

ORAL COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES: TASK-BASED LEARNING AND INDONESIAN EFL LEARNERS

Siti Rohani

**BA (Institute of Teacher Training and Education, IKIP Malang)
Master of Education (State University of Malang)**

Doctor of Philosophy

Submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy
Faculty of Education, Monash University, Australia

June 2012

Copyright Notices

Notice 1

Under the Copyright Act 1968, this thesis must be used only under the normal conditions of scholarly fair dealing. In particular no results or conclusions should be extracted from it, nor should it be copied or closely paraphrased in whole or in part without the written consent of the author. Proper written acknowledgement should be made for any assistance obtained from this thesis.

Notice 2

I certify that I have made all reasonable efforts to secure copyright permissions for third-party content included in this thesis and have not knowingly added copyright content to my work without the owner's permission.

Declaration

This thesis, except with the Research Graduate School Committee's Approval, contains no material which has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma in any university or other institution. To the best of my knowledge, the thesis contains no material previously published or written by any other person, except where due references is made in the text of the thesis.

Signature:

Date: 26 June 2012

This research project was granted approval by the Standing Committee on Ethics in Research Involving Humans (SCERH). Project Number:
CF09/0483: 2009000175. Date of Approval: 27 March 2009

Acknowledgements

Alhamdulillah, all praise be to Allah The Almighty for all the graces and blessings given to me throughout my PhD journey.

The completion of this thesis owes to the countless support and assistance of many individuals, to whom I would like to express my sincere appreciation and thanks.

My deepest gratitude goes to my main supervisor, Dr. Jill Brown, who has provided me with wise guidance and direction throughout the preparation and completion of the thesis. Her remarkable wisdom and depth of knowledge have enlightened the path of my most challenging intellectual journey. Her endless encouragement and immense patience and understanding have given me both academic and personal support I will forever cherish. She has been a true inspiration—an academic role model and an ideal supervisor. She is truly a great person to whom I will always be indebted.

My special thanks also go to Dr. Margaret Gearon, my associate supervisor, who assisted me in the preparation stage of the thesis prior to my confirmation. It was at this early phase of candidature that I felt I was struggling the most. Yet, her guidance and support have given me the determination to stay strong and empowered me to go through the hurdle of this journey.

I thank my dear friends and officemates, Isti Gandana, Munaza Nausheen, and Le Thi Thu Huyen, who have endlessly supported me. Walking together with them and being able to support each other in the ups and downs have motivated me

to move on, be persistent and to finally reach the destination. Sharing ideas with intelligent friends has enlightened me in many ways. I feel grateful to be in bond with lovely and intelligent friends.

My sincere thanks also go to the head and all fellow staff of Business Administration Department of State Polytechnic of Malang for their contribution and support during the data collection. I also owe to students of this department for being the participants of the study.

I am forever indebted to my parents, Ibu Murtiningsih and Bapak Gozali for their silent prayers, unconditional love, and never-ending support. Their religious and modest ways of bringing me up has taught me to be always grateful for everything in life. My highest respect goes to them, and my prayers are always for their happiness. My thanks also go to my siblings in Indonesia who always pray, support, and help me in immeasurable ways during my absence from home.

I feel very blessed for having Ariq and Saarah, my lovely children, in my life. They have been extremely supportive and understanding in dealing with their busy mom, encouraging me, in their own special ways, to persevere throughout the journey. They are the love of my life, the sun of my days, and the moon of my nights. With their love, I feel true happiness.

I dedicate this thesis to my wonderful husband, Mas Arif Dermawan. My gratitude for his love, sacrifice, patience and understanding is beyond words. His always being by my side has been a real strength without which I could not have gone through this tough journey. He has been a great mentor and companion with whom I share all my joys and pains. Mas Arif, I can never thank you enough.

Dedication

To Mas Arif, Ariq, and Saarah

...the joy of my heart...

Table of Contents

Declaration	ii
Acknowledgements	iii
Dedication	v
Table of Contents	vi
List of Figures	xii
List of Tables.....	xiii
List of Appendices	xv
Abstract	xvi
CHAPTER 1 THE STUDY	1
1.1 Rationale.....	1
1.2 Purpose of the Study and Research Questions	4
1.3 Context of the Study	5
1.4 Significance of the Study	7
1.5 Operational Definition of Key Terms.....	8
1.6 Organisation of the Thesis.....	9
CHAPTER 2 ORAL COMMUNICATION SKILLS	12
2.1 Oral Communication Defined	12
2.2 Spoken Versus Written Language	16
2.3 Process of the Spoken Language Production	19

2.4	Support for Oral Communication Development	27
2.5	Factors Affecting the Development of Oral Communication Skills	29
2.5.1	Self-esteem in oral communication development.	31
2.5.2	Risk-taking	35
2.5.3	Anxiety	38
2.5.4	Motivation	44
2.6	Concluding Remark	50
CHAPTER 3 ORAL COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES		51
3.1	Oral Communication Strategies	51
3.1.1	Traditional approach.	52
3.1.2	Interactional approach.	54
3.1.3	Psycholinguistic approach.....	59
3.1.3.1	Faerch and Kasper.	59
3.1.3.2	Bialystok et al.	64
3.1.3.3	Poulisse.	69
3.1.4	Sociolinguistic perspective.....	74
3.1.5	Definition and taxonomy of communication strategies used in the study	75
3.1.6	Factors affecting the use of communication strategies.	77
3.2	Communication Strategies versus Learning Strategies	80
3.3	Language Learning Strategies	82

3.3.1	Conceptualisation of language learning strategies.....	82
3.3.2	Features of learning strategies.....	87
3.3.3	Variables affecting the use and choice of strategies.	89
3.4	Concluding Remark.....	94
CHAPTER 4 TASK-BASED LEARNING		95
4.1	The Concept Task.....	95
4.2	Benefits and Constraints of TBL.....	101
4.3	Dimensions in TBL	105
4.4	Procedures of TBL in Classrooms.....	109
4.5	Conceptual Framework	112
CHAPTER 5 METHODOLOGY		115
5.1	Research Inquiries as the Starting Point.....	115
5.2	Pragmatism.....	117
5.2	Mixed-Methods Design – Explanatory Study	118
5.2.1	Non-experimental research as quantitative study	120
5.2.2	Multi-case study as qualitative study	122
5.2.3	Research participants.	124
5.2.4	Methods.....	126
5.2.4.1	Inventory.....	127
5.2.4.2	Learning journal (LJ).....	128
5.2.4.3	Focus group discussion (FGD).	130

5.2.4.4	Stimulated recall interview (SR).....	131
5.2.4.5	In-depth interview.....	133
5.2.4.6	Classroom observation.....	134
5.2.5	Triangulation.....	136
5.3	Data Collection Process.....	136
5.4	Data Analysis	138
CHAPTER 6 IMPLEMENTATION OF TASK-BASED LEARNING		143
6.1	Students' Responses toward the Implementation of TBL.....	144
6.2	Problems and Strategies during Classroom Interactions	155
6.2.1	Linguistic problems and strategies.....	157
6.2.2	Non-linguistic problems and strategies.....	169
6.3	Progress in Oral Communication Skills	178
6.4	Summary	180
CHAPTER 7 A PROFILE OF ORAL COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES.....		182
7.1	Employment of Strategies – General Overview	183
7.1.1	Employment of strategies at the beginning of semester.	183
7.1.2	Employment of strategies at the end of semester.....	186
7.2	Strategies for Coping with Speaking Problems.....	189
7.2.1	Use of speaking strategies at the beginning of semester.....	189
7.2.2	Use of speaking strategies at the end of semester.....	197
7.3	Strategies for Coping with Listening Problems	205

7.3.1	Use of listening strategies at the beginning of semester.	205
7.3.2	Use of listening strategies at the end of semester.	211
7.4	Summary and Discussion	217
CHAPTER 8 SHIFTS IN ORAL COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES FOR		
COPING WITH SPEAKING PROBLEMS223		
8.1	Shifts in Use of Speaking Strategies across Students of Different Proficiencies	224
8.2	Shifts in Use of Speaking Strategies	229
8.2.1	Social affective strategies.....	235
8.2.2	Fluency-oriented strategies.	243
8.2.3	Negotiation for meaning while speaking strategies.	251
8.2.4	Accuracy-oriented strategies.....	256
8.2.5	Message reduction and alteration strategies.....	262
8.2.6	Non-verbal strategies in speaking.	270
8.2.7	Message abandonment strategies.	275
8.2.8	Attempt to think in English strategies.....	283
8.3	Summary	287
CHAPTER 9 SHIFTS IN ORAL COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES FOR		
COPING WITH LISTENING PROBLEMS292		
9.1	Shifts in Use of Listening Strategies across Students of Different Proficiencies	293

9.2	Shifts in Use of Listening Strategies	297
9.2.1	Strategies of negotiation for meaning while listening.	303
9.2.2	Fluency maintaining strategies.....	308
9.2.3	Scanning strategies.....	316
9.2.4	Getting the gist strategies.	318
9.2.5	Non-verbal strategies in listening.	326
9.2.6	Less-active listener strategies.....	330
9.2.7	Word-oriented strategies.	335
9.3	Summary	339
CHAPTER 10 THE CONCLUSION		343
10.1	Summary of Findings.....	343
10.2	Implications of the Study	348
10.3	Recommendations for Future Research.....	351
REFERENCES.....		355
APPENDICES		386

List of Figures

Figure 1.1 Inquiry of the study.....	4
Figure 2.1 Interdependence between speaking and listening (Byrne, 1986, p. 10)	16
22	
Figure 2.2 Levelt's Blueprint for the speaker (Levelt, 1989, p. 9). Boxes represent processing components; circle and ellipse represent knowledge stores.	22
Figure 2.3 Basic model of the role of aptitude and motivation in second language learning (Gardner, 2001, p. 5)	47
Figure 3.1. Operation of analysis and control processes on representations of meaning and language (Kellerman & Bialystok, 1997, p. 36)	68
Figure 4.1 Littlewood's (2004, p. 324) two dimensions in task-based foreign language learning	107
Figure 4.2 Conceptual frameworks as analytical tool.....	113
119	
Figure 5.1 Mixed-methods procedure: Participant selection model, adapted from Creswell and Plano Clark (2007).....	119
Figure 5.2 Framework of data analysis	142
Figure 7.1 Changes of the oral communication strategies use.....	220

List of Tables

Table 3.1. Tarone's (1981, p. 286) Taxonomy of Communication Strategies.....	56
Table 3.2. Faerch and Kasper's (1983, pp. 52-53) Taxonomy of Communication Strategies	62
Table 3.3 Bialystok and Kellerman's Taxonomies of Compensatory Strategies.....	67
Table 3.3 Typology of Compensatory Strategies (Poulisse et al., 1984, pp. 89-90)	70
Table 3.4 Poulisse's Taxonomy of Communication Strategies (1987)	73
Table 7.1 Frequency of Use of Oral Communication Strategies at the Beginning of Semester.....	184
Table 7.2 Frequency of Use of Oral Communication Strategies at the End of Semester.....	187
Table 7.3 Frequency of Use of Oral Communication Strategies for Coping with Speaking Problems at the Beginning of Semester.....	190
Table 7.4 Frequency of Use of Individual Oral Communication Strategies for Coping with Speaking Problems at the Beginning of Semester.....	193
Table 7.5 Frequency of Use of Oral Communication Strategies for Coping with Speaking Problems at the End of Semester	198
Table 7.6 Frequency of Use of Individual Oral Communication Strategies for Coping with Speaking Problems at the End of Semester	201
Table 7.7 Frequency of Use of Oral Communication Strategies for Coping with Listening Problems at the Beginning of Semester.....	205
Table 7.8 Frequency of Use of Individual Oral Communication Strategies for Coping with Listening Problems at the Beginning of Semester	208

Table 7.9 Frequency of Use of Oral Communication Strategies for Coping with Listening Problems at the End of Semester	212
Table 7.10 Frequency of Use of Individual Oral Communication Strategies for Coping with Listening Problems at the End of Semester	215
Table 8.1 Shifts in Use of Oral Communication Strategies for Coping with Speaking Problems (in Categories)	225
Table 8.2 Shifts in Use of Individual Oral Communication Strategies for Coping with Speaking Problems	230
Table 8.3 Shifts in Use of Individual Oral Communication Strategies for Coping with Speaking Problems across Different Groups	233
Table 9.1 Shifts in Use of Oral Communication Strategies for Coping with Listening Problems (in Categories)	294
Table 9.2 Shifts in Use of Individual Oral Communication Strategies for Coping with Listening Problems	298
Table 9.3 Shifts in Use of Individual Oral Communication Strategies for Coping with Listening Problems across Different Groups	301

List of Appendices

Appendix 1 Oral Communication Strategy Inventory (OCSI)	386
Appendix 2 Speaking Test Rating Scale and Operational Definition (Adapted from Foreign Service Insitute)	390
Appendix 3 List of Guiding Questions for FGD.....	395

Abstract

This study investigated the use of oral communication strategies during implementation of Task-Based Learning (TBL) in a tertiary English language class in Indonesia. Three research questions were addressed: students' responses toward the implementation of TBL, oral communication strategies used, and shifts in use of oral communication strategies after the implementation of TBL for one semester.

The study employed both quantitative and qualitative measurement of the data. Findings at the beginning of semester were compared to those at the end of semester. Reliability of the data was maintained through multi methods employed, including Oral Communication Strategy Inventory (OCSI) administered at the beginning and end of semester, learning journals of 26 students administered throughout the semester, focus group discussion with twelve students conducted at the end of semester, in-depth interviews with ten students to confirm the findings from the OCSI, stimulated recall interviews with fourteen students conducted at the end of semester, and video-taped classroom activities held throughout the semester.

Findings indicate positive responses to TBL. Toward the end of semester, students believed their oral communication skills had improved. There was evidence of increased self-esteem, risk-taking behaviour, and motivation to learn English.

Quantitative findings suggest that, toward the end of semester, students increasingly used positive strategies for coping with both speaking and listening problems. Use of negative strategies was significantly reduced. Qualitative findings

confirm quantitative findings, suggesting students' improved strategic competence in oral communication skills. Positive strategies were increasingly used while negative strategy use was reduced. There was also some evidence that the higher the students' levels of oral proficiency, the greater the likelihood of their increasing use of positive strategies and reducing the use of negative strategies. Reasons for this shift reported by students included higher self-esteem, higher motivation to be more actively engaged in communication and to learn English as well as improved linguistic competence, especially in the area of vocabulary.

CHAPTER 1

THE STUDY

1.1 Rationale

The reason for this study came from my understanding of the importance of mastering oral communication skills in learning English as a Foreign Language (EFL). My interest in this area as became stronger when I experienced the hindrances and challenges involved in teaching oral communication skills, which indicated the need for more appropriate and effective teaching methods. My readings and observation during my time teaching English in Indonesia suggested me to some factors affecting the development of oral communication skills, among them communication strategies and learning strategies. While there had been research studying the effectiveness of certain teaching methods in promoting oral communication skills and the connection between communication strategies and communication skills development, I found little research had been conducted to identify the connection between teaching methods and oral communication strategies. This is the gap I would like to fill.

Effective oral communication skills, especially speaking skills, are essential for learners of EFL (Goh, 2007; Ur, 1996). For Indonesian university students, oral communication skills are considered the most important skill they want to master; their first two priorities in learning English are ‘talking with native speakers in work situations’ and ‘talking with native speakers in social situations’ (Bradford, 2007, pp. 311-312). However, speaking is considered the second most difficult skill to master

after writing. With few exceptions, most students graduating from university cannot communicate adequately in English (Dardjowidjojo, 2000; Nur, 2004). Even if students do understand the input, they cannot produce expressions to which they have been exposed (Morries, 2001). Some causes for this have been identified, including large class size, teachers' low English proficiency, teachers' lack of familiarity with the implementation of new curriculum, and inappropriate methods of teaching (Dardjowidjojo, 1996, 2000). In this study, I would like to highlight the issue of teaching methods in promoting students' oral communication skills.

As the latest realization of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), Task-Based Learning (TBL) is regarded as a favourite method by English teachers in Asia (Nunan, 2003). I have also observed the popularity of TBL in teaching EFL in Indonesia. Task is basically defined as a goal-oriented classroom activity (Ellis, 2003b; Nunan, 2006; Oxford, 2006; Prabhu, 1987; Willis, 1998) which requires learners' use of target language, focusing on the conveying of meaning rather than on the practice of form (Ellis, 2003b; Nunan, 2006; Skehan, 1998). There are two main reasons to choose TBL as an English teaching and learning approach, namely the desire for a meaning-focused approach that reflects real life language use (Leaver & Willis, 2004) and the task based interactions stimulating natural acquisition processes (Prabhu, 1987).

A number of studies reveal the effectiveness of TBL in enhancing students' language proficiency, especially their oral communication skills (eg., Ahmed, 1996; Lochana & Deb, 2006; Lovick & Cobb, 2007; Sae-Ong, 2010) despite some challenges to the implementation of TBL in Asia Pacific (eg., Adams & Newton,

2009; Butler, 2011; Littlewood, 2007) and in Indonesia (eg., Jazadi, 2000; Nur, 2004). Challenges and constraints have been related to the adaptation and translation of TBL to the contexts and situations where EFL learning was conducted, suggesting that different contexts might entail different implementations of TBL. However, when attempts are made to adapt TBL to the context without discarding its main characteristics, advantages might outweigh disadvantages.

Oral communication skills and communication strategies in EFL learning are interconnected. Communication strategies are the means to close the gap between linguistic competence and communicative competence, the gap between what learners are capable of and what learners intend to express (Bialystok & Frohlich, 1980). Despite the debate differentiating communication strategies from learning strategies, within the context of my study, I believe that the former is included as part of the latter. Employment of communication strategies is considered one of the strategies in learning and developing oral communication skills. Moreover, in an EFL context, classroom communication is commonly found while genuine communication hardly occurs.

Students' individual differences have been identified as influencing use and choice of communication strategies. Students of different levels of oral communication skills employ different communication strategies (eg., Griffiths, 2003b; Macaro, 2006). Task types have also been identified as determining employment of communication strategies (eg., Ng, 1995; Oxford, Yunkyoung Cho, Santoi Leung, & Hae-Jin Kim, 2004). Finally, learners' individual differences, namely personality, cultural background and first language background, have also

been found to be influential in the choice and use of communication strategies (eg., Gao, 2006; Paribakht, 1985; Tarone, 1977). Implementation of TBL to promote students' oral communication skills may shape the pattern of students' use of oral communication strategies without discounting the possibility of this being influenced by other factors of individual difference.

Considering the interconnectedness between communication strategies and the development of oral communication skills as well as the role of TBL in promoting students' oral communication skills, I was interested to learn how the implementation of TBL would shape or change students' use of oral communication strategies. This change would be associated with how students would respond to the implementation of TBL and how they would understand the development of oral communication skills during the implementation of TBL. This inquiry is presented in Figure 1.1.

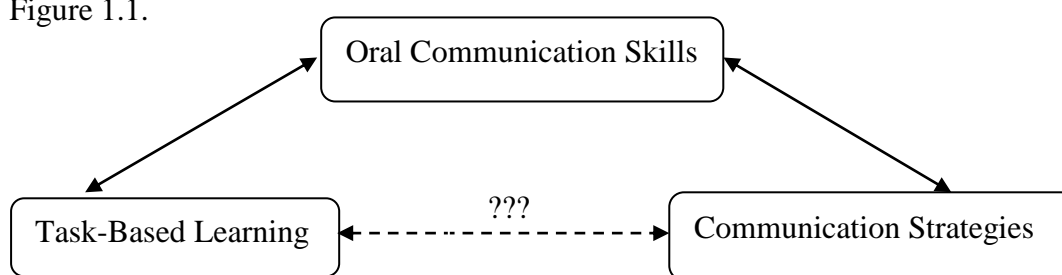


Figure 1.1 Inquiry of the study

1.2 Purpose of the Study and Research Questions

The prime concern of the study was to analyse non-English department students' use of oral communication strategies in a Task-Based Learning (TBL) program. This purpose lead to the formulation of research questions as follow:

1. How is the implementation of TBL viewed by the students?
 - a. What are their responses toward the implementation of TBL?
 - b. What problems do they encounter?
 - c. What strategies do they employ to solve these problems?
 - d. What progress do they believe they have achieved?
2. What oral communication strategies do students with a range of oral proficiency levels employ during the implementation of TBL?
3. Do these oral communication strategies change during the TBL program?

1.3 Context of the Study

State Polytechnic of Malang is one of the oldest polytechnics in Indonesia. It was founded in 1982 based on the decree letter of the Higher Degree Directorate of Indonesian Ministry of Education and Culture no. 03/DJ/Kep/1979. It is a professional institution of education offering vocational education in a range of several programs, including physical and social sciences. This vocational higher education institution operates on a system, composed of 55% practice and 45% theory. Students have to attend classes, either theory or practice, for approximately seven hours a day for five days a week, with nineteen teaching weeks in each semester. The discipline and scoring system in this institution is very strict; those who fail to reach certain scores or fail to meet minimum attendance requirements must be withdrawn from their course.

The Business Administration Department is one of the nine departments in the State Polytechnic of Malang. This department, which was founded in 1986/1987,

was established with the cooperation of the Australian Project. The second competence to be mastered by the graduates is English proficiency; this target is after the first competence which is secretarial and marketing proficiencies. With this importance, although it is not a mainstream subject, English is given high priority and taught for three sessions, each 90 minutes, per week for the whole three years (for diploma three) or four years (for diploma four). English is also a medium for teaching other non-English subjects.

The syllabus design in this department was targeted to meet employers' need (market need). Review of curriculum and syllabus was conducted once every two years. There were visits to companies to explore employers' expectation and needs of future employees' competence and skills. Findings from company visits were used to verify the curriculum or syllabus design of all subjects, including English.

For the purpose of this study, I prepared the teaching materials to be used in the semester in which data was to be collected. I designed, collected, and composed the teaching materials, suited to the syllabus already determined by the department. This was in order that the materials developed were up to the criteria of TBL. To validate that the materials followed TBL rules, I consulted an English native speaker professional who was appointed as my temporary second supervisor during that period.

Every year there were usually six classes of Diploma Three and one class of Diploma Four recruited by the Business Administration department with every class consisting of on average 24 to 26 students. These students were taught by seven

English teachers; three of them held Master's degree in English teaching, two were pursuing a Master degree, one held a Doctorate degree, and another was pursuing a Doctorate degree.

At the beginning of every semester there was a meeting of English teachers discussing the modification of teaching materials and teaching methods, the results of which were implemented in that semester. Any difficulties, problems, and discrepancies between objectives and results found during the semester were reviewed and discussed at the end of the semester. In this way, the English teaching and learning process at the Business Administration department was maintained as effective and innovative.

