Sample of Picture Prompt of English Speaking Test
(Student B)
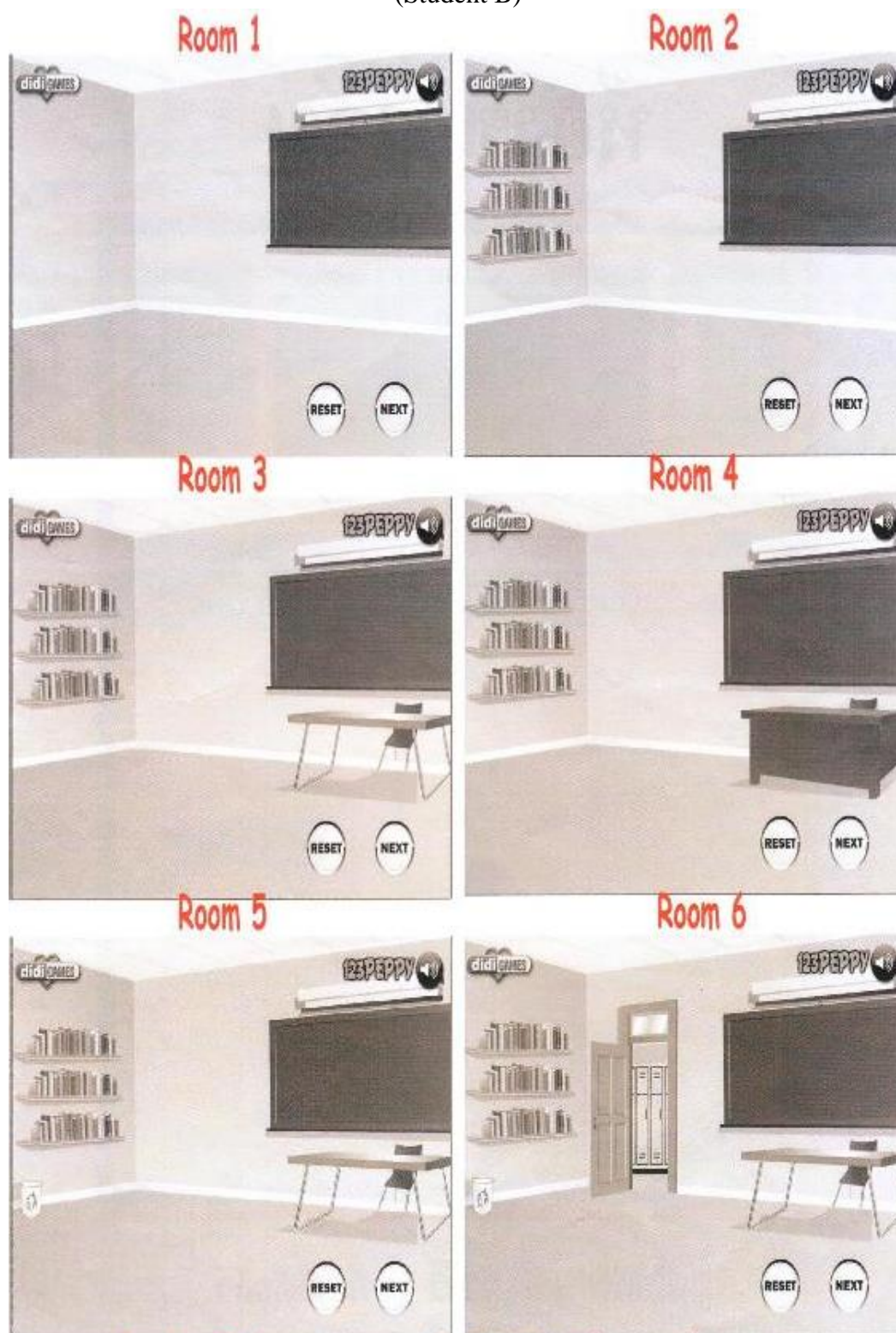
เมื่อเลือก ☑ ห้องของเพื่อนได้แล้ว เริ่มถามเกี่ยวกับงาน

Appendix D: Pretest

0:00-1:00	**เตรียมตัว**: ดูภาพขาวดำทั้ง 6 ภาพเพื่อเตรียมคำถามก่อนจะเริ่มสอบถามข้อมูล		
เริ่ม	A: What is your name? B: My name is _____ and what is your name? A: My name is _____ and I will ask you about your room. (ดูภาพประกอบ)		
0:00-2:30 2:30-5:00	A: (ถามและตัดสินใจเลือกภาพห้องของ B) ⇨⇨ Now, you can ask about my room.* B: I will ask about your room now.* (ถามและตัดสินใจเลือกภาพห้องของ A) ⇨⇨⇨	☑	คำตอบ: ☐ Room 1 ☐ Room 2 ☐ Room 3 ☐ Room 4 ☐ Room 5 ☐ Room 6

5:00-10:00	B: Now, please tell me about Job ①/② and the skill needed. A: Now, please tell me about Job ③/④ and the skill needed.	
	☐ Job ①: Waiter/Waitress Skill: Be good with <u>numbers</u>	☐ Job ③: _____ Skill: _____
	☐ Job ②: <u>Policeman</u> Skill: Be <u>strong</u>	☐ Job ④: _____ Skill: _____
	A/B: I think I will choose Job (หมายเลขงาน) because (เหตุผลที่เลือกงานนั้น). A/B: (☑ เลือกงานที่ไม่ซ้ำกัน) ↝ Now, you can ask me about my place. ↝	

10:00-15:00	☐ Aishi 🍽 What: <u>Sea</u> Food & <u>Salad</u> Bar Cost: 479 Baht for 1:15 hour Special Offer: <u>Break</u> Special - 259 Baht on <u>Wednesday</u>	☐ Sizzley 🍽 What: _____ Cost: _____ Special Offer: _____
จบ	A/B: I think (ชื่อสถานที่ที่เลือก) is better because (เหตุผลที่เลือกสถานที่นั้น). A/B: (☑ เลือกสถานที่ร่วมกัน) ↝ Yes! We've finished!	