1.4 Significance of the Study

Theoretically, this study is able to contribute some insight into the implementation of TBL, especially how TBL rules are translated into the EFL teaching and learning contexts. Findings related to theories of ways in which communication strategies and TBL approach are connected and influence each other provide valuable insight into this process. This study also provides information about how students with a range of oral communication proficiency levels and individual differences employ oral communication strategies while implementing TBL.

Practically, the results of this research will help to determine better methods and strategies in the teaching and learning of English at vocational higher education institutions in Indonesia, especially the teaching of oral communication skills. This is associated not only with the implementation of TBL itself but also with how the use

communication strategies help to enhance the development of oral communication skills.

1.5 Operational Definition of Key Terms

For clarity, I offer to the following operational definition of key terms:

Oral communication skills include many aspects, linguistic and sociolinguistic competence as well as conversational skills. This is a two-way process of encoding and decoding messages between speakers and listeners involving interdependent speaking and listening skills. To communicate effectively speakers need to possess adequate vocabulary and syntax mastery as well as use appropriate pronunciation and intonation. They should also be thoughtful in optimizing the use of their sociolinguistic competence so that they can distinguish how to say what appropriately, to whom they speak, and when they speak. With the more central focus on the use of strategies, strategic competence is also included as an essential component of oral communication.

Following the psychological perspective on *communication strategies*, I define communication strategies as “potentially conscious plans for solving what to an individual presents itself as a problem in reaching a particular communicative goal” (Faerch & Kasper, 1983, p. 36). With the focus of the study on oral communication, then, what is understood by communication strategies in the present study refers to oral communication strategies.

TBL refers to a holistic and interesting activity that is focused on meaning, rather than on form, and that requires the learners to achieve meaningful target outcomes that resemble real-world activities.

1.6 Organisation of the Thesis

The thesis is presented in ten chapters. This chapter introduces the thesis, describes the rationale for the thesis, the formulation of the aims of the study and research questions, the context, significance, and operational definition of key terms, and organization of the thesis.

Chapter Two presents the literature review regarding oral communication skills. In this chapter, I discuss the conceptualization of oral communication skills, speech production process, and factors affecting the development of oral communication skills.

In Chapter Three, discussion of the literature on communication strategies is presented. I review the conceptualization and typologies of communication strategies based on different perspectives, leading to my choice of the concept I believe most appropriate for use in the current study. Debate about distinguishing communication strategies from learning strategies is presented, finally discussing my decision to put communication strategies as one part of learning strategies.

Chapter Four discusses TBL. I review the concept of task from a number of experts, leading to my definition of task for use in the study. Other issues discussed in this chapter include benefits and constraints of TBL, dimensions of TBL, and

procedures of TBL in classrooms. I end the chapter with a diagram showing the conceptual framework used as the analytical tool of the study.

Chapter Five is the methodology chapter in which I discuss my choice of research design, explaining why I chose explanatory mixed-methods with participant selection as most appropriate for my study. This is followed by presentation of multi methods for data collection and description of the participants. Finally, the process of data collection and data analysis is presented.

In Chapter Six, I respond to research question one regarding the implementation of TBL. Students' responses toward the implementation of TBL initiate the discussion. Problems encountered during the implementation of TBL and strategies used to solve these follow. The chapter ends with students' progress in oral communication skills by the end of the semester.

Chapter Seven is presented to respond to research question two regarding the profile of students' employment of oral communication strategies. Description of strategies used is elaborated, showing comparison of strategies use by students of different oral communication skills levels, use of speaking versus listening strategies, use of positive versus negative strategies, and use of strategies at the beginning and end of semester. This chapter is dominated by quantitative data analysis.

In Chapter Eight, I respond to research question three regarding the shift in use of strategies for coping with speaking problems, using both quantitative and qualitative data measurements. Shifts are presented following the categorization of strategies as determined in the Oral Communication Strategy Inventory (OCSI),

initiated with social strategies and ended with attempts to think in English. Within each category, discussion compares shifts made by students of different oral communication skills levels.

Chapter Nine responds to research question three regarding the shift in use of strategies for coping with listening problems. Quantitative data analysis is presented as a backdrop for the shift in use of strategies while qualitative data analysis provides reasons for the shift. Discussion is presented following the OCSI categorization, within which comparison between students of groups is presented.

The last chapter, Chapter Ten, concludes the thesis. I revisit the findings, draw conclusions, discuss implications of the study, and make recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER 2

ORAL COMMUNICATION SKILLS

With the central focus of the study on the use of oral communication strategies in the implementation of Task-Based Learning, this chapter is devoted to discussion of underlying theories concerning oral communication skills. The chapter starts with an overview of the various ways in which oral communication has been defined. The chronological movement shows the shifts from how oral communication was earlier defined involving only linguistic theories to the more current definition of oral communication skills with the inclusion of psycholinguistic and sociolinguistic theories, which become an additional emphasis of the findings of the present study. Included in this section is discussion of the elements of oral communication skills. Description of differences between spoken and written language then follows. This is continued with discussion of the process of spoken language production in the next section. These are used as the base for understanding the specificity and complexity of oral communication skills, a complexity which means that EFL (English as a Foreign Language) learners need to be provided with support as discussed in the next section. This section ends with identification of factors that influence the development of oral communication skills of EFL learners.

2.1 Oral Communication Defined

Prior to the 1970s, language learning was much influenced by linguistic theories. Mackey (1967) described oral expression as including the use of the right

sounds in the right patterns of rhythm and intonation and the choice of words and inflections and their arrangements in the right order to convey the right meaning.

In the 1970s, language teaching became increasingly influenced by cognitive and sociolinguistic theories. Linguistic competence was differentiated from communicative competence. The first refers to knowledge about the language while the latter refers to knowledge that enables a person to communicate functionally and interactively (Paulston, 1974). In the 1980s, Canale and Swain (1980) defined Communicative competence as consisting of four different components namely grammatical, discourse, sociolinguistic and strategic competence. Grammatical competence encompasses knowledge of lexical items and the rules of morphology, syntax, sentence-grammar semantics and phonology. This competence is important in providing learners with the knowledge to deliver accurate literal utterances. Discourse competence complements grammatical competence in appropriately connecting the utterances to the discourse. It is concerned with inter-sentential relationships and how the utterances are appropriately connected to the discourse of different genres and situations. Scarcella and Oxford (1992) used the term ‘discourse competence’ to refer to verbal, nonverbal and paralinguistic knowledge underlying the ability to organize spoken and written texts meaningfully and appropriately, which some linguists term ‘conversational competence’. Sociolinguistic competence is made up of two sets of rules: sociocultural rules of use and rules of discourse. Equipped with sociocultural competence, learners will be able to interpret utterances for social meaning. Finally, strategic competence includes verbal and non-verbal communication strategies to compensate for breakdown in communication due to insufficient competence or individual learner variables.

Nunan (1999) completes the definition of oral communication as including linguistic competence, that includes the ability to articulate sounds in a comprehensible manner, an adequate vocabulary, and syntax mastery, as well as sociolinguistic and conversational skills that enable speakers to know how to say what to whom and when. Tarone (2005) confirms that, in terms of linguistic systems, formal aspects of second language learners' oral language production can be described including the sounds of the language, morphology and syntax of the language, discourse markers of the language, and the lexis. He adds that second language learners need to fulfil the functional aspects of the spoken language, including the transactional, interactional, and ludic functions. In performing transactional functions, speakers convey information while in performing interactional functions, speakers establish or maintain social relationships. In its ludic function, spoken discourse is used for entertainment.

A similar concept is voiced by Goh (2007) who argues, that in order to speak effectively, mastering knowledge of grammar and vocabulary alone is not sufficient. Learners also need to develop four key areas of speaking competence, namely phonological skills, speech function skills, interaction management skills, and extended discourse organization skills. Phonological skills are important in order to produce accurate sounds at appropriate phonemic and prosodic levels of the target language. Speech function skills are necessary for performing effective communicative functions such as routine social and transactional exchanges. Regarding the importance of mastering interaction management skills, learners need to be able to manage face-to-face spontaneous exchanges such as initiating, maintaining and closing conversations, regulating turn-taking, changing topics and

negotiating meaning. Finally, when learners deal with the production of long stretches of language, they need to be able to structure their spoken output in a way that is easy to follow, and this requires them to master the knowledge of discourse routines as well as grammar and vocabulary knowledge.

Byrne (1986) defines oral communication as a two-way process between a speaker and a listener (or listeners) which involves the productive skill of speaking and the receptive skill of understanding (or listening with understanding). The term ‘receptive skill’ does not imply passivity; rather, in listening, language users are actively understanding, interpreting, and negotiating meanings. In the communication process, the speaker has to encode the message he wishes to convey in appropriate language while the listener has to decode the message. A more complete concept of oral communication is described by Murphy (1991) who considers oral communication to be a complex and multifaceted language process, consisting of speaking and listening skills as the major skills and pronunciation as a subskill that encompasses subsets of both speaking and listening skills.

During oral communication, there is interdependence between listening and speaking skills (Byrne, 1986). Figure 2.1 is a diagram showing this interdependence. In a conversation, the speaker and the listener usually change roles in that speakers respond to what has been heard. In this way, speaking is an integral part of listening. This integration between speaking and listening should also occur during activities in an oral communication class.

The above described chronology leads to the definition of oral communication I used in the present study. Oral communication skills include many aspects, linguistic and sociolinguistic competence as well as conversational skills. This is a two-way process of encoding and decoding messages between speakers and listeners involving interdependent speaking and listening skills. To communicate effectively speakers need to possess adequate vocabulary and syntax mastery as well as use appropriate pronunciation and intonation. They should also be thoughtful in optimizing the use of their sociolinguistic competence so that they can distinguish how to say what appropriately, to whom they speak, and when they speak. With the more central focus on the use of strategies, strategic competence is also included as an essential component of oral communication.

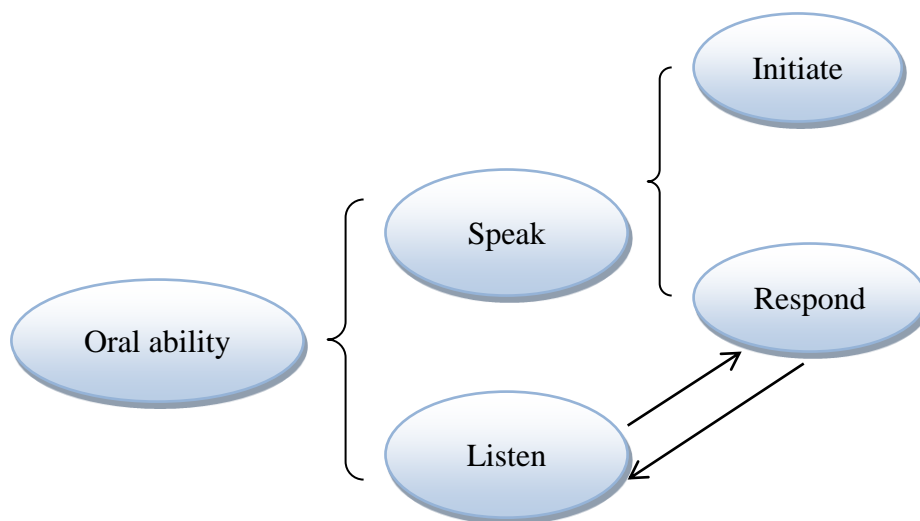


Figure 2.1 Interdependence between speaking and listening (Byrne, 1986, p. 10)

2.2 Spoken Versus Written Language

For better understanding of the characteristics of oral communication, it is necessary to identify the main features of spoken discourse as distinguished from

written discourse. Bygate (1987) claims two main features of spoken language make it different from written language. The two features are:

- a. ‘The words are being spoken as they are being decided and understood’

That the spoken words are produced as they are decided means that the speaker has limited time to plan and organize what he/she wants to express. Therefore, spoken sentences are usually more simple and shorter than written sentences with shorter phrases and simpler grammar (see also Luoma, 2004). Spoken language contains less dense packing of information with more general vocabulary items used (read also Brown & Yule, 1983)

That the spoken words are produced as they are being understood refers to a situation in which once the sentences are spoken, they are gone. This is different from written language in which readers can reread the sentences. With spoken language there is a possibility that listeners may misunderstand the utterances or request a repetition.

- b. ‘Speech is a reciprocal activity’

Interlocutors are normally able to contribute simultaneously to the discourse and to respond immediately to each other’s contributions (see also Bygate, 2001; Widdowson, 1978). Speakers need to be patient and make sure that communication is taking place. Because oral communication is less predictable than written interaction, speakers need to pay attention to their listeners and adapt their messages according to their listeners’ reaction.

During communication, listeners and speakers take turns. Speakers need to adjust to what the listeners know, and speakers need to notice new mutual knowledge they share with the listeners.

Speech is also seen as having special features that reflect the demands of face-to-face interaction and the real time synthesis of talk (Bygate, 2001; McCarthy, 1998; Widdowson, 1978). Usually speakers can see each other and they can refer to physical context or physical signals including their attention, intention, and attitude to the interaction. Thus, spoken language can tolerate implicit reference. Most speech situations are produced 'on line' in which speakers are supposed to decide and produce the spoken message without taking time to check it over or to correct it. Hatch (1992) summarizes spoken discourse as being more commonly contextualized, unplanned and informal than writing.

This section about the special features of spoken language as differentiated from written language provides an insight into the complexity foreign language learners encounter in conducting oral communication; in this way, problems encountered by the learners can be identified or traced. Specific features of spoken language, such as being a reciprocal activity, its demand for face-to-face interaction, its reference to physical context or physical signals, its demand for spontaneous responses, and its unplanned feature may act as potential problems encountered by the participants of the present study. The identification of the problems, or potential problems, can function as a base for the discussion of communication strategies, theories of which are discussed in more detail in another section in this chapter.

Discussion of the specific features of spoken language alone is not enough to identify learners' problems in conducting oral communication activities as well as the strategies they employ. Discussion of the process of spoken language production is also needed. This discussion is, therefore, presented in the following section.

2.3 Process of the Spoken Language Production

The discussion about the process of spoken language production in this section is needed to provide a base for discussion of communication strategies, which is done in detail later in this chapter. Communication strategies are closely related to, and dependent upon, the components and phases of spoken language production. This section discusses a number of theories of spoken language production processes, their commonalities, and the determination of the theory which is used as a theoretical instrument for data analysis in the present study. Some issues related to speech production process are also discussed.

Speaking is seen as an activity integrating distinct aspects of interpersonal and psycho-motor control (Bygate, 1998, p. 23). It is an act of interpersonal communication that involves the use of interpersonal skills as well as the activation of psycho-motor control. Regarding the process of spoken language production, Levelt (1989) proposes a speech production theory which include four phases of speech planning and production. There has been support for this theory. Other linguists who share a similar speech production model include Faerch and Kasper (1983), Garman (1990), and Garrett (1980).

Faerch and Kasper (1983) suggest that the general model of speech production consists of two phases, namely a planning phase and an execution phase. The planning phase comprises of *goal*, *planning process*, and *plan*. During this phase, the language users select rules and items they consider most appropriate to establish the plan. The planning process is the reflection of the predetermined goal, and the product of the planning process is a *plan* which controls the *execution phase*. An execution phase comprises of *plan*, *execution process*, and *action*. In this phase, neurological and physiological processes occur, and this includes the articulation of speech organs, the use of gestures, etc.

Faerch and Kasper's speech production process model can be summarized into three main components or phases, namely goal, planning process and execution process. It starts with the goal that determines the retrieval of the relevant linguistic system during the planning process. Included in this phase is the activation of lexical and grammatical systems. This is followed by the execution phase in which the articulatory process takes place. The execution phase should refer back to the plan. Finally, the process ends in the production of speech which needs to succeed in order to fulfil the pre-determined goal.

Garman (1990) identifies the components and levels of the sentence production process as consisting of ways from how message is acquired to how the message is linguistically communicated to the signal that represents the message. *Message* is acquired through two routes, namely *lexical* and *syntactical* routes. Each of these is organized hierarchically according to the *message* level and the *memory* level. Below this level is the *production* and *perception system* that mediates the

upper level hierarchies and the language signal. The production system refers to the articulatory system while the perception system refers to the auditory system.

With a similar understanding of the main processes of planning and production during the speech production process, Levelt's 1989 theory suggests more comprehensible phases involved in the process. This theory has been confirmed in its prominence in a number of studies (see, for example, Levelt, 2001; Levelt, Roelofs, & Meyer, 1999). Figure 2.4 illustrates the flow of the production process.

As shown in Figure 2.2, the theory involves four phases of speech production namely:

- a. Conceptualization, a phase at which speakers conceive an intention to talk, select the information to be conveyed, order the information for expression, keep track of what was said before, and so on. At this phase message generation is inevitably influenced by the speaker's declarative knowledge, in his/her long term memory, which covers his/her discourse model, situational knowledge, encyclopaedic knowledge, and so on. The product of this phase is the preverbal message. This conceptual structure will be accepted as input in the following phase, formulation.

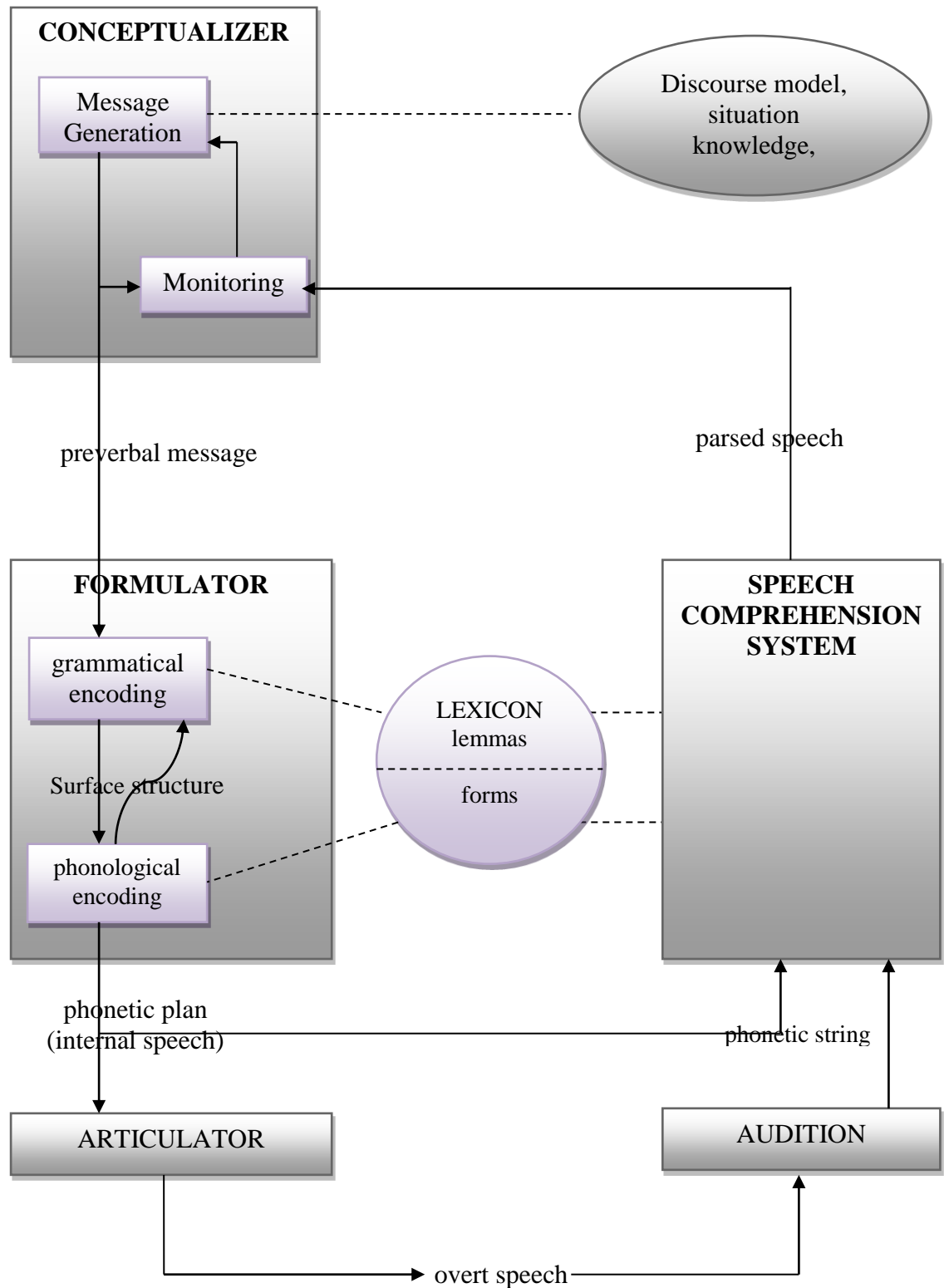


Figure 2.2 Levelt's Blueprint for the speaker (Levelt, 1989, p. 9). Boxes represent processing components; circle and ellipse represent knowledge stores.

- b. Formulation where speakers convey the selected information by formulating utterances into forms. The preverbal message, which is input into this phase as a conceptual structure, is translated into a linguistic structure. The translation consists of two steps, namely grammatical encoding and phonological encoding. The grammatical encoding process consists of a procedure for accessing lemmas, which is stored in the speaker's mental lexicon, and a procedure for syntactic building. The grammatical encoding produces a surface structure which will enter the phonological encoding. Then, the phonological encoding functions to retrieve or build a phonetic or articulatory plan for each lemma and for the utterance as a whole. The result of the phonological encoding is a phonetic or articulatory plan.
- c. Articulation at which stage formulated utterances are spoken or phonologically encoded through the activation and control of specific muscle groups of the articulatory system. The articulation phase produces overt speech.
- d. Self-monitoring

A speaker is his own listener who has access to both his overt and internal speech. He can listen to his own speech and can interpret his speech sounds as meaningful words or sentences. In this sense, the speaker is able to self-monitor his own speech. This phase involves an audition processing component with the processing taking place in the *speech-*

comprehension system. It is the speech-comprehension system that has access to all subcomponents of the speech production process. First, it has access to the lexicon memory of lemmas and forms when speakers recognize words and retrieve their meanings, producing an output of parsed speech as the representation of the input speech in terms of its phonological, morphological, syntactic, and semantic composition. Second, it also has access to internal speech and analyses the internal speech in the same way as it does overt speech. Therefore, in this sense, speakers can detect his/her difficulty before fully articulating the troublesome sentence; this is how self-correction occurs. Third, the *speech-comprehension system* has access to compare the meaning of what was said or internally prepared to what was intended as well as detecting errors of both with regards to meaning or linguistic well-formedness.

Among the three speech production processes described in this section, Levelt's theory seems to provide the most complete, comprehensible and detailed account. This is used as an instrument for data analysis in the present study. The decision to adopt Levelt's theory is also related to the detailed description of the *speech-comprehension system* that monitors the speech production process, which is closely linked to the use of oral communication strategies.

While Faerch and Kasper (1983) and Garman (1990) do not mention the simultaneity of the phases during the speech production process, Levelt (1989) believes that all four phases of the speech production process are engaged simultaneously with the activity of articulation slightly delayed. I suggest that the

phases of the speech production process occur as a system that may be in simultaneity or one after another. The process may also sometimes occur spontaneously within a very short period.

Depending on the communication goal and individual differences between speakers in the language learning development, it is necessary to put emphasis on certain phases or components of the speech production process. Moreover, speech production of second language learners may have different patterns from that of first language speakers. Levelt's speech production theory, as stated above, shows that the very first stage of speech planning and production process is the provision of concept or information to be conveyed. At this stage, having information ready for production or being familiar with and interested in the information to be conveyed is an advantage, especially for foreign language learners. Selinker and Douglas (1985) agree that learners' familiarity with the "discourse domain", which includes topic, interpersonal context, and discourse type, influences speech fluency. Speech on familiar topics and in congenial contexts is likely to be more fluent than speech in other contexts. The positive impact of speakers' content knowledge on speech production is demonstrated by Zuengler and Bent (1991) who found that speakers' content knowledge affected conversations between native and non-native speakers. It became clear that greater content knowledge facilitates more active conversational involvement.

Within the process of linguistic formulation during which speakers are in the process of selecting appropriate words and grammar, it is widely accepted that knowledge of vocabulary is the most essential for being able to communicate (read

for example, Kormos, 2006). Moreover, vocabulary knowledge is the first component of communicative competence (Gebhard, 2000; Nunan, 1999) without which communication is seldom successful (Rivers, 1981; Widdowson, 1978). From previous research conducted on communicative competence, Scarcella and Oxford (1992) come to the conclusion that, to a certain extent and in most EFL learners' circumstances, vocabulary may be more important for beginners than grammar. However, when learners gain proficiency in English, grammar accuracy may become more important. This finding is also confirmed by Hilton (2008) who explores the fundamental role played by lexical competence in second language spoken fluency. She claims that automatic access to appropriate language knowledge, especially lexical competence, is more useful for enhancement of spoken fluency than reliance on strategic training, such as compensatory strategies.

A speaker's fluency, accuracy and complexity of speech demand capacity, and there is likely to be a trade-off between these aspects (Skehan, 1998). These three aspects may not go together simultaneously; thus, it may be the case that learners' focus on fluency may result in lowered accuracy or complexity, and vice versa. The trade-off between the three performance indicators may determine how instructions are given in the class. In other words, the pattern of classroom instruction, as discussed further in Chapter 4, on Task-Based Learning, is determined by the objective of the learning. If the main goal of teaching the productive skill of speaking is oral fluency, defined as the ability to express intelligibly, reasonably and without undue hesitation, there are two levels of training that can be given to learners. First of these is "practice in the manipulation of the fixed elements of the language (principally the use of grammatical patterns and lexical items), and,

practice in the expression of personal meanings” (Byrne, 1986, p. 9). When fluency is given more priority than accuracy or complexity and as lexicon (meaning) comes before grammar, the priority of practice should be on lexical items followed by practice in grammatical patterns and the expression of personal meanings.

With consideration of the complexity of the spoken language production process and the involvement of several major components of oral communication skills, errors are inevitable.

2.4 Support for Oral Communication Development

With the complexity of specific features, components and processes involved in the production of spoken discourse, it is understood that EFL learners encounter problems in the development of oral communication skills. Nation (1990) mentions two possible reasons why learners may not be able to express what they want orally. First, they may not know adequate vocabulary. Second, the learners may know enough vocabulary but they do not know how to use the words productively in the spoken language. Goh (2007) claims that learners need to be offered support in order to reduce the cognitive load and to ease the pressure in performing a fluency-oriented task. This support includes:

a. Language Support

Learners need to be equipped with key vocabulary items prior to the oral task.

Equipping learners with these vocabulary items can be done before the task or

through earlier reading or writing tasks. When learners have lexical items ready to be used, they will have a better chance of effective communication.

b. Knowledge Support

In cases when learners are expected to discuss new and challenging themes or topics in fluency tasks, they need to be provided with background knowledge to ease the process of conceptualization. Some research (read, for example, Selinker & Douglas, 1985; Zuengler & Bent, 1991), as discussed in the previous section, reveals the importance of providing learners with content knowledge in order to improve their speaking fluency.

c. Strategy Support

Oral communication strategies are important for language learners for two reasons. First, these strategies can be used to compensate for a lack of vocabulary knowledge. For example, learners can paraphrase or explain what they mean in order to keep their turn in an interaction. Secondly, oral communication strategies can be used to negotiate meaning in situations where there is a temporary breakdown in communication.

When fluency focus is extended to developing accuracy, there should be an extension in the provision of learning support. Language support, then, does not only refer to lexicon; equipping learners with adequate grammatical knowledge needs to be included as well. The decision to place more emphasis on vocabulary first or on

grammar first depends on the learners' individual learning situation. Later on, further practice for enhancement of pronunciation should also be provided.

Closely related to discussion of the support learners need, the following section discusses the factors influencing the development of oral communication skills. This also concerns individual learner factors.

2.5 Factors Affecting the Development of Oral Communication Skills

With the main focus being on the development of oral communication skills, discussion of factors affecting the development of oral communication skills, as presented in this section, is necessary. This will help in analysing the related findings. Further, it is also related to the use and possible shifts in use of oral communication strategies as covered in the next section.

There are several factors affecting the development of adult EFL learners' oral communication. Shumin (2002) identifies four factors, namely age (read also, for example, Brown, 2007; Scarcella & Oxford, 1992; Singleton, 2001; Yule, 2010), aural medium, sociocultural (read also, for example, Brown, 2007; Savignon & Sysoyev, 2002), and affective factors (read also, for example, Brown, 2007; Oxford, 1990; Yule, 2010). Age is considered to be one of the most commonly cited determinant factors of success or failure in foreign language learning. Adult learners do not seem to have the same innate language endowment for acquiring fluency and naturalness in spoken language as children. Adults' speech is commonly less natural and less fluent than children's. Speakers play double roles both as speakers and

listeners. Speaking is interwoven with listening through which the rules of language are internalized. Loosely organized syntax, incomplete forms, false starts, and the use of fillers will hinder foreign language learners' comprehension, and this will definitely affect the development of speaking abilities. Regarding the sociocultural factors, it is common knowledge that, to speak a language, one must know how the language is used in social contexts. Every language is unique, having its own rules of usage that are bound to the culture of the native speakers. The interference of cultural norms may cause foreign language learners to encounter difficulties in choosing appropriate forms to be used in certain situations, and therefore, they may need to use sociocultural strategies in learning the language. In this way, sociocultural factors, including the use of sociocultural strategies, affect the development of adults' oral communication skills. Moreover, oral communication also includes the use of the non-verbal communication system which is part of the native speakers' cultural system. Finally, affective factors are considered the most influential in language learning success or failure (Oxford, 1990). Affective factors are the emotional side of human behaviour that may be juxtaposed to the cognitive side (Brown, 2007, p. 153). This involves feelings about both the learners themselves and about others with whom learners are in contact. Negative affective factors such as being stressed, uncomfortable, self-conscious or unmotivated can create a barrier to the development of language learning (Yule, 2010).

With no intention of ignoring the importance of all the factors affecting the development of oral communication skills, the following discussion focuses primarily on the last, namely the affective factors. These have been found to be

central to the success or failure of learners' oral communication skills in the present study.

Brown (2007) views affective factors from intrinsic and extrinsic aspects of affectivity. The intrinsic aspects are the personality factors within an individual that contribute to the success of his/her language learning. The extrinsic aspects are the sociocultural factors that emerge because learning another language brings the learner into contact with another culture. What are discussed further in this section are the affective factors.

While Oxford (1990) identifies affective factors as including emotions, self-esteem, empathy, anxiety, attitude, and motivation, Brown (2007) claims more varied aspects including self-esteem, self-efficacy, willingness to communicate, inhibition, risk-taking, anxiety, empathy, extroversion, and motivation. Brown's aspects are more detailed but share several commonalities with those of Oxford. For the purpose of further analysis and in the belief that some factors may be sub-factors, what is covered in this study includes self-esteem, risk-taking, anxiety, and motivation.

2.5.1 Self-esteem in oral communication development.

By self-esteem, we refer to the evaluation which an individual makes and customarily maintains with regard to themselves: it expresses an attitude of approval and disapproval, and it indicates the extent to which individuals believe themselves to be capable, significant, successful and worthy. In short, self-esteem is a personal judgment of worthiness that is expressed in the attitudes the individual holds towards himself. It is a subjective experience which the individual conveys to others by verbal reports and other overt expressive behaviour. (Coopersmith, 1967, pp. 4-5)

More simply put, self-esteem is a measure of how valuable we think we are (DeVito, 2009). Cast and Burke (2002) extend the concept of self-esteem to an outcome of self verification that occurs within groups in order to maintain both the individual and the group. This process increases the individual's worth-based and efficacy-based self-esteem. While the worth-based dimension refers to the degree to which individuals feel they are persons of value, the efficacy-based dimension refers to the degree by which people see themselves as capable and efficacious.

Verification of language learners' self-esteem can be gained through the learners' own experiences and from the group, which can be feedback from the teacher and friends while performing classroom activities. Andres (1999) terms the process of building and nurturing language learners' self-esteem as the "metamorphosis of butterflies" in order to highlight the importance of learners' self-esteem in language learning. Brown also (2007) claims that self-esteem probably is the most pervasive aspect of any human behaviour. No successful cognitive and affective activity, including the learning of a second/foreign language, can be done without some degree of self-esteem, a belief in the learners' own capacity to perform the activity successfully.

Several studies (Heyde, 1979; Lai, 1994; Seyhan, 2000) show self-esteem to be an important factor in foreign language acquisition. Lai (1994), who conducted her study with English language learners in secondary schools in Hong Kong, found that learners' confidence in participating in the classroom communication was influenced by their self-esteem, anxiety, and opportunities for classroom communication. There was a significant correlation between self-esteem and

learners' confidence level. Those who feared losing face by giving wrong answers would avoid participating in classroom communication.

In another study focusing on the relationship between self-esteem and oral production of a second language, Heyde (1979) found that all three levels of self-esteem - general self-esteem, situational self-esteem, and task self-esteem – correlated positively with oral production performance of American college students learning French. Poor speakers had more pauses than the good speakers; these longer pauses might be related to the request for approval and the release of tension. The high self-esteem group was also found to assume responsibility for initiating, continuing, and terminating the speech. They tended not to request help; nor did they hesitate to respond to questions. The low self-esteem students were found to be more dependent on the teacher for help in expressing themselves. Students of high self-esteem also tended to have a high risk personality, risking errors in using different grammar patterns and using a wider variety of vocabulary.

A more recent study by Seyhan (2000) is concerned with the impact of anxiety, self-esteem, and motivation on the oral communication of German and Japanese adult ESL students. Findings from this study confirmed findings from previous studies, that students with higher self-esteem were more willing to speak in English and were more able to handle their anxiety than those with lower self-esteem. The most common effect of low self-esteem was believing that other students were more capable of speaking English proficiently, feeling self-conscious about speaking English in class, and getting upset when corrected by the teacher or other students. This made students avoid talking with students of better proficiency.

They tended not to ask questions despite their not-understanding the learning material. They gave short answers, spoke too quietly, did not maintain eye contact with others and looked to others for confirmation after speaking. It was also found that German students had higher self-esteem than Japanese students, resulting in German students' greater courage to speak in English and as a result participating more actively in the lesson. In short, students with high level of self-esteem had little anxiety about oral communication, and, therefore, this resulted in better oral communication skills.

Discussion about self-esteem as mentioned above suggests the importance of self-esteem in the development of oral communication skills. Self-esteem is correlated positively with learners' confidence level. Learners with high self-esteem generally have high confidence level. This affects their risk taking in accomplishing oral tasks. Learners with high self-esteem tend to risk errors, and take responsibility to initiate, maintain and terminate conversation. Further, those with high self-esteem tend to participate more actively in the class, maintain eye contact during the conversation, and have more courage to communicate in the target language. Finally, high self-esteem leads to better oral communication skills. The opposite is true for those with low self-esteem.

This discussion about self-esteem is associated with the findings of the present study and discussed in more detail in Chapters 6 to 10. This includes how the individuals and group in the present study shaped their self-esteem through the language learning process in the classroom, how the participants of the present study saw their own worth-based and efficacy-based self-esteem, and how the participants'

belief in their own self-esteem was related to their oral communication skills development and achievement.

Very much related to the prominent role of self-esteem in language learning, the next section discusses risk-taking as another important affective factor in the development of oral communication skills.

2.5.2 Risk-taking.

Risk taking is defined as “a situation where an individual has to make a decision involving choice between alternatives of different desirability; the outcome of the choice is uncertain; there is a possibility of failure” (Beebe, 1983, p. 39). In the situation of second or foreign language learning, a learner has to take risks of being wrong, failing in exam, feelings of embarrassment when failing in conducting communication, and so forth. Therefore, it can be concluded that foreign language learning is one of the activities that include risk-taking.

Furthermore, language learners come into the classroom with their individual personality structure that may be influenced strongly by their culture and individual experiences (Findley, 1978). These learners also bring with them their individual security systems based on which learners react to the change stimuli represented by the learning of a foreign language. This change may, as well, present threats to language learners and, thus, creates feelings of insecurity. Learners react to the change of situation differently; some can easily adapt to the change while others may find it hard to adapt to the change. Encountering this situation, foreign language learners have to risk feeling insecure or even losing face when making errors.

Moreover, risks are inherent in all situations where the outcomes are not predictable (Findley, 1978), and the learning of a foreign language is an example of a situation with unpredictable outcomes.

Trust is regarded as a basic to encouraging risk taking behaviour (DeVito, 2009). This concept is extended to the idea that trust is related to the predictability of another's behaviour. It is easier to trust someone whose behaviour is predictable than someone whose behaviour cannot be predicted. In other words, it is easier to trust someone with whom we are familiar, someone whose responses and reactions to our behaviour we can predict. Within the language teaching and learning context, it is easier to trust teachers and friends with whom we are familiar. When trust is built, feelings of security are established; in this way, fewer risks are faced. This situation enhances the language learning process because learners have the feeling of being supported, and this encourages spontaneity in performing oral communication. Examples of this supportive situation are working in small groups and working with close friends or friends of similar levels of proficiency, as was mentioned by participants in the present study.

Working in groups is believed to encourage individuals taking greater risks than those taken when they work individually. Several studies found the positive effect of peer relationships in increasing learners' courage to take risks (Gardner & Steinberg, 2005; Kurihara, 2006). In their experimental study, Gardner and Steinberg found that, in some situations, individuals exhibited more risky behaviour or made riskier decision when they were with their peers than when they were by themselves. Kurihara (2006) also found that working in small groups allowed Japanese students

to deal with mistakes more easily and, therefore, they were more willing to lose face or take risks in English oral communication class.

Risk taking is considered to be one of the most important characteristics of successful second/foreign language learning (Brown, 2007; Gass & Selinker, 2008). Good language learners are willing to make guesses and try out the guess to check the accuracy (Rubin, 1975). Some research claims that risk-taking is a positive predictor of second language learners' active participation in the classroom (for example, Ely, 1986). In his study with students learning Spanish as a second language, Ely found a correlation between risk-taking tendencies and classroom participation, but the relationship with the final performance was relatively weak. This may suggest that risk-taking affects language learning in a more local manner in helping students accomplish tasks, rather than in longer term success. However, a study by Vann and Abraham (1990) about the use of learning strategies by unsuccessful language learners suggests the inclusion of situational variables and learners' individual characteristics in rendering some tasks more risky than others. Despite the substantial risks the participants took in performing the tasks, they were, still, unsuccessful language learners. However, this was not a longitudinal study by which the future success of learners who were high risk-takers could possibly be identified.

Regarding the level of risk-taking, it seems that successful language learners perceive oral communication as presenting a more moderate risk than less successful language learners who see it as either extremely high or paradoxically extremely low risk. When oral communication is seen as extremely high risk, less successful

learners are reluctant to participate, and when oral communication is regarded as extremely low risk, such learners make little attempt, resulting in poor quality interaction. Beebe (1983) recommends moderate risk-taking as the optimal behaviour in language learning. Within this condition, students strive for success, with not too much reliance on chance, and are realistic in appraisal of their own skills. It is admitted that willingness to appear foolish in order to communicate is one characteristic of successful language learning, but, still, learners' healthy self-esteem would not allow them to look very foolish in taking wild chances and, therefore, making more errors. Having too little courage to take risk also shows fewer efforts and this may take the conversation to a 'premature halt' (Scarcella & Oxford, 1992, p. 59). Thus, neither extremely high nor extremely low risk taking are characteristic of potential successful language learners.

In the present study, willingness to take risks was found to be one determinant or indicator of successful language learners in performing oral communication tasks. However, the involvement of situational variables and learners' individual characteristics also played a role in performing the tasks. Working in groups and trusting friends, which could be considered as ways to provide security, was found to support the participants taking risks.

2.5.3 Anxiety.

Anxiety is considered to be one of the most influential affective factors that may obstruct the learning process (Arnold, 1999) and may cause motivation to fall and attitudes to drift toward the negative (Scarcella & Oxford, 1992). Anxiety is

concerned with ‘negative feelings such as uneasiness, frustration, self-doubt, apprehension and tension or worry’ (Arnold, 1999, p. 8; Scovel, 1978, p. 134). Gass and Selinker (2008, p. 400) claim that anxiety has a ‘curvilinear effect’ on learners’ performance: low levels of anxiety help while high levels hurt. When learners have little concern about learning, they have little reason to do it well. However, too much concern about failure may also hinder success in learning.

In terms of its usefulness in learning, anxiety can be divided into two types, namely beneficial/facilitating anxiety and inhibitory/debilitating anxiety (Dörnyei, 2005; Scarcella & Oxford, 1992). Facilitating anxiety promotes learning the language; this occurs when it keeps learners alert and concerned with their learning. Debilitating anxiety hinders successful learning. With the belief that facilitating anxiety generally occurs within simple learning tasks and that language learning is complicated learning, facilitating anxiety rarely occurs in language learning. However, some studies (for example, Hewitt & Stephenson, 2011) suggest evidence of facilitating anxiety in moderately anxious language learners. Both facilitating and debilitating anxiety were found in the present study although more debilitating anxieties were found.

There are two main types of anxiety, namely state or situational anxiety and trait anxiety (Brown, 2007; Dörnyei, 2005; Scarcella & Oxford, 1992). While state anxiety is situational and arises as a response to certain situations or events, trait anxiety occurs as a permanent characteristic. Thus, within the scope of language learning, it is state anxiety which is generally found. Certainly, trait anxiety also plays its role as is mentioned by some participants in the current study.

Foreign language anxiety is specific and, to some extent, needs to be differentiated from general anxiety. Referring to a number of earlier studies (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989, 1991), Brown (2007) summarizes three components of foreign language anxiety, namely communication apprehension (CA), fear of negative social evaluation, and test anxiety. These components are considered researchable issues. First, CA arises from learners' inability to deliver their mature thoughts or ideas adequately. It is "an individual's level of fear or anxiety associated with either real or anticipated communication with another person or persons" (McCroskey, 1984, p. 13). Second, fear of negative social evaluation refers to a situation when learners need to make a positive social impression on others. Despite the generally accepted belief that errors are inevitable in language learning, errors can be the source of anxiety for some individuals due to the desire to make a positive social impression when speaking the target language (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989). Third, test anxiety is encountered over academic evaluation; it refers to a fear of failure in test. Horwitz et al.'s theory of the three components has been confirmed by MacIntyre and Gardner (1989) who argue that, to some extent, foreign language anxiety is different from general anxiety and that factor analysis suggests foreign language anxiety is a more general communicative anxiety.

The current study focuses on CA as this anxiety has been identified in a number of findings of the present study. Specifically, Horwitz et al. (1986) identifies CA as a type of shyness characterized by fear of communicating with people. Those who typically have problems in communicating messages in groups are more likely to experience difficulties in speaking a foreign language. However, McCroskey and

Beatty (1986) claim that CA needs to be distinguished from shyness. While CA is a subjective, affective experience, shyness is a behavioural tendency that may be caused by CA or other causes. Although CA and shyness are distinct constructs, they are presumed to be related (McCroskey, 2009); they are not isomorphic. Shyness may be presumed to result from a variety of causes, one of which is CA.

McCroskey (1984, pp. 15-19) divides CA into several types, namely “traitlike” CA, generalized-context CA, person-group CA, and situational CA. These types of CA are within a continuum but not with a discrete dichotomy. The continuum starts with “traitlike” CA which is viewed as a personality-type variable. It is a relatively enduring, personality-type orientation toward a given mode of communication across a wide variety of contexts. Varieties included in this type of CA are CA about oral communication, CA about writing, and CA about singing. Generally, after an individual reaches adulthood, his/her trait personality is highly resistant to change. However, the possibility of trait personality change after adulthood is still open. The second point in the continuum is generalized-context CA which represents orientations toward communication within generalizable contexts. It is considered a relatively enduring, personality-type of orientation toward communication in a given type of context. Varieties included in this type of CA are CA about public speaking, CA about speaking in meetings or classes, CA about speaking in small group discussions, and CA about speaking in dyadic interactions. The third point within the continuum is person-group CA, a type of CA which represents the reactions of an individual to communicating with a given individual or group of individuals across time. It is viewed as a relatively enduring orientation toward communication with a given person or group of people. Within this type of

CA, some individuals or groups cause a person to be apprehensive. For some people, more apprehension may be stimulated by known person or people while, for others, more apprehension may be stimulated by unfamiliar individuals or people. The end point of the continuum is situational CA which represents the reactions of an individual to communicating with a given individual or group of individual at a given time. This is the most state-like CA which is considered as a transitory orientation toward communication with a given person or a group of people.

CA, which from the beginning was more associated with oral communication (McCroskey, 1970), is also believed to be related to the use of communication strategies. A study by Nani and Agatha (2004) found that Indonesian students with high CA employed a high use of negative communication strategies due to their high level of reluctance to speak in English, nervousness, and fear of making mistakes.

Studies suggest that foreign language anxiety is highly correlated with students' performance, and foreign language anxiety has been shown to be a negative predictor of students' performance and achievement (for example, Aida, 1994; Awan, Azher, Anwar, & Naz, 2010; Liu & Huang, 2011), especially students' oral communication skills (Hewitt & Stephenson, 2011; Steinberg & Horwitz, 1986; Woodrow, 2006). Students with high foreign language anxiety tend to have poorer language performance, especially their oral communication performance, and the opposite applies for students with low foreign language anxiety levels. However, an interview study by Gregersen and Horwitz (2002) primarily aimed to clarify the relationship between foreign language anxiety and perfectionism, which was pre-assumed to be an indicator for foreign language anxiety, explored the relationship

between foreign language anxiety and perfectionism. Anxious learners reported higher standards for their English performance, greater worry over the opinions of others, and higher level of concern over their errors. The opposite occurred for the non-anxious students. This study, furthermore, suggested that foreign language anxiety and language proficiency were not highly related. However, the study supports the claim that foreign language anxiety is negatively related to language performance; whether the correlation is high or low is still open and may depend on the contexts and learners' individual situations.