Appendix D: Pretest

(Student B)

Date _____   Speaking Assignment   Name (B) _____

0:00-1:00	**เตรียมตัว**: ดูภาพขาวดำทั้ง 6 ภาพเพื่อเตรียมคำถามก่อนจะเริ่มสอบถามข้อมูล		
เริ่ม	A: What is your name? B: My name is _____ and what is your name? A: My name is _____ and I will ask you about your room. (ดูภาพประกอบ)		
0:00-2:30 2:30-5:00	A: (ถามและตัดสินใจเลือกภาพห้องของ B) ⇨⇨ Now, you can ask about my room.* B: I will ask about your room now.* (ถามและตัดสินใจเลือกภาพห้องของ A) ⇨⇨⇨	☑	คำตอบ: ☐ Room 1 ☐ Room 2 ☐ Room 3 ☐ Room 4 ☐ Room 5 ☐ Room 6

5:00-10:00	B: Now, please tell me about Job ①/② and the skill needed. A: Now, please tell me about Job ③/④ and the skill needed.	
	☐ Job ③: <u>Nurse</u> Skill: Be a <u>good</u> listener	☐ Job ③: _____ Skill: _____
	☐ Job ④: Photographer Skill: Have good <u>eyesight</u>	☐ Job ④: _____ Skill: _____
	A/B: I think I will choose Job (หมายเลขงาน) because (เหตุผลที่เลือกงานนั้น). A/B: (☑ เลือกงานที่ไม่ซ้ำกัน) ⇗ Now, you can ask me about my place. ⇘	

10:00-15:00	☐ Sizzley What: Japanese Food & Ice-Cream Cost: 479 Baht for 1:50 hour Special Offer: <u>Party</u> Special - 5 people <u>for the price of</u> 4	☐ Aishi What: _____ Cost: _____ Special Offer: _____
จบ	A/B: I think (ชื่อสถานที่ที่เลือก) is better because (เหตุผลที่เลือกสถานที่นั้น). A/B: (☑ เลือกสถานที่ร่วมกัน) ⇗ Yes! We've finished!	

Appendix E: Posttest

Date _____   Speaking Assignment   Name [A] _____

0:00-1:00	**เตรียมตัว**: ดูภาพขาวดำทั้ง 6 ภาพเพื่อเตรียมคำถามก่อนจะเริ่มสอบถามข้อมูล	
เริ่ม	A: What is your name? B: My name is _____ and what is your name? A: My name is _____ and I will ask you about your room. (ดูภาพประกอบ)	

0:00-2:30 2:30-5:00	A: (ถามและตัดสินใจเลือกภาพห้องของ B) ⇨⇨ Now, you can ask about my room.* B: I will ask about your room now.* (ถามและตัดสินใจเลือกภาพห้องของ A) ⇨⇨⇨	☑	คำตอบ: ☐ Room 1 ☐ Room 2 ☐ Room 3 ☐ Room 4 ☐ Room 5 ☐ Room 6

5:00-10:00	B: Now, please tell me about Job ①/② and the skill needed. A: Now, please tell me about Job ③/④ and the skill needed.	
	☐ Job ①: <u>Air Hostess</u> Skill: Be well <u>organized</u>	☐ Job ③: _____ Skill: _____
	☐ Job ②: <u>Chef</u> Skill: Have plenty of <u>imagination</u>	☐ Job ④: _____ Skill: _____
	A/B: I think I will choose Job (หมายเลขงาน) because (เหตุผลที่เลือกงานนั้น). A/B: (☑ เลือกงานที่ไม่ซ้ำกัน) ⇨ Now, you can ask me about my place. ⇨	

10:00-15:00	☐ Dream Land What: <u>Tomorrow</u> World & <u>Water</u> World Cost: 899 Baht for 12 hours Special Offer: 675 Baht with student <u>card</u>	☐ Siam Paradise What: _____ Cost: _____ Special Offer: _____
จบ	A/B: I think (ชื่อสถานที่ที่เลือก) is better because (เหตุผลที่เลือกสถานที่นั้น). A/B: (☑ เลือกสถานที่ร่วมกัน) ⇨ Yes! We've finished!	

Appendix E: Posttest

(Student B)

Date _____   Speaking Assignment Name [B] _____

0:00-1:00	**เตรียมตัว**: ดูภาพขาวดำทั้ง 6 ภาพเพื่อเตรียมคำถามก่อนจะเริ่มสอบถามข้อมูล		
เริ่ม	A: What is your name? B: My name is _____ and what is your name? A: My name is _____ and I will ask you about your room. (ดูภาพประกอบ)		
0:00-2:30 2:30-5:00	A: (ถามและตัดสินใจเลือกภาพห้องของ B) ⇨⇨ Now, you can ask about my room.* B: I will ask about your room now.* (ถามและตัดสินใจเลือกภาพห้องของ A) ⇨⇨⇨	☑	คำตอบ: ☐ Room 1 ☐ Room 2 ☐ Room 3 ☐ Room 4 ☐ Room 5 ☐ Room 6
5:00-10:00	B: Now, please tell me about Job ①/② and the skill needed. A: Now, please tell me about Job ③/④ and the skill needed.		
	☐ Job ③: <u>Doctor</u> Skill: Be <u>sensitive</u> to people's feelings	☐ Job ③: _____ Skill: _____	
	☐ Job ④: <u>Firefighter</u> Skill: Be able to manage <u>groups</u>	☐ Job ④: _____ Skill: _____	
	A/B: I think I will choose Job (หมายเลขงาน) because (เหตุผลที่เลือกงานนั้น). A/B: (☑ เลือกงานที่ไม่ซ้ำกัน) ➴ Now, you can ask me about my place. ➴		
10:00-15:00	☐ Siam Paradise What: <u>Small</u> Town & <u>Snow</u> Town Cost: 445 Baht for 4 hours Special Offer: 399 Baht with student <u>uniform</u>	☐ Dream Land What: _____ Cost: _____ Special Offer: _____	
จบ	A/B: I think (ชื่อสถานที่ที่เลือก) is better because (เหตุผลที่เลือกสถานที่นั้น). A/B: (☑ เลือกสถานที่ร่วมกัน) ➴ Yes! We've finished!		

Appendix F: English Speaking Rating Scale

Frequency Observable Behaviors	Always	Often	Sometimes	Seldom	Never	N/A
Percentage	← 81	← 61	← 41	← 21	← 0	0
Assigned score	5	4	3	2	1	0
(0) fulfills the written task	❏ ← 11	❏ ← 9	❏ ← 7	❏ ← 5	❏ ← 0	-
(1) responds actively [Answering strategy]	5	4	3	2	1	-
(2) asks (clarification) questions [Asking strategy]	5	4	3	2	1	❏
(3) asks for listener's comprehension check [Comprehension Check strategy]	5	4	3	2	1	❏
(4) communicates with a natural flow/pace	5	4	3	2	1	-
(5) communicates with long pauses	1	2	3	4	5	-
(6) communicates with short pauses	1	2	3	4	5	-
(7) uses a variety of pause fillers to keep the conversation channel open while dealing with hesitation or working on cognitive process [Time-Gaining strategy]	5	4	3	2	1	❏
(8) effectively overcomes communication difficulties by using a cooperative kind of Self-Repairing strategy: appeal for assistance (e.g. 'How Do You Call It?')	5	4	3	2	1	❏
(9) effectively overcomes communication difficulties by using a non-cooperative kind of Self-Repairing strategy (e.g. generalization and paraphrase)	5	4	3	2	1	❏
(10) repeatedly communicates by the same means of communication though it doesn't work [failure in using alternative kinds of Self-Repairing when needed] *including message abandonment and language switch**	1	2	3	4	5	❏
(11) communicates with intelligible grammar	5	4	3	2	1	-
(12) communicates with intelligible vocabulary	5	4	3	2	1	-
(13) communicates with intelligible pronunciation	5	4	3	2	1	-

Appendix G: English Speaking Confidence Scale

แบบสอบถามความคิดเห็นเกี่ยวกับการพูดภาษาอังกฤษ

จุดประสงค์: แบบสอบถามชุดนี้จัดทำขึ้นเพื่อสำรวจความคิดเห็นเกี่ยวกับการพูดภาษาอังกฤษของนิสิต

คำแนะนำ

❑ แบบสอบถามนี้มีทั้งหมด **1 หน้า** มีทั้งหมด 16 **ข้อ**

❑ โปรดอ่านข้อความทางซ้ายมือแล้วแสดงความคิดเห็นว่าเห็นด้วยกับข้อความมากน้อยเพียงใด **โดยทำเครื่องหมาย ✓ ลงในช่องทางขวามือที่ตรงกับความคิดเห็นมากที่สุดเพียงช่องเดียว**

❑ โปรดตอบแบบสอบถามทุกข้อให้ตรงกับความคิดเห็นให้มากที่สุด

❑ คำตอบไม่มีข้อถูกผิด ดังนั้น คำตอบของนิสิตจะไม่มีผลกระทบใด ๆ ต่อผลการเรียนในรายวิชานี้

❑ หากนิสิตมีข้อสงสัยประการใด โปรดถามอาจารย์ทันที

	ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง	ไม่เห็นด้วย	ไม่แน่ใจ	เห็นด้วย	เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง
ในการสนทนาที่มีผู้ร่วมสนทนาเพียง 2 คน ฉันมั่นใจที่จะ...					
1. **เริ่ม**พูดกับ**อาจารย์**เป็นภาษาอังกฤษ....................					
2. **ตอบอาจารย์**เป็นภาษาอังกฤษ............................					
3. **เริ่ม**พูดกับ**เพื่อน**เป็นภาษาอังกฤษ......................					
4. **ตอบเพื่อน**เป็นภาษาอังกฤษ................................					
ในการสนทนากลุ่มย่อยที่มีผู้ร่วมสนทนา 3-6 คน ฉันมั่นใจที่จะ					
5. **เริ่ม**พูดกับ**อาจารย์**เป็นภาษาอังกฤษ......................					
6. **อาสา**ตอบคำถาม**อาจารย์**เป็นภาษาอังกฤษ............					
7. **ตอบ**คำถามเป็นภาษาอังกฤษเมื่อ**อาจารย์ถามฉัน**..					
8. **เริ่ม**พูดกับ**เพื่อน**เป็นภาษาอังกฤษ......................					
9. **อาสา**ตอบคำถาม**เพื่อน**เป็นภาษาอังกฤษ...............					
10. **ตอบ**คำถามเป็นภาษาอังกฤษเมื่อ**เพื่อนถามฉัน**......					
ในการสนทนากลุ่มใหญ่ที่มีผู้ร่วมสนทนามากกว่า 6 คน ฉันมั่นใจที่จะ...					
11. **เริ่ม**พูดกับ**อาจารย์**เป็นภาษาอังกฤษ.....................					
12. **อาสา**ตอบคำถาม**อาจารย์**เป็นภาษาอังกฤษ...........					
13. **ตอบ**คำถามเป็นภาษาอังกฤษเมื่อ**อาจารย์ถามฉัน**..					
14. **เริ่ม**พูดกับ**เพื่อน**เป็นภาษาอังกฤษ......................					
15. **อาสา**ตอบคำถาม**เพื่อน**เป็นภาษาอังกฤษ...............					
16. **ตอบ**คำถามเป็นภาษาอังกฤษเมื่อ**เพื่อนถามฉัน**......					

ขอบคุณที่ให้ความร่วมมือค่ะ

Appendix H: Attitude Questionnaire

แบบสอบถามเจตคติเกี่ยวกับการสอนกลวิธีการสื่อสาร

จุดประสงค์: แบบสอบถามชุดนี้จัดทำขึ้นเพื่อสำรวจความคิดเห็นเกี่ยวกับการสอนกลวิธีการสื่อสาร (Communication Strategies) เพื่อนำไปใช้ในการประเมินและพัฒนารูปแบบการสอนกลวิธีการสื่อสารให้มีประสิทธิภาพมากยิ่งขึ้น

คำแนะนำ

❑ แบบสอบถามนี้มีทั้งหมด 4 **หน้า** และแบ่งออกเป็น 2 **ส่วน**

❑ โปรดตอบแบบสอบถามทุกข้อให้ตรงกับความคิดเห็นให้มากที่สุด คำตอบไม่มีข้อถูกผิด ดังนั้น คำตอบของนิสิตจะ<u>ไม่มีผลกระทบใด ๆต่อผลการเรียนในรายวิชานี้</u>

❑ หากนิสิตมีข้อสงสัยประการใด โปรดถามอาจารย์ทันที

ส่วนที่ 1

❑ โปรดอ่านข้อความทางซ้ายมือแล้วแสดงความคิดเห็นว่าเห็นด้วยกับข้อความมากน้อยเพียงใด โดยทำเครื่องหมาย ✓ ลงในช่องทางขวามือที่ตรงกับความคิดเห็นมากที่สุดเพียงช่องเดียว

	ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง	ไม่เห็นด้วย	ไม่แน่ใจ	เห็นด้วย	เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง
ในชั้นเรียนภาษาอังกฤษ…					
1. ฉันอยากจะพูดตอบกลับเพื่อให้คู่สนทนารู้ว่าฉันเข้าใจในสิ่งที่เขาพูด…..					
2. ฉัน**อยาก**จะ**ถาม**คำถามเมื่อไม่ได้ยิน / ไม่เข้าใจ / ไม่แน่ใจใน**ความถูกต้องของสิ่งที่ได้ยิน**……………					
3. ฉัน**อยาก**จะ**ถาม**คำถามเพื่อ**ตรวจสอบความเข้าใจ**ว่าคู่สนทนาเข้าใจใน**สิ่งที่ฉันพูด**ได้อย่างถูกต้องหรือไม่…………………					
4. ฉันอยากจะหยุดการสนทนาเพื่อคิดหาคำพูด/คำตอบอย่างเงียบๆ					
5. เมื่อไม่สามารถพูดในสิ่งที่คิด ฉัน**อยาก**จะ**ถามเพื่อน**					
6. เมื่อไม่สามารถพูดในสิ่งที่คิด ฉัน**อยาก**จะ**ถามอาจารย์**					
7. เมื่อไม่สามารถพูดในสิ่งที่คิด ฉัน**อยาก**จะ**พยายาม**สื่อสารความหมาย**ด้วยตัวเอง**…………………					
8. กลวิธีการสื่อสาร**สามารถนำไปใช้ได้จริง**					
9. ขั้นตอนการสอนกลวิธีการสื่อสาร 4Ps ช่วยให้ฉันสามารถเข้าใจการใช้กลวิธีการสื่อสารได้อย่างมีประสิทธิภาพ					
10. การสอนกลวิธีการสื่อสาร (10 ครั้ง) เป็นระยะเวลาที่เหมาะสม					
เนื้อหาการสอนกลวิธีการสื่อสาร (Communication Strategies)…					
11. มีระดับความยากง่ายเหมาะสมกับระดับความสามารถทางภาษาของฉัน…					
12. มีปริมาณเหมาะสมกับความต้องการของฉัน…………………					
13. สื่อที่ใช้ในการสอนกลวิธีการสื่อสาร ช่วยให้ฉันเข้าใจการใช้กลวิธีการสื่อสารได้อย่างมีประสิทธิภาพ……………					

	ไม่เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง	ไม่เห็นด้วย	ไม่แน่ใจ	เห็นด้วย	เห็นด้วยอย่างยิ่ง
14.**กิจกรรม**ที่ใช้ในการสอนกลวิธีการสื่อสาร (เช่น การสนทนาคู่ การคิดศัพท์ การสนทนาเป็นกลุ่ม) ช่วยให้ฉันเข้าใจการใช้กลวิธีการสื่อสารได้อย่าง**มีประสิทธิภาพ......................**					
15.ระหว่างการสอนกลวิธีการสื่อสารฉันได้รับความช่วยเหลือ/ คำแนะนำจากอาจารย์อย่างเพียงพอ...............................					
การสอนกลวิธีการสื่อสาร... 16. ทำให้ฉัน**ชอบเรียนภาษาอังกฤษ**มากขึ้น...........................					
17.ทำให้ฉัน**ชอบฝึกทักษะการพูดภาษาอังกฤษ**มากขึ้น...............					
18.ทำให้ฉัน**มั่นใจที่จะพูดภาษาอังกฤษ**มากขึ้น.........................					
19.มีผลดีต่อทักษะการพูดภาษาอังกฤษของ**ผู้เรียนทุกคน**...........					
20.มีผลดีต่อทักษะการพูดภาษาอังกฤษของ**ตัวฉันเอง**...................					
21.มีผลดีต่อการพัฒนาทักษะ**การตอบกลับ**ขณะฟัง......................					
22.มีผลดีต่อการพัฒนาทักษะ**การถามเมื่อไม่ได้ยิน / ไม่เข้าใจ / ไม่แน่ใจในความถูกต้องของสิ่งที่ได้ยิน**...........................					
23.มีผลดีต่อการพัฒนาทักษะ**การตรวจสอบความเข้าใจของคู่ สนทนา**ว่าเข้าใจในสิ่งที่ฉันพูดได้อย่างถูกต้องหรือไม่.................					
24.มีผลดีต่อการพัฒนาทักษะ**การเพิ่มเวลาในการคิด**จึงไม่ต้อง ปล่อยเงียบ ในขณะที่กำลังคิดคำพูด/คำตอบ...............					
25.มีผลดีต่อการพัฒนาทักษะ**การพยายามสื่อสาร**ความหมาย **ด้วยตัวเอง**เมื่อไม่สามารถพูดในสิ่งที่คิดได้...........................					
26.มีผลดีต่อการพัฒนาทักษะ**การฟัง**ภาษาอังกฤษ.......................					
27.ฉันจะใช้กลวิธีการสื่อสาร**ต่อไป**ในการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษวิชา **อื่นๆ**.........					
28.ฉันจะใช้กลวิธีการสื่อสาร**ต่อไป**ในการสื่อสารเป็นภาษาอังกฤษ **นอกชั้นเรียน**..					

ส่วนที่ 2

❑ โปรดอ่านข้อความในแต่ละข้อและทำเครื่องหมาย ✔ ลงในช่อง ❑ ที่ตรงกับความคิดเห็นมากที่สุดเพียงช่อง เดียว พร้อมเขียนอธิบายเพิ่มเติมโดยให้เหตุผลและ/หรือยกตัวอย่างทางขวามือตามความเป็นจริง

1) นิสิต**ชอบขั้นตอน**ใดของการสอนกลวิธีการสื่อสารมากที่สุด **เพราะอะไร**	
❑ ขั้นตอนการ**นึกถึง**การใช้กลวิธีการสื่อสาร**ก่อน เรียน** (Pre-Reflection) ❑ ขั้นตอนการ**นำเสนอ**กลวิธีการสื่อสาร (Presentation) ❑ ขั้นตอนการ**ฝึกใช้**กลวิธีการสื่อสาร (Practice) ❑ ขั้นตอนการ**นึกถึง**การใช้กลวิธีการสื่อสาร**ที่ได้ ฝึกใช้**ไปในแต่ละวัน (Post-Reflection)	เพราะ _____ _____ _____ _____ _____ _____ _____

2) นิสิต<u>**ไม่ชอบ**</u>**ขั้นตอน**ใดของการสอนกลวิธีการสื่อสารมากที่สุด **เพราะอะไร**	
❑ ขั้นตอนการ**นึกถึง**การใช้กลวิธีการสื่อสาร**ก่อนเรียน** (Pre-Reflection) ❑ ขั้นตอนการ**นำเสนอ**กลวิธีการสื่อสาร (Presentation) ❑ ขั้นตอนการ**ฝึกใช้**กลวิธีการสื่อสาร (Practice) ❑ ขั้นตอนการ**นึกถึง**การใช้กลวิธีการสื่อสาร**ที่ได้ฝึกใช้**ไปในแต่ละวัน (Post-Reflection)	เพราะ _____ _____ _____ _____ _____ _____ _____