Reducing learners' debilitating foreign language anxiety can enhance the development of language learning. Youngblood (1991) summarizes some ways of reducing anxiety including those associated with instructor-learner interactions and those associated with classroom procedures. Some of the ways to reduce anxiety related to instructor-learner interactions are a relaxed and positive error-correction attitude on the part of the teacher (read also, Young, 1990). When teachers are more like a friend in helping students to learn and less like an authority figure, this creates a comfortable classroom learning situation, which reduces learners' anxiety. Furthermore, students do not feel threatened when the teacher's manner of correction is not harsh and when the teachers do not overreact to mistakes or errors. Teachers should accept that errors naturally occur in language learning and not overreact. Young also suggests some ways to reduce anxiety related to classroom procedures; these include providing more exposure to real use of foreign language (read also, Steinberg & Horwitz, 1986), assigning students to work in small groups or in pairs (as also found in a study by Mustapha, Ismail, Singh, & Elias, 2010), tailoring

activities to learners' affective needs, and making the message so interesting that students forget that it is in another language.

2.5.4 Motivation.

Among the affective factors influencing the development of foreign language learning, motivation is considered to play a “crucially important” role (Arnold, 1999, p. 13) and the most “central” and “pervasive” factor to be researched (Brown, 2007, p. 168). Motivation is also viewed as a social-psychological factor that is often regarded as responsible for success in second language learning (Gass & Selinker, 2008).

Within the context of language learning, motivation has been defined in a number of different ways though they share similar concepts. Gardner (1985, p. 50) believes that motivation consists of four aspects, namely a goal, effortful behaviour, a desire to attain the goal and favourable attitudes toward the activity in question. In a more detailed description, Scarcella and Oxford (1992) define motivation as consisting of three behavioural characteristics and one internal-attitudinal structure. The three behavioural factors are decision, persistence, and activity level. For the language learning to occur, “motivated” learners decide to choose, pay attention to, and engage in one activity. They are persistent over an extended period of time and return to their work after interruption. They are also expected to maintain a high activity level. Regarding the internal-attitudinal structure of motivation, Saville-Troike (2006) concluded that there are several factors including interest, relevance, expectancy, and outcomes. Motivated learners have interests or desires related to the

subject, and this is shown in their attitude, experience, and background knowledge. They also have the perception that learning a foreign language is relevant to fulfilling their needs. Expectancy of likely success or failure comes after. Finally, these learners can experience the achievement of outcomes including extrinsic and intrinsic rewards. Therefore, in the light of the definition of motivation in the present study, a high level of motivation should display the characteristics of the three behavioural factors and one internal-attitudinal structure of motivation with each of these factors and structure within a continuum. These behavioural and internal factors should be present; if any of these factors is missing, learners' overall motivation is weakened.

With regard to the study of language learning, motivation is classified into instrumental and integrative motivation (as described by language learning experts, for example: Brown, 2007; Gass & Selinker, 2008; Scarcella & Oxford, 1992; Yule, 2010). Learners with integrative motivation are those who learn a language for social purposes, for example, to be able to integrate or to participate in the social life of a community using the language. Learners have instrumental motivation when they want to learn the language in order to achieve some goal of practical values such as to be able to read academic textbooks, to complete a study, or to increase occupational opportunities, or to enhance prestige.

Integrative motivation plays a prominent role in determining learners' success in learning a language. With no intention to disregard the importance of instrumental factors, Gardner (2001) claims that there is no reason to argue that motivation may

be driven only by integrative factors. R. C. Gardner (2001) developed a model showing the role of aptitude and motivation in second language learning (Figure 2.3.)

As shown in Gardner's model, both *integrativeness* and *attitudes* toward the *learning situation* are correlated with each other and influence *motivation* to learn a second language. What is meant by integrativeness is learners' genuine interest in learning a second language in order to get closer to the other language community. The variable of attitudes toward the learning situation refers to attitudes toward any aspect of the situation where the language is learned. For example, within the school contexts, it may include attitudes toward the teacher, the course, learners' classmates, the course materials, and so forth. Together, integrativeness and attitudes toward the learning situation influence motivation. Within this socio-educational model, motivation is the driving force in any situation, and it consists of effort, desire, and positive affect. Motivated learners expend efforts to learn the language, have the willingness to achieve the goal, and enjoy the task of learning the language. The motivation influenced by integrativeness and attitudes toward the learning situation form integrative motivation. *Other Support* that also influences motivation includes *instrumental motivation*, possessed by learners who want to learn a language for practical reasons other than social reasons. Motivation and *language aptitude* influence *language achievement*. There are also other factors that influence language achievement, including anxiety, self-confidence, language learning strategies, and so forth.

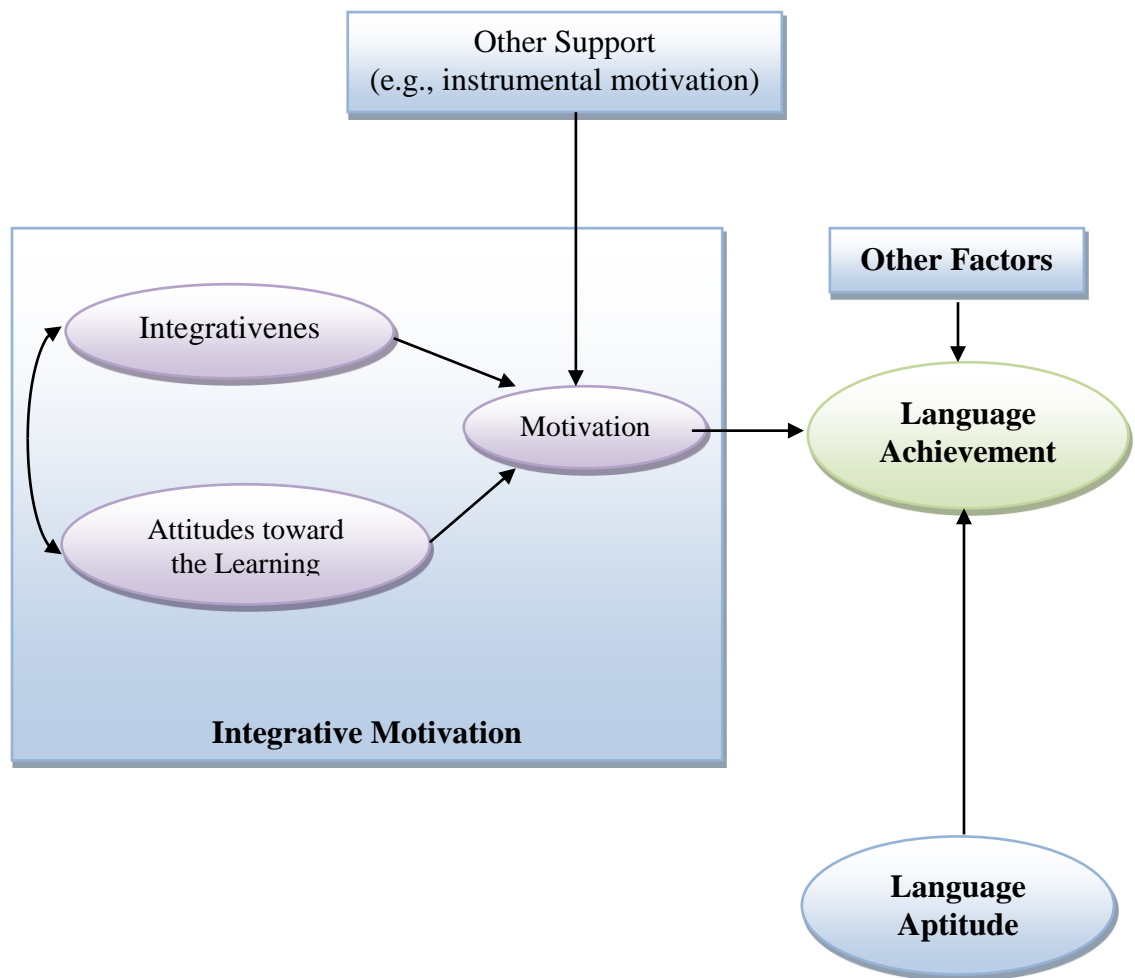


Figure 2.3 Basic model of the role of aptitude and motivation in second language learning (Gardner, 2001, p. 5)

Assuming that motivation in learning a foreign language is within a process-oriented conception, Dornyei (2005) concludes that motivation changes over time. There are three phases of motivation presented as “preactional” stage, “actional” stage, and “postactional” stage. During the “preactional” stage, motivation is generated. It is also described as *choice motivation* because the generated motivation is transformed into the selection of the goal or task that the individual will pursue. During the actional stage, the generated motivation is actively maintained and protected. Also referred to as *executive motivation*, this type of motivation includes

when learners are exposed to some distracting influences such as anxiety about the task or a physical condition that makes the task completion difficult. Finally, the postactional stage is the phase when the action of generating motivation is completed. Motivation at this stage is also referred to as “motivational retrospection” which concerns the way learners engage in retrospective evaluation of what has been experienced and determines what activities they will be motivated to pursue in the future.

Despite the advantages in using this concept as the starting point to understand motivational evolution, there are shortcomings in the division of actional motivation phases. First, in reality there are no clear-cut boundaries between the stages. It is not clear where the learning action starts. Secondly, the actional process does not occur independently without interference from other ongoing activities in which the learner is engaged. Learners are usually involved in a number of simultaneous action processes. For example, new action may be started before the success of the previous action is completely evaluated. Moreover, there are factors other than academic issues, for example social factors, that may determine learners’ success. These shortcomings are considered in analysis of data in the present study.

It is worth noting that those who experience some success in foreign language communication are among the most motivated to learn (Yule, 2010). There have been a number of studies showing the highly positive correlation between motivation and language learning achievement (for example, Bernaus & Gardner, 2008; Liu & Huang, 2011; Midraj, Midraj, O'Neill, & Sellami, 2008; Seyhan, 2000; Wang, 2010). A study by Seyhan (2000) indicates the positive impact of motivational orientation

on German and Japanese ESL students' oral communication. Integrative motivation led to better oral communication than instrumental motivation. Seyhan also found that integratively motivated students were less afraid of making mistakes, more relaxed, and less concerned about being laughed at than the instrumentally motivated students. To conclude, students' willingness to learn may affect how they treat making mistakes. As identified by some participants in the present study, higher motivation may result in higher willingness to take risks in making mistakes. Indeed, one of the prominent characteristics of a good language learner is the ability to make intelligent guesses (Rubin & Thompson, 1982), including willingness to risk making mistakes and trying to communicate in the foreign language.

"The degree of motivation is the most powerful influence on how and when students use language learning strategies" (Scarcella & Oxford, 1992, p. 52). Several studies (for example, Ghavamnia, Kassaian, & Dabaghi, 2011; Mochizuki, 1999) also reveal the influence of learners' motivation on their use of language learning strategies. In their study with EFL learners in Iran, Ghavamnia et. al. (2011) found that more motivated and more proficient students used strategies more frequently. Mochizuki's (1999) study of the use of language learning strategies by Japanese EFL university students shows the positive impact of students' high motivation on the use of the strategies. Positive correlation between learning strategies and motivation has also been identified by some respondents in the present study.

2.6 Concluding Remark

This chapter has provided an extensive review of how oral communication skills are described in the teaching of English as a foreign language. The chronological history of how oral communication skills are defined has led to the operational definition of oral communication skills used in this study. Oral communication skills are a two-way process of encoding and decoding messages between speakers and listeners involving interdependent speaking and listening skills. These involve aspects of linguistic and sociolinguistic competences, conversational skills, and strategic competence. Review of the process of the production of oral communication shows the complexity of oral communication. Therefore, providing support for the development of oral communication skills is essential. This support includes language, knowledge, and strategy aspects, one reason why this study focuses on communication strategies. Review of the factors affecting the development of oral communication skills sheds light on the analysis and interpretation of the results of the present study. For reasons of scope limitation, only affective factors have been reviewed. Understanding the concept of oral communication skills, the processes involved in the production, the affective influential factors and the importance of strategy support for the development of oral communication skills of foreign language learners of English is the core message of this chapter.

The next chapter discusses oral communication strategies as another main concern of the present study.

CHAPTER 3

ORAL COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES

This chapter reviews underlying theories related to oral communication strategies. There are three sections including communication strategies, debates on communication strategies versus learning strategies, and learning strategies. I start the chapter with a review of the conceptualization of communication strategies from different perspectives including presentation of the taxonomy of communication strategies offered by each perspective. This leads to the approach as well as the operational definition of oral communication strategies used in the present study. Previous research related to communication strategies is also reviewed. Discussion of the debate concerning the differences between communication strategies and language learning strategies follows, ending with the position of the current research. I also cover factors affecting the use of oral communication strategies. The final section of this chapter provides a review of language learning strategies including the conceptualisation, taxonomy, and previous research related to language learning strategies.

3.1 Oral Communication Strategies

This section consists of the theoretical background regarding communication strategies including definition of the notion, classification, factors affecting communication strategies, and some previous research concerning communication strategies.

Strategies of communication were first described by Selinker (1972) when he attempted to identify five processes concerning language learners' errors within their interlanguage performance. Selinker believed that communication strategies occurred as a response when second/foreign language learners encountered problems during their communication with native speakers of the target language. Communication strategies are understood as a means to close the gap between linguistic competence and communicative competence, the gap between what learners are capable of and what the learners intend to express (Bialystok & Frohlich, 1980).

Studies of communication strategies have resulted in different definitions of the notion of communication strategies but with considerable overlap. These differences are due to different approaches applied to conceptualize the notion. With different approaches used to define the term, taxonomies of communication strategies are also varied. However, in general, these classifications refer to the same root with the same strategy labelled using different terminology by different authors. Thus, reviewed below is the presentation of approaches together with the taxonomies drawn.

3.1.1 Traditional approach.

Within the 'traditional approach' (Dornyei & Scott, 1997), Tarone (1977) stated that "conscious communication strategies are used by an individual to overcome the crisis which occurs when language structures are inadequate to convey individual's thought" (p. 195). Communication strategies were employed consciously in order to solve communication problems that may be due to

inadequacy of language knowledge on the part of the language learners. These communication problems occur during the process of conveying a meaning, and it seems that the focus of the use of communication strategies is for production purposes. Conscious communication strategies occur within speakers' native language and within learners' interlanguage.

The typology of conscious communication strategies Tarone proposed consists of five main strategies namely *avoidance*, *paraphrase*, *conscious transfer*, *appeal for assistance*, and *mime*. Within avoidance strategy, there are two types, namely *topic avoidance* and *message abandonment*. Topic avoidance occurs when the learner does not talk about the concepts for which he/she does not know the vocabulary. Message abandonment occurs when learners stop talking about a certain concept because he/she is unable to continue; instead, he/she begins a new sentence. Paraphrase strategy consists of three types namely *approximation*, *word coinage*, and *circumlocution*. Tarone (1977) defines paraphrase strategy as “the rewording of the message in an alternate, acceptable target language construction, in situations where appropriate form or construction is not known or not yet stable” (p. 198).

Approximation is used when learners use a single vocabulary item or structure improperly, but it shares adequate semantic features with the desired item. The second strategy of paraphrase, which is word coinage, occurs when learners make up a new word in order to communicate the desired message. Circumlocution strategy is a “wordly extended process” learners use to describe certain objects when they are not sure of the correct term. Conscious transfer strategy includes two types of strategies, namely *literal translation* and *language switch*. Literal translation occurs when learners translate from native language word by word. Language switch is used

when learners simply use the native language without bothering to translate into the target language. The strategy of appeal for assistance occurs when the learner ask for the correct term, either to the interlocutor or to the dictionary. Finally, mime strategy refers to the use of non-verbal communication strategies by the foreign language learners.

Tarone's traditional taxonomies of communication strategies shed some light on the development of discussion and studies related to communication strategies. These taxonomies have been the base for further models of communication strategies taxonomies.

3.1.2 Interactional approach.

Under the interactional framework, Tarone, Cohen, and Dumas (1983) define communication strategy as “a systematic attempt by the learner to express or decode meaning in the target language, in situations where the appropriate systematic target language rules have not been formed” (p.5). This definition shows that communication strategies deal not only with the production (express) but also with the receptive process (decode) of the target language learning. Communication strategies occur in communication situations when there are difficulties or learners' deficiencies in the target language rules. It is not clear whether communication strategies are applied only when language learners are communicating with native speakers or not. Thus, it can be assumed that communication strategies may occur between two or more second/foreign language learners or between one language learner and a native speaker.

The above definition of communication strategy is confirmed and broadened in another of Tarone's articles, claiming that communication strategy is "a mutual attempt of two interlocutors to agree on a meaning in situations where requisite meaning structures do not seem to be shared. (Meaning structures include both linguistic and sociolinguistic)" (1980, p. 419; 1983, p. 65). She no longer used the term 'systematic attempt' because she believed this was not sufficiently clear. By this new definition, communication strategies were viewed as attempts to bridge a linguistic knowledge gap between two interlocutors. Regarding consciousness in communication strategies, Tarone now considered it difficult to measure the level of learners' consciousness while she also admitted that consciousness is not an 'on-off' matter (Tarone et al., 1983, p. 63). Three criteria are to be met for a communication strategy to occur. First, a speaker should have the desire to communicate a meaning. Communication strategies occur primarily "to clarify intended meaning, not simply to correct linguistic form" (Tarone, 1980, p. 424). Second, the speaker considers his/her linguistic or sociolinguistic knowledge is not available or adequate to communicate the meaning. Third, in implementing the communication strategies, the speaker may choose to avoid the conversation, not attempt to communicate the meaning, or to attempt alternate means to communicate the meaning. Attempts to find alternatives stop when the speaker sees it is clear that there is a shared meaning. Regarding the issue of whether communication strategy occurs in one's native language or as part of interlanguage, Tarone stresses that the main criteria is that communication strategy is used to negotiate meaning when meaning is not shared by the interlocutors. Hence, communication strategies may occur between native

speakers, between language learners and native speakers, or between language learners.

Corder (1983, p. 16) defines communication strategy as “a systematic technique employed by a speaker to express his meaning when faced with some difficulty”. By “difficulty”, Corder refers to the speaker’s inadequate command of the language being used in the communication. Corder’s definition of communication strategies follows that of Tarone, and he uses this terminology to further classify types of communication strategies. This taxonomy is summarized in Tarone’s article in 1981 as presented in Table 3.1., and this taxonomy remains the same as the previous.

Table 3.1.

Tarone’s (1981, p. 286) Taxonomy of Communication Strategies

PARAPHRASE

- | | |
|-------------------|---|
| a. Approximation | Use of a single target language vocabulary item or structure, which the learner knows is not correct, but which shares enough semantic features in common with the desired item to satisfy the speaker
Eg. <i>pipe</i> for <i>waterpipe</i> |
| b. Word Coinage | The learner makes up a new word in order to communicate a desired concept
Eg. <i>airball</i> for <i>balloon</i> |
| c. Circumlocution | The learner describes the characteristics or elements of the object or action instead of using the appropriate target language (TL) item or structure
Eg. when referring to a <i>waterpipe</i> , a learner said, “She is, uh, smoking something. I don’t know what’s its name. That’s, uh, Persian, and we use in Turkey, a lot of.” |
-

BORROWING

- | | |
|------------------------|---|
| a. Literal Translation | The learner translates word for word from the native language
Eg. He invites him to drink,” for “They toast one another” |
| b. Language Switch | The learner uses the native language (NL) term without bothering to translate.
Eg. <i>balon</i> for <i>balloon</i> |

APPEAL FOR ASSISTANCE	The learner asks for the correct term Eg. “What is this? What called?”
-----------------------	---

MIME	The learner uses nonverbal strategies in place of a lexical item or action Eg. clapping one’s hands to illustrate applause
------	---

AVOIDANCE

- | | |
|------------------------|---|
| a. Topic Avoidance | The learner simply tries not to talk about concepts for which the TL item or structure is not known |
| b. Message Abandonment | The learner begins to talk about a concept but is unable to continue and stops in the middle |
-

Canale (1983) offered the broadest extension of the concept of communication strategy within the interactional approach. He proposed that communication strategies should involve not only attempts to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to insufficiency in one or more areas of communicative competence but also to “enhance the effectiveness of communication” (p. 11). An example for the effectiveness of communication is the use of slow and soft speech for rhetorical effect. Canale believes that communication strategy is not limited to resolving grammatical problems; it also requires learners to handle sociolinguistic and discourse problems. Sociolinguistic strategies are used to

address strangers when speakers or learners are unsure of their social status.

Discourse strategies are used to achieve coherence in a text when speakers or learners are not sure of the cohesion devices used. Examples of how to manage discourse problems, as a part of communication enhancement strategy, are how to interrupt someone, how to hold the floor, or how to close a conversation (Dornyei & Scott, 1997). However, Canale's communication enhancement strategy has not been fully accepted as a part of communication strategies and has been subject to debate.

Some years later, Dornyei (1995) suggested an extended interactional definition of communication strategies as including "stalling strategies", for example, the use of lexicalized pause-fillers and hesitation gambits, in the taxonomy of communication strategies. He challenged Tarone who considered the use of pause or fillers as one part of production strategies, rather than communication strategies. Dornyei argued that communication problems faced by language learners may arise from insufficient time to communicate a meaning. In this sense, stalling strategies are used to help speakers gain time to think and to keep the communication channel open, and this is considered to be a problem solving strategy in communication. Thus, the concept of communication strategies is extended into "every potentially intentional attempt to cope with any language-related problem of which the speaker is aware during the course of communication" (Dornyei & Scott, 1997, p. 179).

Despite some success in defining and categorizing communication strategies within the interactional perspective, there has been criticism of this approach, especially by those favouring a psycholinguistic perspective. Critics have pointed not only to the definition but also to the taxonomies of communication strategies.

3.1.3 Psycholinguistic approach.

Criticism by experts in psycholinguistic perspectives has argued that communication strategies are in fact concerned with process-oriented matter, rather than product-oriented matter, meaning that the taxonomies should take into account the role of task, context, and the representation of referent in the strategy (for example, Bialystok & Kellerman, 1987). Within this perspective, communication strategies are located within cognitive structures. The focus is more on the activation of the cognitive processes of language learners, rather than the interactional process between the learners or the speakers and the interlocutors. Communication strategies should be viewed beyond the interactional perspective. Faerch and Kasper (1984; 1983), Bialystok (1983, 1990), Bialystok and Kellerman (1987), Poulisse (1987, 1994), and Poulisse, Bongaerts, and Kellerman (1984) are among those who have conceptualized communication strategies from a psycholinguistic perspective.