3) กลวิธีการสื่อสารที่ได้เรียนไปกลวิธีใดมีประโยชน์กับนิสิตมากที่สุด เพราะอะไร	
❑ การตอบและการถาม (Answering & Asking) ❑ การเพิ่มเวลาในการคิด (Time-Gaining) ❑ การพยายามสื่อสารความหมายด้วยตัวเอง (Trying) ❑ การตรวจสอบความเข้าใจของคู่สนทนา (Checking)	เพราะ _____ _____ _____ _____ _____ _____ _____ _____

4) กลวิธีการสื่อสารที่ได้เรียนไปกลวิธีใดมีประโยชน์กับนิสิต<u>น้อย</u>ที่สุด เพราะอะไร	
❑ การตอบและการถาม (Answering & Asking) ❑ การเพิ่มเวลาในการคิด (Time-Gaining) ❑ การพยายามสื่อสารความหมายด้วยตัวเอง (Trying) ❑ การตรวจสอบความเข้าใจของคู่สนทนา (Checking)	เพราะ _____ _____ _____ _____ _____ _____

ขอบคุณที่ให้ความร่วมมือค่ะ

Appendix I: Detailed Description of the Manipulation of the Communication Strategy Instruction

Lesson 1: June 25, 2013
Goal: To enable students to appropriately respond and naturally ask questions to flexibly negotiate meaning so as to develop students' interactional ability enhancing intelligibility of oral communication
Objectives:
❑ Students will be able to show a conversation partner that s/he is being understood and followed by appropriately responding to the conversation partner.
❑ Students will be able to signal for help from a conversation partner when facing with understanding problems by naturally asking questions for the conversation partner to repeat, clarify, give examples, or confirm accurate understandings.
Course Content:
❑ Strategy
o Answering: understood e.g. OK!; Alright!; Now, I understand!; I got it!, probably true (probably believed) e.g. Yes!, not interesting or original (already knew) e.g. Of course!, too simple (partially believed) e.g. Really?, probably not true (probably didn't believe) e.g. No!
o Asking: asking for repetition e.g. Can you go over that again?; Can you run that past me again?; Would you mind repeating that?, asking for clarification (Not sure/clear) e.g. What do you mean by …?, asking for examples e.g. Can you give me an example?; For example?; For instance?; Like what?, confirmation checks e.g. Do you mean …?; Are you saying that …?; For me, this means that ….
❑ Topics:
o Routes to success (P. 6) e.g. get feedback, set specific goals, put in a lot of practice, etc.
o Reacting to ideas (P. 7): probably true (probably believed) e.g. It makes a lot of sense.; It sounds logical., not interesting or original (already knew) e.g. That's not saying anything new.; It's a bit obvious., too simple (partially believed) e.g. That's not the whole picture.; It seems quite simplistic., probably not true (probably didn't believe) e.g. I'm not really convinced.; I don't find it very persuasive., asking for clarification (Not sure/clear) e.g. I don't get a bit about …; The part about …; is hard to follow.
o Skills (P. 9) e.g. be a good listener, be an effective communicator, have a lot of self discipline, etc.
o Giving advice (P. 10) e.g. There are a number of ways you can …, It helps to …, A good way of …, etc.
o Common expressions with 'think' (P. 11) e.g. don't think much of, think straight, think aloud, etc.
Number of Students: 34

Stages and Procedures	Remarks
Pre-reflection (11 minutes)	❑ Lots of time was spent in pairing management and directions giving.
❑ Students were given directions to individually choose one topic of interest to talk in pair.	
❑ Students carried on pair conversation switching the speaking turn when the teacher called for.	
In each speaking turn, the speakers were instructed to keep their eyes close. (2:30 minutes)	

❏ Students were asked guided questions to reflect on whether they used the target strategy and whether they had problems because of that. ❏ The teacher concluded with a final picture prompt displaying communication in a classroom context.	❏ As students tended not to keep their eyes close while speaking, the teacher had to repeatedly remind them so.
Presentation (17 minutes) ❏ The teacher emphasized the nature of this stage: the teacher's presenting the target strategy, not students' giving a presentation in front of the class. ❏ Students were given directions before watching an audio/visual material. ❏ Students were presented with guided questions for group discussion before sharing the answers to the class regarding the strategy use. ❏ The teacher presented the summary list of the target strategy.	❏ Students' attention seemed to be paid to the presented material. ❏ Students tended to be actively discussing in group. However, when asked to share their answers to the class, only a few actively gave the answer while most of them just quietly listened.
Practice (22 minutes) ❏ Students were given directions on how to play Gossip Game requiring students to get around the class and search for as many gossips as possible in a whispering manner from their friends. Different gossips composed by the teacher based on lesson's vocabulary from the main course e.g. "Having a good sense of balance can help you to think straight" were distributed to the students. The students were also emphasized on the use of the strategy which was also listed on the written prompt given to each of the students. Two volunteers were invited to demonstrate the activity along with the teacher's step-by-step directions giving. ❏ The teacher distributed the written prompt on which listed the gossip and the linguistic items under the target strategy to each of the students and asked whether anyone was still not clear about the task. Then the teacher announced the game to be started and it ran for approximately 10 minutes.	❏ No student expressed their uncertainty in how to carry on the activity to the teacher. However, they seemed to be asking their friends besides them so directions were once again given step-by-step. ❏ Some students were observed not to be clear about what to so the teacher continued giving directions to those needed. Communicating in Thai could also be heard so the teacher had to remind them of keeping using English as well as using and ticking the strategy. For the first five minutes, it did not seem so energetic but it got more dynamic in the last five minutes that once they were called to stop, some were still continuing the task.
Post-reflection (10 minutes)	❏ Some still continued the Gossip Game task.

□ The teacher recapped the previous three stages to show relationship to the present stage, gave directions on how to fill in the Reflection Sheet emphasizing that they should answer based on the fact and that no matter what their answer would be, it would not affect their grade. Then the Reflection Sheet was distributed to the students.

□ Lots of students handed in the Reflection Sheet after six minutes had passed.

Lesson 2: July 2, 2013

Goal: To enable students to appropriately respond and naturally ask questions to flexibly negotiate meaning so as to develop students' interactional ability enhancing intelligibility of oral communication

Objectives:

□ Students will be able to show a conversation partner that s/he is being understood and followed by appropriately responding to the conversation partner.

□ Students will be able to signal for help from a conversation partner when facing with understanding problems by naturally asking questions for the conversation partner to repeat, clarify, give examples, or confirm accurate understandings.

Course Content:

□ Strategy: Answering and Asking

□ Topic: write an email or letter recommending places to see (page 36)

Number of Students: 32

Stages and Procedures	Remarks
Practice (26 minutes)	
□ Students were reminded of the strategy learnt in the previous week.	□ Some students tended not to pay attention to the directions giving.
□ Students were given directions on how to play Tour Agency/Tourist Game requiring students to get around the class and switch the turn as being a tour agency giving information in the provided written prompt and as being a tourist identifying which Singapore attraction was being introduced. They were also directed to begin their conversation by introducing themselves and to tick any strategy used. Along with giving directions, the teacher also demonstrated the activity by herself because it was hard to get volunteers to demonstrate the main activity.	□ Information of nine Singapore attractions was adapted from various websites. Afterwards, writing an email recommending places to see in Singapore was assigned as the assignment of the main course.
□ The teacher distributed the written prompt on which listed information of an attraction in Singapore, a list of attractions in Singapore, as well as linguistic items under the target strategy to each of the students, and told them to prepare by reading their information without letting anyone see it.	□ Some students were observed not to be clear about what to so the teacher continued giving directions to those needed. Also, some of them were working on the task in pair instead of in group so the teacher had
□ The teacher announced the game to be started and it ran for approximately 16 minutes.	

to spread them out and encourage them to move around. Communicating in Thai could also be heard so the teacher had to remind them of keeping using English as well as using and ticking the strategy. For the very first few minutes, it did not seem so energetic but it got more active later on, and laughter could be heard.

Post-reflection (10 minutes)
□ The teacher distributed the Reflection Sheet to the students stating that it was the same as in the previous week but encouraged any clarification request if needed. Once finished, students returned the Reflection Sheet.

Lesson 3: July 9, 2013
Goal: To enable students to appropriately signal an attempt in maintaining the conversation while dealing with hesitation and/or cognitive working process so as to develop students' discourse ability enhancing fluency in oral communication
Objective: Students will be able to gain more thinking time appropriately to keep communication channel open.
Course Content:
□ Strategy: Time-Gaining e.g. Well, you see ...; Well, you know ...; Actually, ...; Basically, ...; Just a minute ...; Let's see ...; Let me think ...; All I can say is ...; What can I say?; How shall I put it?
□ Topics:
  o Describing landmarks (P.30) e.g. a monument, traditional, abstract, etc.
  o History of landmarks (P.31) e.g. an eyesore, a landmark, part of the landscape, etc.
  o Recalling details (P. 34) e.g. As far as I can remember, ...; They say that ...; It says that ...; I think I'm right in saying that ...; I read somewhere that ...; I've heard that ...; If I remember rightly, ...
  o Write an email or letter recommending places to see (page 36)

Number of Students: 33

Stages and Procedures	Remarks
Pre-reflection (10 minutes) □ Students were given directions to hold a pair conversation in which students were to choose one picture displayed on a PowerPoint slide to give details for their partner to choose from among the other pictures. Two students were asked to help in the demonstration. In their	**Remarks** □ There was difficulty in pairing due to the odd number of the students present.

speaking turn, students were asked to close their eyes and warned that their partner might be stolen disappearing from the scene. ☐ The conversation lasted approximately one minute each round. ☐ Students were asked guided questions to reflect on whether they used the target strategy and whether they had problems because of that to discuss in group before sharing to the class. ☐ The teacher concluded with a final picture prompt displaying communication in a classroom context.	☐ The students actively talked to each other; however, kept their eyes open despite many times of being reminded. ☐ The students kept quiet although seemed to be paying attention to the teacher leaving the teacher did most of the talking.
Presentation (5 minutes) ☐ The teacher once again emphasized the nature of this stage: the teacher's presenting target strategies, not students' giving a presentation in front of the class. ☐ The teacher implicitly presented the strategy by asking students to brainstorm for what could be said and its benefit. Then the teacher presented the strategy explicitly.	☐ The students hardly answered despite many times of asking. They tended to keep quiet.
Practice (30 minutes) ☐ In small groups of five to six students whose seat were pre-arranged, students were directed and given four minutes to read, and remember information in the provided written prompt about a given region of the Philippines. ☐ Students were directed to return the written prompt and regroup by numbering off. Then each group was given the question list on which listed the target strategy as well as the previous set of the strategy (Answering and Asking), and reminded of strictly using English at all time. ☐ Students asked and answered the given questions in group, lasting for approximately 15 minutes. ☐ An extra task was given to certain groups which had finished the main task to remain occupied while waiting for the other groups approximately for 2 minutes.	☐ Information of six regions of the Philippines was adapted from http://www.morefunphilippines.co.uk/brochure/. Afterwards, writing an email recommending places to see in the Philippines was assigned as the assignment of the main course. ☐ There was difficulty in grouping due to the number of the students present. ☐ No student expressed their uncertainty in how to carry on the activity to the teacher. However, they seemed to be asking their friends besides them so directions were once again given step-by-step to those needed. ☐ Communicating in Thai could also be heard so the teacher had to remind them of keeping using English as well as using and ticking the strategy.

| | It did not seem energetic at all possibly because the students had problems remembering the information so they were directed to make up any response as they wanted. After such additional directions, they seemed to be more active and linguistic items or phrases in the target strategy could be heard. |

Post-reflection (10 minutes)
- The teacher distributed the Reflection Sheet to the students stating that it was the same as in the previous week but encouraged any clarification request if needed.

| | Lots of students handed in the Reflection Sheet after eight minutes had passed but the procedure continued for another two minutes to wait for those who had not finished. |

Lesson 4: July 16, 2013

Goal: To enable students to appropriately signal an attempt in maintaining the conversation while dealing with hesitation and/or cognitive working process so as to develop students' discourse ability enhancing fluency in oral communication

Objective: Students will be able to gain more thinking time appropriately to keep communication channel open.

Course Content:
- Strategy: Time-Gaining
- Topics:
  o Recalling details (P. 34) e.g. As far as I can remember, ...; They say that ...; It says that ...; I think I'm right in saying that ...; I read somewhere that ...; I've heard that ...; If I remember rightly, ...
  o Describing a special occasion (P.35) e.g. traditionally, nowadays, in the old days, etc.

Number of Students: 34

Stages and Procedures	Remarks
Practice (20 minutes) - Students were reminded of the strategy learnt in the previous week. - Students were instructed to individually and silently think about an occasion before getting in pairs and gave any details about the chosen occasion except the name of the occasion to a friend. They were also instructed to remember as many details as possible for it would be	- The teacher helped in pairing when it seemed needed. - Students were active talking. Phrases in the strategy (e.g. I got it.) could be heard.

useful in the subsequence stage.