3.1.3.1 Faerch and Kasper.

Faerch and Kasper (1984; 1983) define communication strategies as “potentially conscious plans for solving what to an individual presents itself as a problem in reaching a particular communicative goal” (p. 47; p. 36). The term “an individual” is chosen instead of “the learner” to imply that communication strategies may apply to native speakers as well. However, in this study, communication strategies are discussed as related to second or foreign language learners. By this definition, there are two main criteria for communication strategies namely *problem-orientedness* and *potential consciousness*. These two key terms are discussed below.

Related to the language speech production process proposed by Faerch and Kasper (1983) discussed in Chapter 2 of this study (please refer to section 2.3 of this thesis), problems may occur during the planning phase or the execution phase. During the planning phase, an individual may experience problems in constructing a plan; these problems may occur either because of linguistic knowledge that the learner feels to be insufficient or because the individual may predict that he/she will experience problems while executing the plan. This type of problem is one generally referred to in discussion of communication strategies. However, what Faerch and Kasper refer to as problem-orientedness also includes problems encountered during the execution phase. During the execution phase, when individuals attempt to execute the plan, problems encountered are generally those dealing with fluency or correctness. Problems within this phase have to do with retrieving the items or rules which are contained in the plan. If the plan necessitates realization of non-automatized rules, this may lead to reduced fluency in production. Some language learners may regard this as problematic, and, therefore, try to avoid the problem by changing the plan. In a different case, if the plan consists of hypothetical rules or items, the execution of the plan may result in less-correctness. Again if the learners find it problematic, they may also change the plan.

Regarding potential consciousness, Faerch and Kasper (1984) argue that consciousness is not a permanent psychological state, and its presence relies on factors such as individual and situational variables as well as the linguistic material and the psychological procedures. Hence, for instance, learners who experience second language teaching may develop a higher metalingual awareness than those who acquire the language outside a formal program. Regarding the linguistic

material, lexical items are typically selected more consciously than syntactic and morphological rules. In other words, consciousness is not a matter of “on-off”; instead, it is within a continuum of levelling. These considerations shed light on the choice of the term “potential consciousness”.

In accessing their model of speech production (see Figure 2.2), Faerch and Kasper (1983) proposed a taxonomy of communication strategies which was first broadly based on two fundamentally different ways in which learners might behave when they encounter problems in communication. Learners can either solve the problems by adopting *avoidance behaviour*, which is trying to escape from the problem by changing the communicative goal, or by *achievement behaviour*, which is an attempt to handle the problem by developing an alternative. With these two distinctive approaches, there are two major strategies namely *reduction strategies* which are governed by avoidance behaviour and *achievement strategies* which are formed by achievement behaviour. In using reduction strategies, learners make attempts to change the communicative goal. In choosing achievement strategies, learners try to develop an alternative plan without changing the communicative goal.

Another type of strategy is believed to occur during the planning phase only. This strategy is chosen because of insufficient linguistic resources although learners want to achieve correctness or fluency in the production of the language. This type of strategy is also named reduction strategy. To distinguish this strategy from the other reduction strategy, the term *formal reduction strategies* is coined while the other type of strategy is named *functional reduction strategies*. For clearer understanding of the taxonomy, Table 3.2 is presented.

Table 3.2.

Faerch and Kasper's (1983, pp. 52-53) Taxonomy of Communication Strategies

1. Formal reduction strategies: Learner communicates by means of a 'reduced' system, in order to avoid producing non-fluent or incorrect utterances by realizing insufficiently automatized or hypothetical rules/items	Subtypes: a. Phonological b. Morphological c. Syntactic d. lexical
2. Functional reduction strategies: Learner reduces his communication goal in order to avoid a problem	Subtypes: a. Actional reduction b. Modal reduction c. Reduction of the propositional content: a. Topic avoidance b. Message abandonment c. Meaning replacement
3. Achievement strategies: Learner attempts to solve communicative problem by expanding his communicative resources	Subtypes: a. Compensatory strategies: i. Code switching ii. Interlingual transfer iii. Inter-/intralingual transfer iv. Interlanguage based strategies: • Generalization • Paraphrase • Word coinage • Restructuring v. Cooperative strategies vi. Non-linguistic strategies b. Retrieval strategies

Compensatory strategies are achievement strategies "aimed at solving problems in the planning phase due to insufficient linguistic resources" (Faerch & Kasper, 1983, p. 46). It includes *code switching*, *interlingual transfer*, *inter-/intralingual transfer*, *interlanguage based strategies*, *cooperative strategies*, and

non-linguistic strategies. While in code switching learners switch from L2 to either L1 or another foreign language and ignore the interlanguage code, in interlingual transfer learners use a combination of linguistic features from the interlanguage and L1 or other language different from L2. Inter-/intralingual transfer is used when learners consider the L2 formally similar to the L1. Interlanguage based strategies are used for various possibilities related to learners' interlanguage system and consist of four strategies. Generalization is used to solve problems in the planning phase by filling the gaps in the plans with interlanguage items which are not normally used in such contexts. By using a paraphrase strategy, learners solve problems in the planning phase by filling the gap in the plan with a construction which is well-formed according to learners' interlanguage system. This can be in the form of *description, exemplification, or circumlocution*. In a word-coinage strategy, learners make a creative construction of a new interlanguage word. Restructuring strategy is used when learners realize that they cannot complete a certain plan, and, therefore, try to develop an alternative plan that enables them to communicate the intended message. In using cooperative strategies, learners try to signal the interlocutors that they need assistance. Finally, learners use non-linguistic strategies when they resort to strategies such as mime, gesture and sound imitation.

While executing a plan, learners may experience problems in retrieving certain interlanguage items. This can be solved through adopting achievement strategies without reducing their communication goal. They may use strategies of *waiting for the term to appear, appealing to formal similarity, retrieval via semantic fields, searching via other languages, retrieval from learning situations, or sensory procedures*.

Faerch and Kasper's definitions and taxonomies of communication strategies have been largely accepted as the preferred model, especially by those favouring a psycholinguistic perspective. These detailed taxonomies are often referred to, identified, reflected, and fitted to other taxonomies developed by other experts. The terms "reduction", "compensatory" or "achievement" strategies, for example, have been, to date, used in many studies of communication strategies. However, criticism was also addressed regarding both the definition and the taxonomy.

3.1.3.2 Bialystok et al.

Bialystok (1983) defines communication strategies as "all attempts to manipulate a limited linguistic system in order to promote communication" (p. 102). This definition is broader but of more limited scope compared to that of Faerch and Kasper. On the one hand, Bialystok covered all attempts to reach a communicative goal, whether this goal presents learners with difficulties or not. On the other hand, she also restricted problems to those concerning limited linguistic systems. Some years later, Bialystok and Kellerman (1987) challenged the consciousness of communication strategies, the restriction of examination only to the speaker, and the limitation of communication strategies applied only by second language learners. They argued that the criterion of consciousness may prevent attributing strategic behaviour of, for example, children who lack metacognitive skills required for conscious inspection. Communication strategies examination should allow for the interaction between speaker and listener, rather than the speaker only. Communication strategies examination should be applied not only to language

learners but also to native speakers. Thus, at this point, they proposed a working definition of communication strategies as:

Strategies are the processes used where there is some choice among a number of available or competing processes that can be recruited in a situation. They are most apparent when these processes require conscious attention but consciousness is not criterial. Strategies may be accessible to introspection. Strategies are distinguished as a special subset of processes because they are applied in an ad hoc manner when a problem has been encountered. (Bialystok & Kellerman, 1987, p. 168)

In a more detailed description, Bialystok (1990) adds one criterion to Faerch and Kasper's criteria of communication strategies, which is *intentionality*, making three criteria namely *problematicity*, *consciousness*, and *intentionality*. By intentionality, Bialystok (1990) refers to "the learners' control over a repertoire of strategies so that particular ones may be selected from a range of options and deliberately applied to achieve certain effects" (p. 5). It is assumed that the learner has control over the strategy being selected and that the choice is responsive to the perceived problem. This also implies that, with the communication strategies being intentional, there should be systematic correlations between the use of certain strategies and specific conditions of the communicative situation. One strategy is systematically chosen depending on the learners' level of proficiency, the nature of the concept being communicated, the conditions where communication is taking place, and so forth. However, there has been limited research providing a strong basis for the issue of systematic selection. Accordingly, intentionality as one criterion of communication strategies remains questionable.

With the above-mentioned definition and criteria of communication strategies, taxonomies of communication strategies should meet the criteria of *parsimony*, *generalizability*, and *psychological plausibility* (Bialystok & Kellerman, 1987; 1997). Taxonomies should be as discrete as possible in classifying the data. However, this discrete classification should be equally applicable to all speakers, including native speakers and language learners, irrespective of their language proficiency level. Communication strategies taxonomies should be apparently valid; they should be informed by language processing, cognition, and problem-solving behaviour. Therefore, Bialystok and Kellerman (1987) proposed a taxonomy of compensatory strategies as consisting of only two broad categories namely *linguistic* and *conceptual* strategies (read also Bialystok, 1990). Linguistic strategies are defined as the use of linguistic features and structures from the target language with or without modification of those forms. Conceptual strategies are used when there is manipulation of the intended message. This category comprises two strategies namely *holistic* and *analytic* strategies. Holistic strategies are employed when speakers name certain concepts with a similar or reminiscent referent. This strategy is similar to "generalization" or "exemplification". Analytic strategies are used when speakers select critical properties of the referent and expect that the listener will correctly assemble those properties into the intended message. Table 3.3 shows the summary of the taxonomy of compensatory strategies.

Table 3.3

Bialystok and Kellerman's Taxonomies of Compensatory Strategies

Compensatory Strategies:

a. Conceptual strategies	Manipulate the individual's knowledge of properties of the concept itself.
• Holistic	(part-whole relationship)
• Analytic	(attributes and functions, and may also exploit episodic memory)
b. Linguistic (Code) strategies	Manipulate the user's knowledge of word form by the construction of ad hoc labels for referents via languages other than the target language or via derivational rules within the target language

Discussion of Bialystok's taxonomies of communication strategies should not ignore Bialystok's model of language proficiency which consists of two processing components, namely "analysis of knowledge" and "control of processing or selective attention" (Kellerman & Bialystok, 1997, pp. 32-33). Analysis of knowledge is the process by which mental representations of information, in this sense both representations of meaning and representations of language, become increasingly structured. Both representations are transformed through analysis, resulting in analysed knowledge that is structured and accessible across contexts while unanalysed knowledge appears only when it is part of familiar routines or procedures. Regarding control of processing, it is believed that human beings can attend only to selected portions of available information at any given time. Situations usually provide more information than it is possible to process, and cognition continually selects from that pool of information. Every context brings perceptual

and experiential biases that make some portion of that information salient. When the usual balance between analysis and control is disturbed, usually due to inaccessible linguistic knowledge, communication strategies are called upon. In this way, Kellerman and Bialystok claim that strategy taxonomies may be viewed in terms of the demands made by analysis and control in exploration of each type of knowledge. The interconnection between the two categories of strategies and the two processes are presented in Figure 3.2. As shown in Figure 3.1, each cell refers to previous taxonomies either by Faerch and Kasper (1983) or Tarone (1980).

	Process of Analysis	Process of Control
CONCEPTUAL STRATEGY		
MEANING REPRESENTATIONS	paraphrases, mimetic gestures, word coinages, circumlocution	'message abandonment' 'topic avoidance'
LANGUAGE REPRESENTATIONS	morphological creativity (grammatical derivation)	transfer-based strategies, ostensive definitions, unmotivated word coinages, 'appeals to authority'
CODE STRATEGY		

Figure 3.1. Operation of analysis and control processes on representations of meaning and language (Kellerman & Bialystok, 1997, p. 36).

The matrix shown in Figure 3.1 indicates that Bialystok et al.'s taxonomy of compensatory strategies is based on the previous models of Tarone, Faerch and Kasper, and Poulish. However, this matrix is even clearer to interpret. In other words, this longer categorization, which is process-oriented, may be more easily interpreted when compared to previous taxonomies which are more product-oriented. In this present study, the overview of how Bialystok et al. define communication strategies and how they draw the taxonomies of the compensatory strategies is

beneficial in providing the rooted concept of how the strategies are analysed and categorized, especially from the point of view of process-orientation. However, this taxonomy was not used as the tool to categorize the collected data of the present study. This is due to both feasibility of the analysis and relevance.

3.1.3.3 Poulisse.

Poulisse et al. (1984) proposed a typology of compensatory strategies which shared some similarities with those developed by others. However, they named their typology differently. The typology is divided into two large categories namely “interlingual strategies” and “intralingual strategies”. These two categories refer back to Bialystok and Frohlich’s (1980) “L1-based strategies” and “L2-based strategies”. Interlingual strategies are strategies that result in the interpolation of a language different from the target language being used in the communication. Examples of this category include “language switch”, “literal translation”, and “foreignizing”. These strategies do not necessarily occur only in second language contexts but also in native language contexts; however, they typically occur more among second or foreign language learners. Different from interlingual strategies, intralingual strategies are quite common in both second/foreign language and native language. In using this category of strategies, speakers do not exploit any language except the one being used. Examples of this category include “approximation”, “description”, and “appeals for assistance”. Table 3.3 shows a description of the typology.

Table 3.3

Typology of Compensatory Strategies (Poulisse et al., 1984, pp. 89-90)

INTERLINGUAL STRATEGIES

L1-based

- | | |
|------------------------|--|
| a. Borrowing | The use of a native language word or phrase with a native language pronunciation |
| b. Literal translation | A word for translation into L2 from the native language, either of idioms, idiomatic phrases or compound words |
| c. Foreignizing | The use of a native language word or phrase with L2 pronunciation |

Based on other languages than L1

Borrowing, literal translation, or foreignizing of a word or phrase from a language that is not the speaker's present target language

INTRALINGUAL STRATEGIES

- | | |
|------------------|---|
| a. Approximation | The use of a target language word or phrase which shares a number of critical semantic features with the target item. This strategy includes the use of high or low coverage words, superordinate terms and exemplifications. |
| b. Word coinage | A new target language word is made up to communicate the target item |
| c. Description | <p>A description of the target item, using a target language construction. The kind of information given in the description may relate to :</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. General physical properties (colour, size, material, spatial dimensions) b. Specific features (usually marked by "it has") c. Interactional/functional characteristics (indicating what the item can be used for) d. Locational properties (indicating where or when) |

	the item is normally used)
e. Other features (features which are indirectly associated with the target item, often context- or culture-bound)	
d. Restructuring	An attempt to convey the target item using a new speech plan, when the original speech plan has failed
e. Appeals for assistance	The learner asks the interlocutor to provide the missing word or phrase. Appeals for assistance may take two forms: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. Direct requests for form – the interlocutor is asked to provide the target language form b. Indirect requests for forms – the speaker indicates (by pauses, intonation, repetitions, gestures) that a target language form is missing and that he needs help
f. Mime	The use of mimetic gestures to replace or illustrate speech.

Poulisse later proposed a new and different taxonomy of compensatory strategies. She criticised previously developed taxonomies of compensatory strategies, claiming that these taxonomies are against the rules of a process-oriented approach which should be taken into account when relating to cognitive processes. First, many 'traditional' strategies lacked generality. For example, Tarone's (1977) taxonomies were suitable for concrete objects but not for abstract concepts. Therefore, much research which came after (for example, Paribakht, 1985) could not apply the taxonomy and therefore had to set up new categories to capture the communication strategies. Secondly, some of the criteria to distinguish the various types of the taxonomies were largely product-oriented, and this concealed generalisations which could be made with respect to the cognitive processes underlying the compensatory strategies use. Poulisse believed that, by focussing on the differences in form, the similarity in content of the utterances was concealed and

the generalization that may be drawn with respect to the same analytic process underlying these utterances ignored.

Therefore, Poulisse (1987) suggested that a well-defined taxonomy should be sufficiently general to cover a wide range of compensatory strategies data, including the verbal and non-verbal, those used by native speakers or second/foreign language learners, inside and outside the classroom, speaking to native speakers and non-native speakers, irrespective of the task types. Such an issue is similarly raised in Bialystok and Kellerman's (1987) notion of "generalisability". Poulisse further argued that the taxonomy should refer to the process of speech production, previously referring to Clark and Clark's (1977) outline of the process of speech production. Speech production process was thought to comprise of two main phases namely planning and execution phases. Planning phase includes the first three processes namely discourse, sentence, constituent, and developing articulatory program. During the execution phase, the articulation process occurs. For native speakers, this process is usually automatic, but for second or foreign language learners, problems may arise, particularly during the planning phase. Poulisse later referred to a more current model of speech production process which was developed by Levelt (1989) and which shared similar concepts with Clark and Clark. With regard to the handling of problems, Poulisse presumed that language learners may use "avoidance" or "reduction strategies" when they choose to give up or revise their original message, choose "interactional strategies" when learners implicitly or explicitly appeal for assistance, or resort to "compensatory strategies" in attempting to execute their original speech plans. Further, Poulisse identified two basic strategies within the compensatory strategies, namely "conceptual" and "linguistic"

strategies similar to those proposed by Bialystok and Kellerman (1987). When the speakers try to analyse the concept by reducing it to its criteria features, they apply conceptual strategies. Differently, when the speakers try to manipulate linguistic knowledge in attempting to convey original messages, they use linguistic strategies. Conceptual strategies include two strategies, namely *analytic* and *holistic* strategies while linguistic strategies consist of “morphological creativity” and “strategy of transfer”. Frequently, analytic and holistic strategies are used in combination, when the speaker tries to refer to a related concept and then specifies the target concept. The strategy of morphological creativity is described as being the use of the target language rules of morphological derivation to create comprehensible lexis. When the words or phrases are translated from one language to another with regard to the similarities shared between two languages, the strategy of transfer is used. Table 3.4 shows the new taxonomy developed by Poulisse.

Table 3.4

Poulisse’s Taxonomy of Communication Strategies (1987)

1. Avoidance or Reduction Strategies	Strategies used when learners give up or revise their original discourse and/or sentence plans.
2. Interactional Strategies	Strategies used when learners try to appeal for assistance, either implicitly or explicitly.
3. Compensatory Strategies	Strategies used when learners try to find alternatives to solve problems to execute the original plans.
a. <u>Conceptual Strategies</u>	The speakers try to operate the concept for which they do not the appropriate words.
i. Analytic Strategies	The speakers try to analyse the concept by decomposing it into its criteria features, then refers

	to it by means of these features. Eg. 'it's green and uh, you usually eat it with potatoes... Popeye eats it' for 'spinach'
ii. Holistic Strategies	The speakers try to refer to the related concept, which can be the superordinate or subordinate of the intended referent. Eg. 'vegetable' for 'spinach'
b. <u>Linguistic Strategies</u>	The speakers try to manipulate linguistic knowledge, either syntactically, morphologically, or phonologically.
i. Morphological Creativity	The speakers use L2 rules of morphological derivation to create comprehensible L2 lexis. Eg. 'representator' for 'representative'
ii. Strategy of Transfer	The speakers exploit the similarities between languages. Words from one language can be transferred to another language.

A final remark with regard to the “generalizability” of the taxonomy proposed by Poulish (1987) is that, although there are two distinguished strategies determined within the compensatory strategies, “this does not necessarily imply that all utterances can be categorized as either purely conceptual or purely linguistic” (p. 147). Interaction between the two strategies possibly occurs, and the two strategies can also be applied in cycles. The generalizability of this process-oriented taxonomy is advantageous in analysing more deeply a wide range of compensatory data and can give a fuller explanation of the data.

3.1.4 Sociolinguistic perspective.

Conceptualizing communication strategies from a sociolinguistic perspective is one form of “examining communication strategies as part of socially situated interaction” (Kasper & Kellerman, 1997, p. 275). Within a sociolinguistic approach,

communication strategies are examined beyond the psychological and interactional perspectives. Therefore, investigation should be carefully directed beyond grammar or lexis to social and interpersonal meaning, beyond individuals and dyads to groups (Rampton, 1997). A sociolinguistic perspective does not restrict communication strategies as occurred for limited linguistic reasons; there are other factors to be taken into account such as how learners collaborate with interlocutors or how they remain in the conversation. Communication strategies are also viewed as attached to cultural issues and identity of the second language learners. Aston (1993) highlights interpersonal rather than transactional negotiation in communication, rapport rather than information transfer, affective more than referential convergence, feelings more than knowledge. This perspective is appropriate when examining or exploring communication strategies among individuals of different identities, especially from different cultural background (for example, Sawir, 2002). Unfortunately, there have not been adequate studies to identify the taxonomy and the inventory of communication strategies from the sociolinguistic perspective. However, this view provides an insight that social and interpersonal issues, the relationship between the interlocutors, and the cultural background as well as the affective factors of the interlocutors need to be taken into account when examining learners' communication strategies, as has been a concern in the present study.

3.1.5 Definition and taxonomy of communication strategies used in the study.

In the present study, I considered a psychological perspective on communication strategies the most appropriate. Hence, communication strategies are

defined as “potentially conscious plans for solving what to an individual presents itself as a problem in reaching a particular communicative goal” (Faerch & Kasper, 1983, p. 36). With the focus of the study on oral communication, then, what is understood by communication strategies in the present study refers to oral communication strategies.

In the present study, it has been recognized that categorization of compensatory strategies is, in some ways, more successfully analysed through the process-oriented approach because communication strategies are basically cognitive processes. However, when it comes to the need to develop an inventory for the use of communication strategies, there have been no studies conducted to develop an inventory to support this perspective. Process-orientedness of communication strategies analysis as developed by Bialystok et al. or Poulisse et al. can be more easily applied when analysing transcribed conversations, while in the present study data was not only elicited from learners’ conversations but also from learners’ perceived use of the oral communication strategies. In fact, such an inventory was needed to explore speakers’ or learners’ own identification of their perceived use of the strategies in order to identify the development or changes in communication strategies use after the implementation of a task based learning program. Thus, an inventory of oral communication strategies which has proven validity and reliability was used. The Oral Communication Strategy Inventory (OCSI) was developed by Nakatani (2006) with the participation of non-English department EFL students in Japan who shared some similarities in socio-cultural background with the participants of the present study. This detailed inventory comprises two main categories, namely strategies for coping with speaking problems and strategies for

coping with listening problems. Each category consists of factors which are then detailed into questions to identify communication strategies. The category of strategies for coping with speaking problems are composed of *social affective*, *fluency-oriented*, *negotiation for meaning while speaking*, *accuracy-oriented*, *message reduction and alteration*, *non-verbal strategies while speaking*, *message abandonment*, and *attempt to think in English* strategies. The category of strategies for coping with listening problems are composed of *negotiation for meaning while listening*, *fluency-maintaining*, *scanning*, *getting the gist*, *non-verbal strategies while listening*, *less-active listener*, and *word-oriented* strategies.