- ❑ Before being distributed to each of the students, the strategy checklist on which there was also a list of sample questions regarding occasions was explained in detail. The students were also reminded of ticking the strategy used.
- ❑ They were asked to stop and keep switching to a new pair. Additionally, in the following turns, they were asked to respond based on the previous friend's answer. (9 minutes)

Post-reflection (10 minutes)
- ❑ The teacher distributed the Reflection Sheet to the students stating that it was the same as in the previous week but encouraged any clarification request if needed.

	❑ Some still continued carrying on asking about an occasion/tradition.

Lesson 5: August 6, 2013

Goal: To enable students to strategically and effectively or successfully communicate by applying their own limited yet available knowledge to repair communication breakdowns or overcome communicative difficulties rather than giving up the communication so as to develop students' strategic ability enhancing success in oral communication

Objectives: Students will be able to maintain their speech production despite insufficient communicative competence or modify their speech production if it is not correctly or clearly understood.

Course Content:
- ❑ Strategy: Self-Repairing (This strategy was referred to as "Trying" to the students.) e.g. ask other people, synonym, antonym, example, categorization, description, definition, and change word types
- ❑ Topics:
  - o Adverbs for describing actions (P. 16) e.g. carefully, reluctantly, furiously, etc.
  - o Generalizing and talking about differences (P. 19) e.g. tend, tendency, vary, etc.
  - o Describing changes (P. 50) e.g. cut, switch, swap, etc.

Number of Students: 33

Stages and Procedures	Remarks
Pre-reflection (7 minutes) - ❑ Students were reminded of the strategy learnt in the previous weeks. - ❑ Students were once again informed of the purpose of this instructional stage. - ❑ The teacher asked for volunteers to come to the front of the class, close their eyes, and try to identify the word presented on the PowerPoint slide hinted by the other students. It went on for seven rounds by seven different volunteers. (4 minutes) - ❑ Students were asked about strategies or methods of hinting employed, and its benefit	- ❑ The teacher had to encourage quite a lot for volunteers to come. - ❑ The activity went on quite enthusiastically. - ❑ Strategies observed were using antonyms, examples, Thai words, and changing word types.

Presentation (15 minutes) ❑ The teacher implicitly asked about what the strategy would be by using a picture for class discussion before presenting the list of all the methods available in the target strategy. Then the teacher went into detail of each method while the students were asked to give examples of each method as well.	
Practice (23 minutes) ❑ As a group practice, each group was given a piece of paper on which listed the previous sets of communication strategies as well as the newly learnt strategy on that day and four keywords based on that day's topics. They were instructed to brainstorm for at least seven words related to the given keywords. They were also asked to choose at least two more keywords based on that day's target vocabulary to brainstorm for at least seven words related to the chosen keywords. ❑ As soon as every group finished, their lists were checked. In this process, each group was asked to choose one of the keywords to read the related words that they came up with for the other groups to guess for the keyword.	❑ Observing that some students were using a cell-phone dictionary, the teacher told them that it was a good thing to do; however, they should try by themselves in this practice. Also, in brainstorming, communicating in Thai could also be heard. ❑ Not every group paid attention to the hints given and the teacher had to call for attention every now and then.
Post-reflection (10 minutes) ❑ The teacher distributed the Reflection Sheet to the students stating that it was the same as in the previous week but encouraged any clarification request if needed.	

Lesson 6: August 13, 2013

Goal: To enable students to strategically and effectively or successfully communicate by applying their own limited yet available knowledge to repair communication breakdowns or overcome communicative difficulties rather than giving up the communication so as to develop students' strategic ability enhancing success in oral communication

Objectives: Students will be able to maintain their speech production despite insufficient communicative competence or modify their speech production if it is not correctly or clearly understood.

Course Content:

☐ Strategy: Self-Repairing (Trying)
☐ Topics:
  o Adverbs for describing actions (P. 16) e.g. carefully, reluctantly, furiously, etc.
  o Crimes and justice (P. 47) e.g. community service, accused, prison, etc.

Number of Students: 31

Stages and Procedures	Remarks
Practice (-- minutes) ☐ Students were reminded of the strategy learnt in the previous week. ☐ In small groups of five to six students whose seat were pre-arranged, students were given directions on how to play Trying Cup game requiring one member to randomly pick up one word card from the cup to give hints for the other members to guess for the word, and to put it back if no one could get the word correctly or to put it into another cup if it was succeeded. Every one minute, the teacher called out for students to mandatorily switch the turns. Along with the two cups, a strategy summary list was given to students individually, which they were also asked to tick on any strategies used.	☐ The students seemed to carry on the activity energetically. However, some complaints as "not again!" were heard when the teacher called for the turn switching.
Post-reflection (-- minutes) ☐ The teacher distributed the Reflection Sheet to the students stating that it was the same as in the previous week but encouraged any clarification request if needed.	

Lesson 7: August 20, 2013

Goal: To enable students to flexibly negotiate meaning so as to develop students' interactional ability enhancing intelligibility of oral communication

Objectives: Students will be able to check if their speech production is correctly and clearly understood by a conversation partner.

Course Content:

❑ Strategy: Comprehension Checks (This strategy was referred to as "Checking" to the students.) e.g. Is that clear?, Do you understand?, Do you get it?, Do you get what I am saying?, Am I making any sense?, Do you follow me?, Do you see?, Can you hear me?

❑ Topics:
  ○ Dealing with misunderstanding (P. 14) e.g. told, said, thought, etc.
  ○ Putting forward an argument in a web posting (P. 52)

Number of Students: 33

Stages and Procedures	Remarks
Pre-reflection (10 minutes) ❑ Students were reminded of the strategy learnt in the previous weeks. ❑ Students were given directions to individually choose one topic of interest to talk in pair. ❑ Students carried on pair conversations switching the speaking turn when the teacher called for. In each speaking turn, the speakers were instructed to keep their eyes close while the listeners were prohibited from asking any question but allowed to answer anything if being asked. (3 minutes) ❑ Students were asked guided questions to reflect on whether they used the target strategy and whether they had problems or saw any advantages because of that. ❑ The teacher concluded with a final picture prompt displaying communication in a classroom context.	❑ Lots of time was spent in pairing management due to the odd number of the students present. ❑ Some students were still not talking so the teacher encouraged them to talk about anything. ❑ As students tended not to keep their eyes close while speaking, the teacher had to repeatedly remind them so. ❑ When asked to share the answers to the class, only a few whispered the answer.
Presentation (10 minutes) ❑ A picture prompt displaying a miscommunication was shown to the students who were asked to brainstorm for solutions. Then the teacher referred back to the first set of the target strategies, Answering and Asking, rationalizing that unless Answering and Asking was used, Checking might be required. ❑ Students were asked to brainstorm for more phrases to be used for this purpose before the teacher presented the strategy explicitly.	

Stages and Procedures	Remarks
Practice (26 minutes) ☐ Students were given a written prompt on which listed all the target strategies along with a dialogue. ☐ Directions were given requiring students to disagree with each other on the topic presented on the PowerPoint slide. An example of the topic was: "I think high school graduates should take a year off before entering university". ☐ The teacher asked whether anyone was still not clear about the task. Then teacher announced the Arguing Game to be started and it ran for approximately 21 minutes. During the practice, the teacher called out approximately every two minutes for the students to switch the turn to disagree with the topic and to present a new topic. Altogether, the students argued on five topics.	☐ Some students stopped arguing before two minutes so the teacher encouraged continuing arguing.
Post-reflection (10 minutes) ☐ The teacher distributed the Reflection Sheet to the students stating that it was the same as in the previous week but encouraged any clarification request if needed.	

Lesson 8: August 27, 2013

Goal: To enable students to flexibly negotiate meaning so as to develop students' interactional ability enhancing intelligibility of oral communication

Objectives: Students will be able to check if their speech production is correctly and clearly understood by a conversation partner.

Course Content:
- Strategy: Comprehension Checks (Checking)
- Topics:
  o Dealing with misunderstanding (P. 14) e.g. told, said, thought etc.
  o Talk about crime and justice and justify your point of view (P. 46-47) e.g. community service, accused, prison, etc.
  o Talk about media and the Internet (P. 48) e.g. As far as they are concerned, …, There is also the argument that …, On the other hand, …, etc.
  o Putting forward an argument in a web posting (P. 52)

Number of Students: 33

Stages and Procedures	Remarks
Practice (20 minutes plus) ☐ Students were given a written prompt identical to the one received in the previous week. No further directions were given as the activity was the same except the topics to be argued about and that they had opportunities to choose a topic from the list provided. An example of the topic was: "I think school/university uniforms should be banned".	☐ Students carried on the task actively as the talk and the laughter could be heard so loud. The topics provided seemed to be of their interest.

	Remarks
Then the teacher announced the Arguing Game to be started. During the practice, the teacher called out approximately every one minute and a half for the students to switch the turn to disagree with the topic and to present a new topic. Altogether, the students argued on eight topics.	❏ One student complained of forgetting the desired word. Then another student suggested using Trying.

Post-reflection (10 minutes)
❏ The teacher distributed the Reflection Sheet to the students stating that it was the same as in the previous week but encouraged any clarification request if needed.

Lesson 9: September 3, 2013
Goal: To provide extensive practice in using communication strategies along with adequate teacher support
Objectives: Students will be able to use communication strategies to enhance their L2 communication.
Course Content:
❏ Strategies: Answering and Asking, Time-Gaining, Self-Repairing (Trying), and Comprehension Checks (Checking)
❏ Topics:
  o Describe events in detail (U. 2) e.g. assumed, carefully, I had to go the trouble of ..., etc.
  o Describe experiences of things going wrong (U. 2) e.g. logical, if, option, etc.
  o Dealing with misunderstanding (P. 14) e.g. told, said, thought etc.

Number of Students: 34

Stages and Procedures	Remarks
Practice (-- minutes) ❏ Students were given directions to carry on a role-play in pair based on a role card and to tick any strategies used. ❏ Students were given a summary list of communication strategies as well as a role card. ❏ The teacher announced the activity to be started. During the practice, the teacher called out every two minutes and a half for the students to switch the role card and carry on the role play. Then the teacher collected back the role card and distributed a new role card to the students to do a role play on a different situation. Altogether, the students carried on the role play on two situations.	❏ Three role play situations were taken from the main course textbook in the unit taught in the semester. However, there was hardly enough time for the students to engagingly participate in the activity as they begged for their lunch break. As a result, only two situations were carried on without much enthusiasm.

Post-reflection (-- minutes)
❏ The teacher distributed the Reflection Sheet to the students stating that it was the same as in the previous week but encouraged any clarification request if needed.

Lesson 10: September 10, 2013

Goal: To provide extensive practice in using communication strategies autonomously

Objectives: Students will be able to autonomously use communication strategies to enhance their L2 communication.

Course Content:

☐ Strategies: Answering and Asking, Time-Gaining, Self-Repairing (Trying), and Comprehension Checks (Checking)

☐ Topics:

   ○ Dealing with misunderstanding (P. 14) e.g. told, said, thought etc.

   ○ Talk about crime and justice and justify your point of view (P. 46-47) e.g. community service, accused, prison, etc.

   ○ Talk about media and the Internet (P. 48) e.g. As far as they are concerned, …, There is also the argument that …, On the other hand, …, etc.

   ○ Putting forward an argument in a web posting (P. 52)

Number of Students: 33

Stages and Procedures	Remarks
Practice (-- minutes) ☐ Students were given directions to carry on a group discussion for three minutes requiring them to decide on the most suitable punishment for each case and prepare to share with the class. Each of the five cases was presented on a PowerPoint slide at a time.	☐ Five cases were adapted from the main course textbook in the unit taught in the semester. Students' names in the class were used to replace the names in the original text. An example is "P buys lots of tickets for Body Slam's Concert so he can sell them online to the highest bidder".
Post-reflection (10 minutes) ☐ The teacher distributed the Reflection Sheet to the students stating that it was the same as in the previous week but encouraged any clarification request if needed.	

Appendix J: List of Experts Validating Instruments

Communication Strategy Instruction

    Dr. Apiwan Nuangpolmak

    Dr. Pramarn Subphadoongchone

    Dr. Worawanna Petchkij

English Speaking Test and English Speaking Rating Scale

    Dr. Nittaya Sanguanngarm

    Dr. Ranonda Rungnaphawet

    Dr. Sumanee Pinweha

    Asst. Prof. Dr. Tanisaya Jiriyasin

Self-Assessed English Speaking Confidence Scale

    Dr. Nittaya Sanguanngarm

    Asst. Prof. Dr. Piyatida Changpueng

    Dr. Ranonda Rungnaphawet

    Asst. Prof. Dr. Tanisaya Jiriyasin

Attitude Questionnaire

    Dr. Apiwan Nuangpolmak

    Dr. Nittaya Sanguanngarm

    Asst. Prof. Dr. Piyatida Changpueng

    Dr. Pramarn Subphadoongchone

    Dr. Ranonda Rungnaphawet

VITA

Ms. Korapin Paranapiti received her B.A. in English from Chulalongkorn University in 2007 and M.A. in English as an International Language from Chulalongkorn University in 2008. She is presently a full-time English instructor at the Faculty of Humanities, Kasetsart University, Bangkhen Campus.