Data from classroom activities were analysed first referring to the inventory (OCSI), and, together with the results elicited from the inventory, all of the data was analysed and discussed based on the theory of psycholinguistic perspective. The taxonomy developed by Poulisse was considered the most appropriate. This taxonomy, as claimed by Poulisse, is used to describe the reasoning for selection of certain communication strategies as well as the cognitive process behind the use of the strategies. As will be found in later chapters, the discussion also refers to Levelt's (1989) model of speech production process. Discussion also reviews sociolinguistic aspects though this does not function as the main concern.

3.1.6 Factors affecting the use of communication strategies.

In general, selection of communication strategies is determined by several factors. Bialystok and Frohlich's (1980) study identified three factors that influence learners' choice of certain communication strategies. The first determinant of

strategies was learners' formal level of target language proficiency. It was found that better learners were more efficient in strategy use, more effective in communication, and relied more on the use of L2-based strategies. Less proficient learners were also found to make more frequent use of L1-based transfer strategies. Within the first determinant, came the second factor which was the ability or willingness to use inferencing strategy, which Bialystok (1981) defines as "the use of available information to derive explicit linguistic hypothesis" (p. 26). Using this strategy, learners try to find ways to formulate linguistic hypothesis by exploiting different sources of information, both linguistic and non-linguistic, taken from the speaker or from the environment, related to the structure or to the meaning of the language. The third factor was the task itself which may bias a learner to select certain communication strategies. Included within the task factor was the concept of task instruction and communicative situation. Between task type and proficiency level, Ng (1995) further suggested that task type had a more determining role in communication strategies use than proficiency level. Learners' foreign language proficiency level mainly affects the number of compensatory strategies employed by the learners while task type does not only determine the sort of compensatory strategies employed but also identifies how much information can be given in it (Poulisse, 1987). Other factors, namely personality (Tarone, 1977), first language background (Tarone, 1977), first or target language communication (Paribakht, 1985) are also believed to affect the use and choice of communication strategies.

Poulisse (1997) suggests that learners' choice of compensatory strategies follows general principles of communication and takes into account the situation, the proceeding discourse and the shared knowledge between the interlocutors. These

general principles are determined to be *clarity* and *economy*. While the principle of clarity requires learners to produce clear and intelligible messages, the principle of economy requires learners to use the strategy which involves least possible expenditure of effort. It is believed learners try to use compensatory strategies to produce references that are clear and effective in order to reach the communicative goals. At the same time they also attempt to keep their processing effort to a minimum. However, if it is not possible to reach both principles, they make a choice between being clear or reducing effort. In her study with the Nijmegen project, Poullisse (1997) found that “in general, if a choice had to be made between being clear and saving effort, the subjects appeared to be led by the importance of the goal” (p. 57). When learners consider the intended referent to be important, they are inclined to put more effort in their use of compensatory strategies. The opposite applies when they believe the referent is less important.

To summarize, there are a number of factors claimed to affect the choice and use of certain oral communication strategies over other strategies. These factors may be related to the learners themselves or to the task. Factors related to learners include their level of L2 proficiency, their personality and affective factors, their L1 background including their cultural background, and their interlanguage system. Learner affective factors may comprise of self-esteem, risk-taking, anxiety, and motivation. Within the task, a number of sub-factors are identified, including the type of task instruction, the classroom situation or the communicative situation of the classroom, and the interlocutors.

3.2 Communication Strategies versus Learning Strategies

In discussion of communication strategies, there has been an attempt to distinguish communication strategies from learning strategies. This was invoked by Selinker (1972) who claimed that learning strategies are an identifiable approach by second or foreign language learners to learn particular learning material while communication strategies are an identifiable approach by the learner to communicate with native speakers of the target language. Tarone (1980) stated that, while communication strategies are employed to bridge a linguistic knowledge gap when requisite structures are not shared by the two interlocutors, learning strategies are attempts made to develop linguistic and sociolinguistic competence in the target language.

There has been debate over whether communication strategies are clearly distinguishable from learning strategies. Theoretically, the two strategies are functionally different. However, many experts have found it hard to distinguish between the two, especially when observing learners' linguistic behaviours. On this point, Rubin (1987) stated that "the relationship of communication strategies to learning strategies is not always clear since in the process of clarifying meaning, learners may uncover new information in their language learning system" (p.26). Further, Corder (1983) claims that one of the difficulties in distinguishing the two strategies is because the data used to investigate both strategies are the same, that is, utterances in the interlanguage system of the learner. It is difficult to identify whether the utterances are the result of the learner's interlanguage system or the results of the communication strategies the learner employed. Tarone (1983) attempted to identify

one factor to distinguish communication strategy from learning strategy. He found that “motivation” may be one way to distinguish the two strategies. When the motivation is to learn or improve language knowledge, it is included in learning strategy. When the intention is to communicate a meaning, this is included in communication strategies. However, there is another problem in measuring a learner’s motivation. It could be that a learner’s motivation is both to learn and to communicate. Furthermore, a learner may subconsciously acquire language when he/she is using a strategy intended to communicate a meaning (when using communication strategies). This acquired knowledge may later become a part of his/her linguistic system. The actual use of all communication strategies may serve learning purposes (Tarone, 1980). This position is confirmed by 1995) who claims that communication strategies help learners to learn communication skills by obtaining practices and gaining new information of what is permissible or appropriate to use in actual communication. Thus, in some cases, as has also been identified in the present study, communication strategies are included as part of learning strategies. This also has been considered by Oxford (1990) who includes compensation strategies as a part of her taxonomy of learning strategies.

“Classroom environment” is differentiated from “genuine communication” (Valette, 1973). Within the context of foreign language learning, it is artificial communication that has taken place in the classroom, while genuine communication has generally occurred outside the classroom or has mostly occurred in the country where the language is spoken. It is learning strategies that most probably occur in the classroom activities in Indonesia, rather than communication strategies although, as is claimed by many Indonesian EFL students, their motivation to learn English is to

be able to communicate. Therefore, the term communication strategies in the present study is included as a part of learning strategies. Communication strategies are considered one of the tools employed by foreign language learners in learning and developing their communication skills.

3.3 Language Learning Strategies

This section reviews theories related to language learning strategies. Some points to cover include the definition of language learning strategies, their categorization, their features, and variables affecting the use and choice of strategies. Research findings related to these issues are also presented.

3.3.1 Conceptualisation of language learning strategies.

Studies regarding the identification and classification of language learning strategies did not emerge until mid 1970s. Stern (1975) initiated study of the area by identifying ten strategies that he thought good language learners employed. He based his identification on his own experience as a language teacher and learner, his interpretation of the concept of language competence and learning problems, and his reading on language learning. The ten strategies included *planning*, *active*, *emphatic*, *formal*, *experimental*, *semantic*, *practice*, *communication*, *monitoring*, and *internalisation* strategies. Despite being the pioneer that shed light on studies of language learning strategies, Stern admitted his work was highly speculative, and needed to be confirmed and modified.

Learning strategies have been defined in different ways yet with many shared similarities. Basically learning strategies are defined as related to learning success, as a tool to enhance learning success. This can be a tool to enhance the process of decoding, retrieval, storage, or using the language. The process of using learning strategies has, generally, been regarded as a cognitive process that can be described through cognitive behaviour theory.

Rubin (1987) defined strategies as “any set of operations, plans, or routines used by learners to facilitate the obtaining, retrieval, storage, and use of information” (p. 19). Rubin (1981) categorized learning strategies into two broad types, namely strategies that directly affect learning and strategies that indirectly affect learning. Subtypes of strategies that directly affect learning were clarification/verification, monitoring, memorization, guessing/inductive reasoning, deductive reasoning, and practice. Those included as the subtypes of strategies that indirectly affect learning were creating practice opportunities and using production tricks such as communication strategies. However, classification of learning strategies by Rubin did not correspond to the concept of learning as a cognitive process nor did he refer to the grounding theory of second language acquisition.

O'Malley and Chamot (1990) described learning strategies as “special ways of processing information that enhance comprehension, learning, or retention of the information” (p. 1). They acknowledged the importance of interaction in language learning. This definition was extended, suggesting that learning strategies may include:

... focusing on selected aspects of new information, analysing and monitoring information during acquisition, organizing or elaborating on new information during the encoding process, evaluating the learning when it is completed, or assuring oneself that the learning will be successful as a way to allay anxiety. (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990, p. 43)

With this broad description, O'Malley and Chamot were trying to point out the significant role of strategies in every steps of language learning, which may involve cognitive, metacognitive, and social/affective aspects. Therefore, they classified learning strategies into these three main categories. The three categories also show levels of mental processing. Thus, the first category, the *metacognitive* strategies, which was regarded as the higher order of processing may entail planning for, monitoring, or evaluating the success of a learning activity. Included as the representative strategies within metacognitive strategies were *selective attention to special aspects of a learning task, planning the organisation of a discourse, monitoring and reviewing attention to task or monitoring comprehension for information or monitoring production while it is occurring, and evaluating or checking comprehension after completion of receptive or productive processes*. Cognitive strategies operate directly on incoming information and manipulate ways to enhance learning. These strategies included representative strategies of *rehearsal, organisation, inferencing, summarizing, deduction, imagery, transfer, and elaboration*. Finally, *social/affective* strategies, which was previously coined as “social mediating strategies” (O'Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzanares, Kupper, & Russo, 1985), involve either interaction with another person or control over affect factors. The representative strategies included *cooperation, questioning for clarification, and self-talk*.

Taking a step further, Oxford (1990) defines learning strategies as “specific actions taken by learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations” (p. 8). She conducted an extensive review of learning strategies and, on the basis of factor analysis, classified learning strategies into six groups, namely *memory*, *cognitive*, *compensation*, *metacognitive*, *affective*, and *social* strategies. The first three strategies were included as *direct* strategies, which were assumed to be directly involved in the target language. From the wide range of participants in her study, she identified the use of compensation strategies by learners. The other three strategies were categorized as indirect strategies which support the language learning without directly involving the target language.

Direct strategies, which directly involve the target language, consist of three strategies, namely memory, cognitive, and compensation strategies. With a limited ability to memorize the large amounts of vocabulary necessary to achieve fluency, students can employ a memory strategy to cope with this difficulty. This strategy enables students to store verbal materials and then retrieve them when needed for communication. An example of memory strategy is linking newly learned words with the familiar words or sounds of one’s own language. Cognitive strategies are important to understand and produce the language. Structure-generating strategies like taking notes, summarizing, highlighting are examples of cognitive strategies. Compensation strategies enable learners to use the language either for comprehension or production despite their limited knowledge. These strategies are employed to make up for an inadequate repertoire of grammar, and especially of vocabulary.

Within the indirect strategies are metacognitive, affective, and social strategies. The metacognitive strategies allow learners to control their cognition by themselves through centering, arranging, planning, and evaluating their learning process. The affective strategies help learners to regulate their emotions, motivations, and attitudes. Strategies of lowering anxiety, encouraging oneself, and taking emotional temperature belong to affective strategies. The social strategies help learners learn the target language through interaction with others. These strategies include asking questions, cooperating with others, and empathizing with others.

Based on this categorization, Oxford developed the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) which has been referred to by many studies of language learning strategies. This inventory has been used worldwide and its validity and reliability confirmed in several studies (for example, Hsiao & Oxford, 2002; Oxford & Burry-Stock, 1995). For this reason, Nakatani (2006) attempted to find a relationship between SILL and her developed Oral Communication Strategies Inventory (OCSI) to measure the validity of OCSI.

Some literature shows that language learning strategies are attributed as a process. McDonough (1995) defined strategies as “articulated plans for meeting particular types of problems, not a piece of problem-solving itself” (p. 3). This implies the existence of problems for strategies to occur, but not necessarily the problem solving itself. By this definition, learning strategies are identified as concerned with the process of finding ways to solve the problems. This principle of strategies as process was also mentioned by Phakiti (2003) who argued that “language learning strategies are not actually strategies in the strictest sense of the

term. Rather, they should be seen as learners' stable long-term knowledge of their strategy use" (p.681).

One dimension that needs to be included in the definition of language learning strategies is consciousness. That learners can choose strategies encouraged Cohen (1998) and Oxford (1996a) to include consciousness as one element of learning strategies. "The element of consciousness is what distinguishes strategies from those processes that are not strategic" (Cohen, 1998, p. 4). This concept of consciousness in learning strategies is in line with the concept of communication strategies previously discussed in detail in this chapter. Thus, since the current study positions communication strategies as a part of learning strategies, it is necessary to define learning strategies as congruent with the definition of communication strategies. In the current study, learning strategies are defined as conscious process students employ in order to comprehend and digest new information as well as to plan to solve encountered problems regarding the development of their communicative competence.

3.3.2 Features of learning strategies.

Some features of learning strategy are its teachability, its flexibility, and its unobserved mentalistic behaviours (Oxford, 1990, 1996b). Regarding the teachability feature, in contrast to the fact that learning styles or personality traits are difficult to change, learning strategies are easier to teach and modify (Griffiths & Parr, 2001; Oxford, 1990, 1996b). Students can be trained to be aware and more conscious of learning strategy use and more proficient in employing appropriate strategies. Task

requirements and teachers' expectations that are expressed through classroom instructional methods also shape students' learning strategy choice. Some research demonstrates the effectiveness of direct and explicit learning strategy training in improving students' oral proficiency (for example, Dadour & Robbins, 1996; Varela, 1997).

Regarding its flexibility, learning strategies are identified not always as predictable sequences or in precise patterns (Oxford, 1990). There is a great deal of individuality in the way learners choose, combine, and sequence strategies. This individuality may refer to learners' personality, motivation, gender, L2 proficiency, or cultural background which will be reviewed further in the next subsection of this chapter.

Most learning strategies are internal or mentalistic behaviour that cannot be observed easily with human eyes (Oxford, 1996b). Regarding this feature, determining the appropriate assessment methods to reveal students' learning strategies is an important aspect. Among the various assessment methods-some of which are interviews and written questionnaires, observations, verbal reports, diaries, stimulated recall, and dialogue journals-the combination of observational data taken from questionnaires or interviews or observations and stimulated recall is regarded as best indicating the unobservable behaviour of learning strategies (Lam, 2007).

With the aforementioned features of learning strategies, there are some prominent points that need to be taken into account for the current study. First, the notion that the choice of learning strategies can be shaped through instructional

methods suggests that a task based learning approach may cause a change in learners' use of strategies. The flexibility feature of strategies necessitated the inclusion of other variables such as learners' L2 proficiency, gender, motivation, cultural background, and other individual differences in discussion of the strategies use and shift. Finally, the mentalistic behaviourism of strategy use made the use of multi methods in data collection and reference back to the cognitive process of the speech production in the discussion and analysis necessary.

3.3.3 Variables affecting the use and choice of strategies.

Effective strategy use has close correlation with various aspects of language learning success. Macaro (2006) found that high strategy use is correlated positively with learning success in that more proficient learners tend to make more frequent use of a large number of strategies as compared to less proficient learners (read also, Green & Oxford, 1995; Griffiths, 2003b). A large study by Green and Oxford involving 374 participants attempted to identify the correlation between learners' L2 proficiency and their use of strategies, and found a positive high correlation between the two variables. The more successful students more frequently used more variety of strategies, emphasizing the use of active and naturalistic practice strategies. Griffiths confirmed this claim with her study with 348 students, aged 16 to 64 years old from 21 different countries. Other studies (for example, Oxford, 1996a; Park, 1997) also revealed a positive relationship between the results of the strategy inventory using SILL and standardised proficiency tests such as CELT (Comprehensive English Language Test) and TOEFL (Test of English as a Foreign Language).

Reviewing previous research related to the interrelation between strategy use and individual differences along with the correlation between learner strategies and group differences, Takeuchi, Griffiths and Coyle (2007) also tried to confirm this relationship in their study. They concluded that “whilst the relationship between individual differences and learner strategies is both psycholinguistic and sociocultural, group differences and learner strategies are essentially symbiotic and sociocultural” (Takeuchi et al., 2007, p. 70). Inclusive to individual and group differences are age, gender, motivation, career orientation, personality types, ethnicity or culture, L2 proficiency, and learning situation. These variables were found to be correlated to learners’ use of strategies for underlying psycholinguistic or sociocultural reasons. However, only variables related to the findings of the present study are discussed here.

High strategy use is also correlated with motivation (for example, Nunan, 1997; Oxford & Nyikos, 1989; Wharton, 2000). Oxford and Nyikos found that learners who were highly motivated used a variety of learning strategies. They identified that not only did learners’ high motivation cause their high use of strategies, but high use of strategies might also lead to high motivation. This positive correlation between learning strategies use and motivation was empirically proven in Nunan’s experimental study. Wharton, who conducted a study with foreign language learners in Singapore, revealed significantly more frequent use of strategies among highly motivated learners than the less motivated learners. That strategy use is correlated with learning success and learners’ motivation was also evident in the present study.

In terms of gender, L2 proficiency, and cultural background, different groups of learners have been found to choose different strategies. Some research (Ehrman & Oxford, 1989; Green & Oxford, 1995; Macaro, 2000; Oxford & Nyikos, 1989) suggests that female learners use more strategies than male learners. Employing Oxford's SILL (Strategy Inventory for Language Learning), Ehrman and Oxford found significantly higher use of strategies on the part of female students, and they suggest this might be related to psychological aspects such as greater use of intuition and feeling by females. However, a small number of studies revealed higher use of strategies by males (for example, Wharton, 2000)

High L2 proficiency learners may use sets of strategies that are different from those of lower L2 proficiency. For example, Griffiths (2003b) found that students of higher level of proficiency typically choose strategies related to interaction with others, vocabulary, reading, toleration of ambiguity, language system, management of feeling, management of learning, and utilising available sources. This seemed to set them apart from the low proficiency learners who typically tended to use strategies regarding memorisation of vocabulary items. Vann and Abraham (1990) also found that unsuccessful language learners did not necessarily use fewer language learning strategies than their more successful peers; rather, they simply employed strategies in a haphazard fashion, inadequately relating to the task and their own learning style preferences.

Regarding the cultural background issue, Politzer and McGroarty (1985) speculated that what constitute "good" strategies might be ethnocentric. In their study comparing self reported questionnaires of strategy use by Asian and Hispanic

students, Politzer and McGroarty identified differences between the two groups that might result from their different cultural background. Although Asian students were found not to have as “good” learning behaviour as the Hispanic group, greater gains in linguistic competence and communicative competence were evident on the part of the Asian group. The Hispanic group made more progress in oral proficiency and auditory comprehension. A study by Bedell and Oxford (1996) revealed difference in learning strategies preference between Chinese EFL students and Puerto Rican and Egyptian students, suggesting that higher use of compensation strategies was typical of Asian students. The Puerto Rican and Egyptian students were reported to use compensation strategies moderately. This study was also confirmed by Mochizuki’s (1999) study of Japanese EFL learners and a study by Yang (2007) with students in Taiwan. However, a study by Grainger (1997) did not show differences in strategy use between English native speakers and Asian students in learning Japanese. There was a suggestion that Asian students did better at managing their affective state, in memorizing, and compensation than the English native speakers. Griffiths (2003b) found that the SILL strategies were more commonly used by European students than students from other parts of the world. The studies discussed above suggest that ethnicity or cultural background plays its role in influencing learners’ use of strategies. Thus, selection of a strategies inventory should take into account cultural background issues. As a result, the OCSI designed by Nakatani (2006) is considered appropriate for use in this present study.

Related to cultural background, learning situation is also believed to be an influential variable of language learners’ strategies. Gao (2006), who conducted a study exploring learning strategy changes experienced by 14 Chinese learners who

moved from mainland China to Britain, found that mediating agents were influential in the use of learners' strategies. Moving to Britain, some learners described their acquisition of new motives, knowledge, beliefs, and strategies in language learning since their exposure to the new settings. However, they found that reliance on their teachers as mediating agents, as their previous strategy in China, was not possible. They found that they were "in need of learning consultants who could assist them to develop appropriate strategic learning approaches in context" (p. 65). Reliance on teachers as mediating agents was also identified by the participants of the present study. Further, assessment method and learning discourses in China were found to be more stimulating to the students. This could also be the effect of the ethnically or culturally embedded aspect of learning strategies.

Language learning strategies are correlated with task type as well as task difficulty (Oxford et al., 2004). This study replicated and extended research by Ikeda and Takeuchi (2000) who found significant relationship between both task type and task difficulty on the one hand and learners' use of strategies on the other hand. It was shown that different types of tasks required learners to use different types of strategies. Different use of strategies due to different types of tasks was identified across students of different proficiencies. This tendency was also true for task difficulty. Difficult tasks required learners to use different strategies, and students of different proficiencies had different tendencies in their use of strategies in completing difficult tasks.

3.4 Concluding Remark

This chapter has reviewed literature related to oral communication strategies. Review of the conceptualization of communication strategies guided me to the terminology used in the present study. Debate related to the use of communication strategies and learning strategies made me aware of the differences between the two, but also confirmed my standpoint in this study as I locate communication strategies within learning strategies. Issues related to factors influencing the choice and use of strategies, as discussed in this chapter, were also identified in this study. These factors, referred to as learners' individuality, included learners' L2 proficiency, personality, motivation, and cultural background. Another variable affecting the use of strategies was the task itself.

After this discussion of oral communication skills and oral communication strategies, I present the next chapter reviewing literature on Task-Based Learning (TBL) as another focus of this study.

CHAPTER 4

TASK-BASED LEARNING

This chapter reviews underlying theories of Task Based Learning (TBL). I present some sections reviewing the concept of task, benefits and constraints of the implementation of TBL, dimensions of TBL, and procedures of the implementation of TBL in classrooms. Discussion of the concept of task is structured chronologically so as to lead to the working definition of task in the current study. Regarding the benefits and constraints of TBL, I start the discussion with general issues and continue to those specifically related to the implementation of TBL in Asia. Next, I review literature on dimensions and classroom procedures of TBL, starting with general issues followed by issues more related to oral communication tasks, the main concern of the present study. Review of previous research on TBL is also presented in sections of related topics.

4.1 The Concept Task

The key word of TBL is the notion of “task” itself. “In TBL the basic and initial point of organisation is the task, and it is tasks that generate the language to be used, not vice versa” (Estaire & Zanón, 1994, p. 12). Several issues regarding the concept of task are discussed in this section. Different definitions of task are presented and compared, leading to the working definition of task used in the present study.

Nunan (2004) put forward the necessity to differentiate “real-world or target task” from “pedagogical task”. While the first implies uses of language in the world beyond the classroom, the latter refers to an activity or action which is conducted as the result of processing or understanding language and usually occurs in the classroom. When the target task is transformed in the classroom, it becomes a pedagogical task. The pedagogical task may or may not involve the production of language. Learners may produce a non-linguistic outcome such as a flow chart or diagram, a picture, or an action. In the current study, ‘task’ in TBL is understood as pedagogical task.

In the initial focus on cognitive process during the implementation of tasks, Prabhu (1987) defined a task as “an activity which required learners to arrive at an outcome from given information through some processes of thought and which allowed teachers to control and regulate that process” (p. 24). To accomplish a task, learners go through a cognitive process by which they will arrive at a goal. Learners are the main actors in the learning while teachers may control their process of internalizing the new information. Besides identifying the essentiality of outcome-orientation in the cognitive process, Prabhu also highlighted the involvement of both learners and teachers, in that effective learning can be gained through learners’ engagement in a language task, rather than just learning about language.

Skehan (1998) proposed the characteristics of a task by defining it as “an activity in which meaning is primary; there is communication problem to solve; there is some sort of relationship to comparable real-world activities; task completion has some priority; and the assessment of the task is in terms of outcome” (p. 95). Skehan

highlighted five task characteristics of meaning-orientation, problem solving, real-world activities, task completion, and assessment on the outcome. Then, with a number of other authors, Bygate claimed the core definition of task as “an activity which requires learners to use language, with emphasis on meaning, to attain an objective” (Swain, Skehan, & Bygate, 2001, p. 11). Thus, to be included as task, an activity should not focus mainly on forms, and tasks should lead to an outcome. These two characteristics of task, namely avoidance of form-focus and being engaged with worthwhile meanings are “matters of degree, rather than being categorical” (Skehan, 1998, p. 96). Skilled and aware teachers have the capacity to bring meaning to the most unpromising materials while there are also teachers who rely too much on forms in implementing potential materials. Regarding real-world activities, a task is better designed based on real-world language needs via a needs analysis (Long & Crookes, 1992). This issue of the degree of focus on form versus focus on meaning and needs analysis was taken into account in the current study, and is reviewed in a later section of this chapter.

Task was, then, defined as a work plan that necessitates learners to process language within a pragmatic criterion in order to achieve outcomes that are assessed in terms of the correctness of the meaning/message conveyed (Ellis, 2003a, 2003b). In doing a task, primary attention is given to meaning and learners are to make use of their own linguistic resources. The task should resemble real-world use of language, either directly or indirectly. Finally, a task can engage productive or receptive, and oral or written skills that involve various cognitive processes. In general, Ellis (2003b) and Skehan (1998) share three similar principles of task, namely meaning-focused, real-world use of language, and outcome assessment.

Leaver and Willis (2004) summarized three basic premises of tasks. First, language learning is a gradual and complex organic process. Learners go through development involving making error, and it is not a short process. Learning language is not effective when the language components are learned in discrete segments. Therefore, tasks should be implemented as holistic activities. Second, learning must be primarily meaning-focused rather than form-focused. Carefully selected authentic materials taken from real-life context can function as the medium for learners to process for meaning. In this case, Krashen's (1985) "input hypothesis", in which input (spoken or written) should provide a challenge but not be so difficult as to frustrate learners, needs to be taken into account. Third, interaction and output are also necessary for learning. Language is best learned through interaction, and engagement in interaction will activate the acquisition process (Pica, Kanagy, & Falodun, 1993). A number of studies have shown the effectiveness of interaction during TBL in improving learners' language proficiency (for example, Gass, Mackey, & Ross-Feldman, 2011; Iwashita, 2003; McDonough, 2005; Muranoi, 2000). Output is, clearly, one main premise of tasks. These three premises of tasks are consistent with previous definitions by other authors and have added the concepts of holistic activities and interactional tasks that are also addressed by other authors.

Nunan (2006) defined task as "a piece of classroom work in which learners comprehend, manipulate, produce, or interact in the target language using their grammatical knowledge in order to express meaning, and in which the intention is to convey meaning rather than to manipulate form." (p. 17). He suggested that task should also have the sense of completeness in communicating a message. With various definitions of task from different authors, Nunan emphasized the prominence

of focusing on meaning while acknowledging the role of grammatical forms. This definition also shares similarities with previous authors, in terms of focus on meaning and sense of completeness.

Oxford (2006) emphasized that ‘task’ is “a structured instructional plan that requires learners to move toward an objective or outcome using particular (teacher-given) working procedures or processes” (p. 96). Learners’ activities are viewed as outcome-oriented activities that are externally imposed (by teachers) on person or on a group. The task does not come from the learners themselves. Following the “activity theory” of Vygotskian concepts (Vygotsky & Cole, 1978), Oxford suggested that task can also be viewed as a behavioural framework for research or classroom learning. In this sense, a task needs to be differentiated from an “activity”. While a task is the behavioural blueprint provided by teachers for students to elicit learning, an activity is what students do with the instructions. An activity is the behaviour, both overtly observable and purely mental, students produce while doing the task. Thus, the same task may be performed using different activities due to different situations and contexts. To the definitions of task by previous authors, Oxford added the issue of “externally imposed” instructions and “behavioural activities” as components of tasks.

Samuda and Bygate (2008) defined task as “a holistic activity which engages language use in order to achieve some non-linguistic outcome while meeting a linguistic challenge, with the overall aim of promoting language learning, through process or product or both” (p.69). They described the general features of a task as having eight features. First, a task should involve holistic language use. The term

holistic activity is distinguished from the term analytical activity. While analytical activity is performed with the focus on pre-selected item or items of language in order to carry out isolated exercises, a holistic activity is accomplished involving learners' knowledge of different aspects of language—phonology, grammar, vocabulary, and discourse in order to make relevant meanings. The second feature of a task is that it requires a meaningful target outcome(s). The next feature is its involvement of individual and group processes. These processes can be those targeted by the teacher or shaped by the design of the task. The next feature is the task's dependence on the availability of the input material which can be the objects and instructions of the learning material. The fifth feature is that the task is made up of different phases. In this sense, the task can also be shaped by the actual learning strategies employed at different points in the activity. The sixth feature is that it is important for teachers and learners to know what is being targeted in the language learning purpose. The seventh feature of the task is the conditions under which the task is implemented. The conditions, that can be manipulated and variously exploited by the teacher, impact on the process and outcome of the task. The final feature of a task is that it can be used for different pedagogic purposes at different stages of learning. Samuda and Bygate's conceptualization of task covers most points presented by previous authors.

In 2009, Willis and Willis confirmed their previous description (Willis & Willis, 2007) regarding the characteristics of task. Task is seen as central to the learning cycle. Put simply, they claimed that, to be defined as task, a number of characteristics had to be met, namely: “does it engage the learners' interest; is there a primary focus on meaning; is success measured in terms of non-linguistic outcome

rather than accurate use of language forms; and does it relate to real world activities?” (Willis & Willis, 2009, p. 4). The more *yes* answers of to these questions, the more task-like the activity (Willis & Willis, 2007, p. 13). While this definition does not contribute anything new to previous definitions by other authors, it does include the idea of the task itself being interesting. This issue of “learners’ interest engagement” in the task was mentioned by most participants in the present study.

Up to this point, the working definition of a task in the current study is a holistic and interesting activity that is focused on meaning, rather than on form, and that requires the learners to achieve meaningful target outcomes that resemble real-world activities. Classroom instructional tasks can be given by teachers to individuals or groups, while maintaining learner involvement in the task as an essential element. Task completion is also a priority.

4.2 Benefits and Constraints of TBL

Teaching and learning approaches and strategies change in accordance with the change of situational needs, and the emergence of TBL is one response to the change of needs. There are some basic reasons for choosing TBL as an approach to foreign language teaching and learning. The first reason is the desire for a meaning-focused approach that reflects real life language use (Leaver & Willis, 2004).

Language use needs to be transferred from real world activities into classroom activities, and this can be done through TBL. Furthermore, the main aim of language learning worldwide is to enable learners to use the language learned at school to communicate in the real world outside the classroom. In this sense, the priority of

language learning is fluency, rather than accuracy. A task-based approach that encourages learners to be actively engaged in meaning focused activities is explicitly designed to achieve this goal (Willis & Willis, 2009). Another reason for selecting TBL, as mentioned by Prabhu (1987), is that task based interaction stimulates natural acquisition processes and is less concerned with real-life situations. This is consistent with the premise of TBL that language learning is an organic and gradual process; thus, teaching a discrete language item will not lead to immediate mastery of that item (Leaver & Willis, 2004). There is not now the need to focus on grammar and vocabulary as discrete subjects; instead these language components can be implicitly learned through the understanding, sharing, and learning of meanings as a natural acquisition process through a “holistic activity” (Samuda & Bygate, 2008).

Theoretically, TBL is an effective way to enhance the development of language learning, both from the perspective of linguistic and supportive non-linguistic aspects. While linguistic development is shown from learners’ linguistic performance such as vocabulary improvement or fluency progress, essential non-linguistic progress can be seen in increased learner motivation, higher self-esteem, and reduced anxiety. Both aspects supporting the development of the language learned should be taken into account when investigating the effectiveness of TBL. This has been the focus in a number of studies, some of which are discussed below. Studies presented in this section are mainly those related to the development of oral communication skills as this is the primary concern of the present study,

In a study in India, Lochana and Deb (2006) demonstrated the effectiveness of TBL in enhancing students’ language proficiency, finding that TBL was the only

variable that resulted in improvements in students' English proficiency. This research also showed students' increased interest in learning English, higher motivation to speak in English, and their increased use of English for various daily purposes such as greeting friends, seeking permission before entering the class, or apologizing for coming late to the class. A master thesis conducted in Bangkok by Sae-Ong (2010) showed that learners' English speaking ability was significantly improved after the implementation of TBL. With the various interactional tasks provided in the program, learners felt their needs were fulfilled. This also increased learners' motivation to learn. Learners' improved motivation as one of the benefits of TBL was also mentioned by Lovick and Cobb (2007) who argued that this was the result of "allowing them to be creative and have a sense of ownership of the observable product that they are creating" (p.8).

Another case study conducted in Japan by Ahmed (1996) described the success of teaching oral communication skills in academic settings by employing task-based approach in its syllabus design. Ahmed followed Nunan's idea in viewing TBL as being composed of six components based on the task goals, input (materials), activities, teacher role, learner role, and setting. The syllabus was designed by taking into account these six components. He divided the task activities into four: core task which can comprise individual presentation or group discussion and group debate, supporting task, ongoing task, and synthesizing task. The core task comprised five cycles of orientation, guidelines and modelling, preparation of practice, performance of the task, and feedback given by instructor or peers. Finally he concluded that this success may be attributed to the emphasis on functional uses of language that is what people do with language. That TBL and its emphasis on functional syllabus design

affected the progress of oral communication skills development was a consideration during the development of the TBL materials implemented in the current study.

Encountering new vocabulary items during a communication task is inevitable. A study by Newton (2001) found that exposing learners to new words during task-based interaction resulted in gains in both vocabulary enrichment and improved oral communication fluency. Learners were able to meet the dual demands of attending to unfamiliar language during communication while also maintaining the flow of communication. Newton's findings contributed to the implementation of TBL in the current study since most of the participants perceived their limited vocabulary as a barrier in conducting oral communication tasks.

However, TBL is not a magic approach that is able to respond to all instructional issues, especially when it is changed to suit different contexts. There have been constraints identified in the implementation of TBL. A number of studies have shown the constraints encountered in the implementation of TBL in Asia. Butler (2011) pointed to some of the challenges in the implementation of TBL in the Asia-Pacific region including conceptual, classroom-level, and societal-institutional constraints. Another study by Adams and Newton (2009) was consistent in supporting the need to implement TBL in contextually appropriate ways. From seven empirical studies conducted in Asia, Adams and Newton identified institutional, classroom, and teacher development constraints that may inhibit the implementation of TBL in Asian English language teaching. Another criticism regarding the implementation of TBL in Asia is that described by Littlewood (2007). Reviewing a number of studies regarding the implementation of TBL in East Asian classrooms,

Littlewood (2007) highlighted several constraints, namely classroom management, learners' avoidance of English (read also, Carless, 2007, students' excessive dependence on mother tongue to solve communication problem), minimal task demands on language competence, incompatibility with public assessment demands, and conflict with educational values and traditions. Cultural issues were other barrier to the implementation of TBL. Burrows (2008) outlined the need to take cultural issues into account in the adoption of TBL. He listed four factors to contextualize TBL in “collectivist countries” such as Japan and Indonesia (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010). These factors included learning styles, learning expectations, socio-cultural differences, and the interactional tasks of TBL to be implemented in the context. Some of the abovementioned constraints were identified in the current study, and taken into account in the discussion chapter.

Benefits of TBL as claimed by many authors and shown in a number of studies were taken into consideration in the development of the learning materials implemented in the current study. These were also identified by participants of the current study as benefits of TBL. Yet, constraints and barriers that inhibit TBL implementation were also a reality noticed in the current study, and this lead to the framework used for translating TBL to suit the research context.

4.3 Dimensions in TBL

In reviewing Samuda and Bygate's book (2008) on “Tasks in Second Language Learning”, Verhelst (2010, September 1) claimed that tasks should not be perceived as fixed entities. When task is treated as a fixed variable, an assumption

can be made that, when the same task is carried out, there will be a fixed effect on language learning. However, real classroom situations are far from being fixed and tasks are, generally, far from the control of either teachers or learners. Therefore, tasks cannot be assumed to be fixed variables; rather, a task is a flexible material that may be applied differently in different situations or contexts and can result in different learning outcomes. This has resulted in the emergence of different dimensions of TBL and its implementation as identified by several authors and in a number of studies. This section covers some of the dimensions related to issues identified in the current study.

Reviewing previous literature on task, Littlewood (2004) found the definition of task itself was problematic in two dimensions: in terms of the degree of communicativeness of the task and the degree of learner-involvement in the task. Regarding the degree of communicativeness, Littlewood viewed task as being within a continuum moving from a starting point where communicative purpose was not an essential criterion of task to an end point where task included only activities that involve communication. This concept of task-continuum is similar to that of Estaire and Zanón (1994) who put task within a continuum of ‘enabling task’ and ‘communication task’. In the ‘enabling task’ the focus is on the linguistics aspects such as grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, functions, and discourse while in ‘communication task’, learners’ attention is focused on the meaning, rather than on form. Compared to terms coined by Ellis (2000), the “enabling task” is similar to “exercise” while “communication task” is similar to “tasks”. Enabling task or exercise is at the start of the continuum with the focus on forms while the communication task or tasks is at the other end of the continuum which focuses on

meaning. Littlewood also put another dimension regarding the degree of learner-involvement in the task in a continuum moving from low task involvement to high task involvement. He used a diagram to show the two dimensions combined, Figure 4.1.

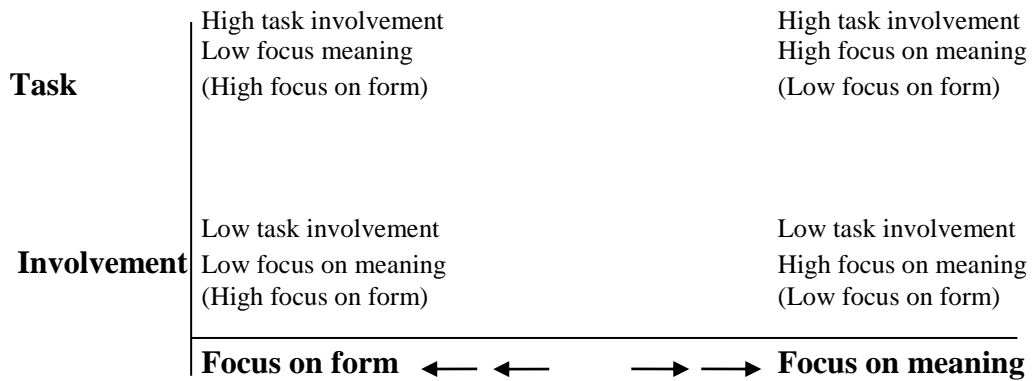


Figure 4.1 Littlewood's (2004, p. 324) two dimensions in task-based foreign language learning

This TBL dimension in terms of focus-on-form versus focus-on-meaning was clarified further by Oxford (2006) who stated that, based on the task goals, task can be viewed as having the focus on meaning, focus on form, or focus on forms. Task with the focus on meaning is an analytic syllabus, in which any language structure must come from the learners themselves; teachers' responsibility is to provide opportunities for L2 exposure. There is no presentation on structures or rules; students are exposed to 'lively lessons' and communicative L2 use. The second type of task goal, task with the focus on form also belongs to an analytic syllabus. Learners are confronted with meaningful contextual language problems and motivated to solve the problems; focus is mainly on meaning but shifted when there is a communication breakdown. The last task goal that focuses on forms present

specific and pre-planned forms for the students to master before they use those forms to negotiate meaning.

Yet, when learning is primarily meaning-focused rather than form-focused, the effort of understanding and engaging with meanings has the possibility of leading to subconscious acquisition of form. Research by Montgomery and Eisenstein (1985) found that real-world communication activities in a grammar-based course resulted in improvement not only on grammatical accuracy but also on accent, vocabulary, and comprehension. This confirms that focus on form can be accommodated when language learning is directed to negotiation of meaning during interactions.

In the implementation of TBL, situation types affect the production of L2 speech acts. A study, with 59 Japanese learners of English, conducted by Taguchi (2007) found that situation types had significant effect on both appropriateness scores and production speed in L2 speech act production. Regardless of learners' level of English proficiency, social factors, namely power (P), social distance (D), and degree of imposition (R) created situation types that affected the production of speech acts. Situations with high PDR (high power distance, high social distance, and high degree of imposition between the speakers and interlocutor) were more challenging than those with low PDR for learners to produce speech acts, requiring a longer production time. This situation was also shown by the participants in the current study as a criterion for them to choose certain strategies in solving problems related to the classroom tasks.

4.4 Procedures of TBL in Classrooms

Task-based syllabus basically comprises two methodological procedures namely the procedure relating to how the tasks specified in a task-based syllabus can be converted into actual lessons and the procedure relating to how the teacher and learners are to participate in the lessons (Ellis, 2006). There are three principal phases of task-based learning, the pre-task, during-task, and post-task. Among the three phases, the during-task is obligatory.

The pre-task provides an advance organizer of what students will be required to do and the nature of the outcome they are expected to achieve. The emphasis can be on the cognitive demands or linguistic factors. The alternatives for pre-task are performing a similar task (similar to the during-task activities), providing a model, non-task preparation activities, and strategic planning activities. It is not possible to have more than one alternative for one certain learning activity. The during-task phase is that of two basic options for activities, namely the task-performance options and the process options. The task-performance options offer the alternatives of whether students need to perform the task under time pressure or not, whether students are allowed to access the input data or not, and whether it is necessary to introduce some surprise element into the task. The process-options concern the way in which discourse is enacted. There are three major goals in performing the post-task phase. They are to have a repeat performance of the task, to encourage reflection, and to encourage students' attention to forms, especially those found to be problematic.

In implementing TBL in oral communication tasks, it is necessary to identify the recurrent features of the tasks-based learning. Basing on the perspective that language is best learned and taught through interaction, Pica et al. (1993) believed that, in interaction-based pedagogy, classroom opportunities are structured for learners “to talk not for the sake of producing language as an end in itself, but as a means of sharing ideas and opinions to achieve individual goals” (p. 10). They claimed that “the presence of negotiation and its accompanying input and interactional adjustments during a task implied the presence of learner comprehension, use of feedback and modification of interlanguage production” (Pica et al., 1993, p. 27). While interacting with each other, learners attempt to negotiate. During this negotiation, they attempt to comprehend, give and receive feedback, and this ends in the modification of their interlanguage system as words, forms, and structures of the L2 are ultimately internalised. In this way, use of language in interactions can provide a stimulus to oral performance.

Seedhouse (1999) implied that TBL should involve varied interactions among learners in order to be able to capture the variety of real-world task interactions into the pedagogical task. The task-based interactions are not always the same, and each variety has its own distinct pedagogical focus. In his study he found that a turn-taking system is best suited to the pedagogical purpose of the task-based learning in that turn-taking enables efficient accomplishment of the task. He argued that interactional modification makes input comprehensible. In turn, comprehensible input promotes acquisition; therefore, interactional modification promotes acquisition. A number of studies regarding the significance of interactional tasks for

promoting language acquisition include those by Gass et al. (2011), Iwashita (2003), McDonough (2005), and Muranoi (2000).

That careful selection of task types suitable for teaching and learning objectives as well as for classroom conditions was essential was the main rationale for Courtney (1996) to conduct a study exploring the selection and the use of peer group oral tasks. Courtney found a significant relationship between task type and the learners' performance in peer group oral tasks. This study compared the implementation of five different types of tasks as specified by Pica et al. (1993), namely information gap, jigsaw, convergent ranking, scenario role play, and two-way convergent tasks. The last three tasks were included as discussion type tasks. The task types were compared at two different levels of complexity for each type of the task, with increased complexity achieved by prescribing more goals to be achieved within the same period of time. Results of the study showed that there was a statistically significant relationship between task type and learner performance. Discussion type tasks showed longer turn lengths and a greater amount of words per turn than information gap and jigsaw tasks. It was also found that information gap and jigsaw tasks were more characterised by greater counts of negotiation of meaning strategies use, namely repetition and clarification strategies. Strategies use in information gap and jigsaw was found to be more frequent than in discussion type tasks. This finding was also evident in the current study.

However, manipulating task characteristics and conditions alone does not guarantee the accomplishment of a pedagogic outcome; attention needs to be directed to the learners as the subject of the tasks. Learners' attention and their learning needs

will contribute to their efforts to achieve the task outcome (Murphy, 2003). The more attempts students make to reach the outcome, the better the result of the learning will be. As motivational variables were found to have significant impact on the learners' task engagement (Dornyei & Kormos, 2000), these variables needed to be included as points for consideration in designing tasks to be implemented in classrooms.

Issues relating to the procedure of the implementation of TBL in classrooms were taken into account in the present study. Some findings of the current study also contributed to confirm claims that task type was correlated to learner performance, that different task type stimulated the use of different strategies, and that attention also needed to be given to learners' individuality in order to achieve pedagogic outcome.

4.5 Conceptual Framework

Review of literature presented in Chapter Two, Three, and Four has provided the background for the conceptual framework used to analyse data in the present study. I summarize this conceptual framework in Figure 4.2.

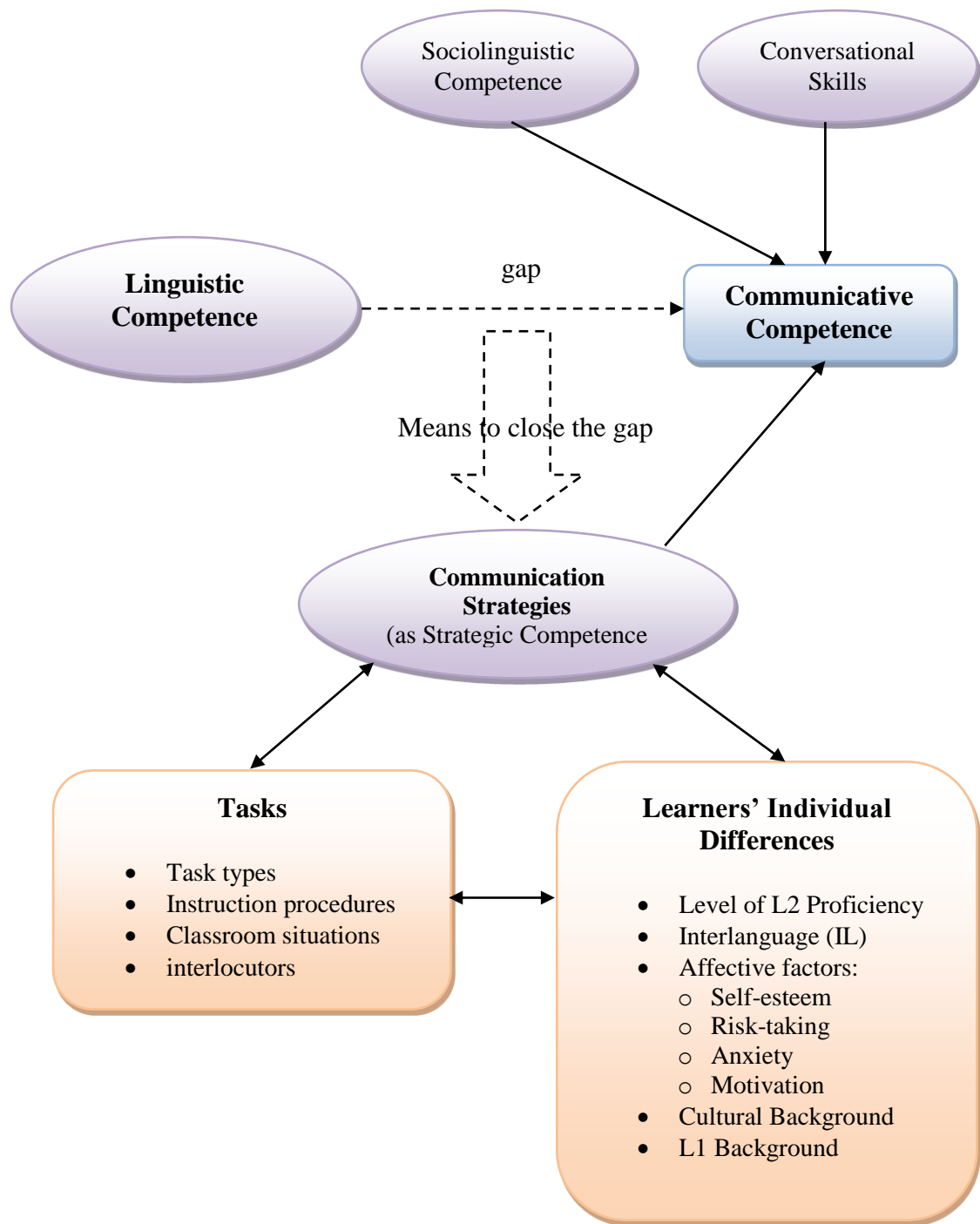


Figure 4.2 Conceptual frameworks as analytical tool

As presented in Figure 4.2, I start with my concept of communicative competence as consisting of linguistic, sociolinguistic, and strategic competences as well as conversational skills. I have put the sociolinguistic competence and

conversational skills in smaller boxes because these were not the central concern in this study. Within the context of foreign language learning, problems during communication occur for several reasons, one of which is the gap between linguistic competence and communicative competence; the gap between what learners are capable of and what they intend to express. Communication strategies, which are included as strategic competence, are understood as a means to close the gap. Furthermore, the choice and use of communication strategies are influenced by several factors, two of which are focused on in this study, namely the tasks themselves and learners' individual differences. Several elements are involved in discussion of tasks, namely task types, instruction procedures, classroom situations, and interlocutors. Within the area of learners' individual differences, there are several elements, namely learners' level of L2 proficiency, interlanguage, learners' affective factors, their cultural background, and L1 background. Included in the affective factors are learners' self-esteem, risk-taking behaviour, anxiety levels, and motivation levels.

CHAPTER 5

METHODOLOGY

This chapter is concerned with the methodological issues surrounding the research. First, I present my starting point followed by discussion of pragmatism as the paradigmatic background. Reasons for my choice of a mixed-methods approach are presented next. Then, description of research design is presented, followed by description of participants, research methods, data collection procedures, and data analysis.

5.1 Research Inquiries as the Starting Point

It is essential for researchers to justify their choice and use of methodology and methods to be employed. Some experts like Crotty (1998) claim that this justification is related to researchers' assumptions about reality brought to the work, and this determines their theoretical perspectives which in turn determine the methodology and research methods to be selected. Guba and Lincoln (1994) claim that "questions of method are secondary to questions of paradigm, which we define as the basic belief system or worldview that guides the investigator" (p. 105), suggesting the essentiality of research paradigm over research methods.

Nevertheless, other experts from a pragmatic approach (for example, Bryman & Bell, 2007; Howe, 1988; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998) argue that concrete purpose and in turn the research problems, rather than the philosophical position of the researcher, determines the methodology of the study. Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998) point out that "Most good researchers prefer addressing their research questions with any

methodological tools available” (p. 21). In a stronger way, they claim the principle of the “dictatorship of the research question” (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998, p. 20).

I have chosen a pragmatic path in seeing the research problem and research questions as the starting point, determining the research methodology and research methods. The main objective of this study is to explore students’ use of oral communication strategies during the implementation of Task-Based Learning (TBL) in a tertiary English language class in Indonesia through three research inquiries, namely students’ responses toward the implementation of TBL, a profile of oral communication strategies used, and shifts in use of oral communication strategies after the implementation of TBL for one semester.

As formulated by Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004), one should “choose the combination or mixture of methods and procedures that works best for answering your research questions” (p. 17). In the current study, following the pattern of the research inquiries to be investigated, both quantitative and qualitative measurements were employed. The quantitative measurement was used to provide a backdrop to research problems two and three, the profile of students’ oral communication strategies and the shift in use of oral communication strategies after the implementation of TBL over one semester. Then, qualitative measurement was employed to respond to research problem one, regarding students’ responses toward the implementation of TBL, and to gain a deeper understanding to answer research question three. This mixed-method study was determined mainly within the qualitative perspective with a contribution from quantitative measurement employed as a backdrop to initiate the analysis.

Prior to the detailed discussion of methodology, pragmatism is presented as the overarching paradigm of this mixed-method study, providing the basis for supporting the work that combines quantitative and qualitative methods.

5.2 Pragmatism

Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003) define pragmatism as

a deconstructive paradigm that debunks such as “truth” and “reality” and focuses instead on “what works” as the truth regarding the research questions under investigation. Pragmatism rejects the either/or choices associated with the paradigm wars, advocates for the use of mixed methods in research, and acknowledges that the values of the researcher play a large roles in interpretation of results. (p. 713)

My choice of pragmatism as the paradigmatic background for my research design was first determined by my belief in the centrality of research problems. The main objective of my study entails the formulation of research problems which may not be able to be adequately answered using quantitative or qualitative design alone. Different from a top-down approach that characterizes post-positivism and privileges epistemology over methods, emphasizing ontological issues above all, pragmatic approach treats issues related to research itself as the principle. Morgan (2007) asserts the essentiality of giving “equal attention to studying both the connection between methodology and epistemology and the connection between methodology and methods” (p. 68). Methodology is the area that connects issues at both the abstract level of epistemology and the mechanical level of methods.

5.2 Mixed-Methods Design – Explanatory Study

Mixed methods research design is a procedure for collecting, analysing, and mixing both quantitative and qualitative research methods in a single study to understand a research problem (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011). It is not simply a combination of two distinct strands. Instead, such a research approach merges, integrates, links, or embeds the two strands (Creswell, 2008), emphasizing the key concept of “integration” (Bryman, 2007). This research design is selected usually due to the complexity of research problems as found in social sciences (Creswell, 2009). I selected this design since I was aware that the use of either quantitative or qualitative approaches by themselves was not adequate to address the research questions.

There are advantages in using mixed-methods (Creswell, 2008; Wiersma & Jurs, 2009). First, mixed-methods research avoids possible uni-method bias. Using more than one method allows the researcher to capitalize on the strengths of each method. Second, it enables researchers to look at something from a variety of perspectives, for a more comprehensive understanding.

This study was an explanatory design. This “consists of first collecting quantitative data then collecting qualitative data to help explain or elaborate on the quantitative results” (Creswell, 2008, p. 560). Following Creswell and Plano Clark’s (2011) model of explanatory design with participant selection, this study basically consisted of two stages with quantitative research initiated and qualitative research followed. Figure 5.1 describes the mixed-methods procedure implemented in the study.

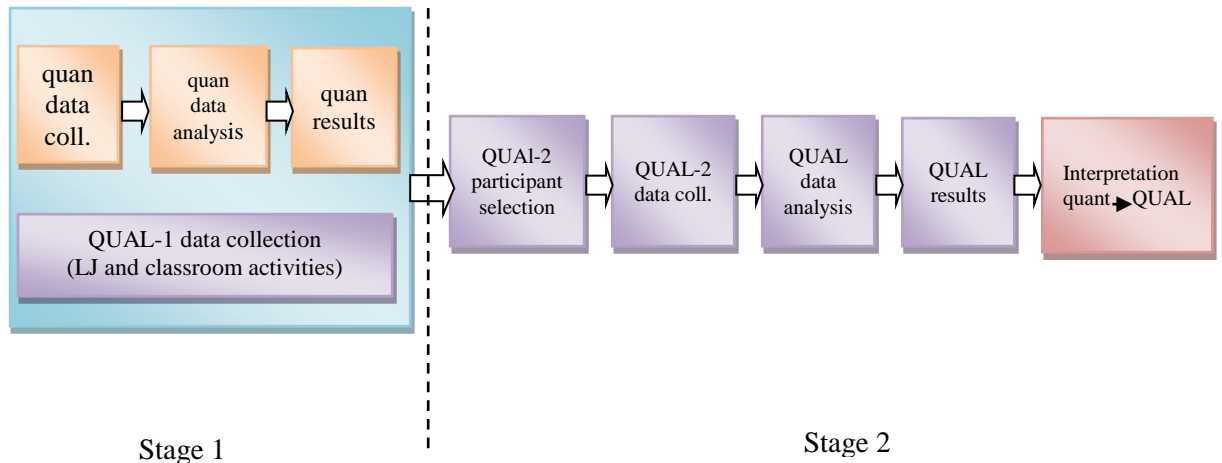


Figure 5.1 Mixed-methods procedure: Participant selection model, adapted from Creswell and Plano Clark (2007)

As shown in Figure 5.1, quantitative is represented in small letters to show that it is not emphasized as much as the qualitative that is presented in capital letters. There were two phases of data collection, different in terms of participants. The first phase is shown in the box on the left while the second phase is shown in the smaller boxes on the right. The study was initiated with quantitative data collection, the distribution of inventory, as well as the first qualitative data collection, the intake of students' Learning Journal (LJ) and recorded classroom activities throughout the semester. The first stage of data collection was conducted with all members of the class as the participants. The second phase of data collection, at the end of semester, was initiated with selection of participant, basing on different groupings of students' level of oral communication skills. These participants were selected from those participating in the first stage of data collection, representing their groups. While the quantitative data provided the general picture, qualitative research continued, giving in-depth understanding of the quantitative results.

5.2.1 Non-experimental research as quantitative study.

The quantitative research selected in this study was non-experimental, having no manipulation of an independent variable and no random assignment to groups by the researcher (Johnson & Christensen, 2012). This study employed a one-group pre-test-post-test design, which Creswell (2009) describes as including a pre-test measure followed by a treatment and a post-test for a single group. The pre-test and post-test was Oral Communication Strategy Inventory (OCSI) developed by Nakatani (2006) while the treatment was the implementation of TBL throughout the semester.

Quantitative measurement was used in response to research problem two, the profile of students' use of oral communication strategies, and research problem three, the shift in use of the strategies after the implementation of TBL over a semester. The statistic analysis used to answer research problem two was descriptive statistics, showing frequency of use of oral communication strategies by three groups of participants. To respond to research problem three concerning the shift in use of strategies, the inventory (OCSI) given at the beginning of semester was compared to the inventory given at the end of semester, also comparing shift in use of strategies by students across different groups. To identify the shift, a comparison study was done, using a t-test. The main reason for using t-test was that the data were interval and within the normality level of distribution of scores.

However, non-experimental research cannot provide strong evidence for causality as experimental research can. "Evidence for causality in non-experimental research is more tentative, more exploratory, and less conclusive" (Johnson &

Christensen, 2008, p. 357). Therefore, what happened with the shift in use of strategies at end of semester after the implementation of TBL throughout a semester was a “probabilistic cause” (Johnson & Christensen, 2008, p. 361). Shift in use of strategies by students toward the end of semester may have been caused by the implementation of TBL throughout the semester. TBL was not a confirmed only cause of the shift in use of the strategies. There were other possible confounding variables which may have affected the shift in use of strategies but could not be controlled, such as students’ exposure to English outside the classroom activities, their previous experience with English learning, their English language aptitude, and so forth. Thus, in the current study, attempts to minimize the effect of confounding variables were made. The participants were those representing real-life settings with no different treatment given to students of different groups. They were of the same class so that a possibility of different treatment given by different teachers could be avoided. Also, as reported by participants, they did not go to private English courses outside classroom activities. Exposure to English outside the classroom activities, such as intentionally watching English movies, listening to English songs, or using English in conversation with friends or family members, experienced by students was possibly due to students’ high motivation to learn English, and this was analysed as a part of the qualitative data.

Furthermore, results from quantitative data, the OCSI, alone could not reveal any of the “meanings and purposes that people ascribe to their actions” (Guba & Lincoln, 1994, p. 110). Thus, in this study, quantitative research was used to show the general tendency of students’ use of oral communication strategies and the shift

in use of the strategies after the implementation of TBL throughout the semester.

Quantitative study was followed by qualitative study as the main emphasis because:

the careful measurement, generalizable samples, experimental control and statistical tools of good quantitative studies are precious assets. When they are combined with the up-close, deep, credible understanding of complex real-world contexts that characterize good qualitative studies, we have a very powerful mix. (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p. 42)

5.2.2 Multi-case study as qualitative study

The distinction between qualitative and quantitative research is a matter of emphasis more than a discrete boundary (Stake, 2010, p. 19). In qualitative research, quantitative ideas have a place, and in quantitative research natural language description and researcher interpretation are expected.

But each of the divisions of science also has a qualitative side, in which personal experience, intuition, and scepticism work alongside each other to help refine the theories and experiments. By qualitative we mean that it relies primarily on human perception and understanding (Stake, 2010, p. 11)

The main differences between quantitative and qualitative research are twofold, namely the aim and the position of the researcher (Stake, 2010). While quantitative research aims for explanation, qualitative research aims for understanding. Quantitative researchers make methodological and other choices partly based on personal preference but gather data objectively. In qualitative studies, the researchers should place him/herself as the instrument, observing actions and contexts subjectively and using his/her personal experience in making interpretations. In the current study, this distinction between quantitative and qualitative research is necessary in order to guide the move from the quantitative data

collection and analysis to the qualitative processes, ending with interpreting results from both.

To gain an in-depth qualitative analysis in this study, an observational multi-case study was selected.

A case study is a qualitative approach in which the investigator explores a bounded system (a case) or multiple bounded systems (cases) over time, through detailed, in-depth data collection involving multiple sources of information (e.g., observations, interviews, audiovisual material, and documents and reports), and reports a case description and case-based themes. (Creswell, 2007, p. 73)

Other experts view a case study as an empirical inquiry that investigates an in-depth understanding of a phenomenon within its real-life context, especially when there are no clear boundaries between the phenomenon and the context (Stake, 1995; Yin, 2009). The current study tried to gain an in-depth understanding of the situation and meanings regarding students' use of oral communication strategies during the implementation of TBL throughout one semester. In this sense, the phenomenon could not be separated from the context and the case was bounded in time and in place, making it appropriate to select case study as the research design for qualitative measure. To be more specific, this study was an observational case study, which employs data gathering techniques such as participant observations, with the focus of the study on a particular organization or some aspects of the organization such as a group of students or certain program held in the classroom (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007). With multi participants being observed, this study was a multi-case study (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007). Multi-case design "can be considered advantageous in that the evidence can be more compelling" (Burns, 2000, p. 464).

As one of the features of case study, the current study employed multiple sources of evidence, namely observations in the form of students' learning journals, focus group discussion, stimulated recall interviews, video-taped classroom activities, and one on one interviews. Because "a case study is both the process of learning about the case and the product of our learning" (Stake, 2006, p. 87), the topics included in some of the methods were both the process and the result of English learning throughout the semester.

Case study analysis may also involve organizing the data for in-depth study and comparison (Patton, 2002). As the case in the current study, students' use of oral communication strategies during the implementation of TBL throughout the semester was described. Comparison was also made in the use of strategies between students of different oral communication skills, namely the high, the middle and the low achievers. Shift in use of strategies at the end of the semester was also identified, comparing the use of strategies at the beginning, when TBL had not been implemented, and the use of strategies at end of semester, after TBL was implemented throughout the semester. Shift in use of strategies was also compared between groups of students.

5.2.3 Research participants.

The subjects of a case study can be one individual, a program, a process, one single depository of documents, or one particular event (see, for example, Bogdan & Biklen, 2007; Merriam, 1988). When the study deals with two or more subjects, it is a multi-case study (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007). I conducted this study with the students

of the Business Administration department of the State Polytechnic of Malang. Second year students were purposively selected as the participants of the study for several reasons. First, all of them passed the entrance test prior to their first year studying at the State Polytechnic of Malang. They had passed first year and were promoted to the second year level. Thus, it can be assumed that they were at a similar level of general proficiency. Second, these students, as opposed to the first year students, were more familiar with the educational and institutional system in State Polytechnic of Malang, including the instructional system applied. First year students were assumed to face difficulties during the transition from high school to university education system, and this may affect their learning process and performance. Third year students were purposively not included since they were in the middle of completing their final project during the data collection period. Among the second year classes, the first class to volunteer to be the participants of the study was selected.

All participants were within a range of oral communication skills levels as determined by the teacher, using students' English achievement scores from the previous semester. To ensure students' levels of oral communication skills, I also administered an oral interview test using the rating criteria developed by Foreign Service Institute (FSI) as presented by Valette (1977, pp. 157-161). In this oral interview test, students' oral communication skills were measured in terms of the accent or pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, fluency, and comprehension. Using students' English final scores from previous semester and results of the oral interview tests I grouped students into three levels of oral communication skills,

namely high, middle and low achievers. From twenty six participants, there were nine high achievers, thirteen middle achievers, and four low achievers.

Following the diagram of the mixed-methods design presented in Figure 5.1, there were two stages of data collection. At the first stage of data collection, all 26 participants completed the close-ended questionnaire distributed at the beginning and end of semester. Throughout the semester, they wrote Learning Journals (LJs) and their in-class activities were also observed and recorded. At the second stage of data collection, a number of participants were selected. From the 26 participants, I expected to have an equal number from each group, the high-middle-low achievers. However, I could not do this as expected since originally there was no equality in the number of students in each group. Twelve students volunteered to participate in Focus Group Discussion (FGD) and Stimulated Recalls (SR), and seven participants volunteered for in-depth interviews. These participants were representatives from three groups despite inequality in numbers of each group.

5.2.4 Methods.

With mixed-methods design employed as the methodology of the current study, a number of instruments were selected for both quantitative and qualitative data collection. For quantitative data collection, I employed close-ended questionnaires, an inventory. For the qualitative study, the multi-cases study, a number of methods were employed. This was to gain data validity which can be done through triangulation of information, involving multiple resources of information (Creswell, 2007). I employed a number of methods, namely, students' Learning

Journals (LJ), videotaped classroom activities, Focus Group Discussion (FGD), Stimulated Recalls (RC), and in-depth interviews.

5.2.4.1 Inventory.

Inventories are commonly used for obtaining the data in educational research especially one quantitative in nature (Wiersma & Jurs, 2009). To gather data dealing with the quantitative measurement, I used an Oral Communication Strategy Inventory (OCSI) developed by Nakatani (2006), as shown in Appendix 1. This inventory was selected due to its confirmed validity and reliability (read also, Nakatani, 2010). This inventory was developed in a study with 400 Japanese university students learning English in a non-English department. I believe this context is similar to that of the participants of the present study, making the possibility of the transferability of the use of the instrument. As mentioned earlier, OCSI was used to respond to research question two about the profile of students' use of oral communication strategies and research question three regarding the shift in use of strategies after one-semester implementation of TBL.

OCSI was administered twice, at the beginning of the semester before the implementation of TBL and at the end of semester after one semester implementation of TBL. I attended the completion of the OCSI to make sure that students understood the questions, standing in front of the class and leading students to respond to the questions one after another. This was done in order to avoid misunderstanding.

There were two sections in this inventory, namely strategies for coping with speaking problems and strategies for coping with listening problems. The first

section comprises eight categories of strategies, namely *social affective, fluency-oriented, negotiation for meaning while speaking, accuracy-oriented, message reduction and alteration, nonverbal strategies while speaking, message abandonment*, and *attempt to think in English*. There were 32 individual strategies included in the first section. The section consists of seven categories of strategies, namely *negotiation for meaning while listening, fluency-maintaining, scanning, getting the gist, nonverbal strategies while listening, less active listener*, and *word-oriented*. For the second section, there were 26 individual strategies.

5.2.4.2 Learning journal (LJ).

As one form of documents, personal journals may help qualitative researchers to obtain information about the participants and to understand the central phenomena of the study (Creswell, 2008). In this study I selected learning journals as one method to collect qualitative data. Throughout the semester, students were expected to write a semi-structured LJ. They were to respond to several questions regarding their responses to the implementation of TBL, problems encountered, strategies to solve problems, and their language skills progress. The questions were as follow:

Do you like the topic given these two weeks? Why?

Did you encounter problems in conducting the oral communication task these two weeks? What was the problem?

How did you solve the problems? What strategies did you use to solve the problems?

Why did you use these strategies? Can you describe the context of your use of the strategies?

Do you think you have solved the problems?

Do you think you have developed your oral communication skills by this week? In what ways have you developed your oral communication skills?

There were five intakes of LJ throughout the semester, each written every two weeks. Fortnightly at the end of a class session, students were given ten to fifteen minutes to write LJ. I attended the first intake of LJ to ensure that I had given students clear instruction regarding the writing of LJ; I was not in the class for the next writing of LJs to make students feel free to express themselves. These LJs were used to track students' development in responding to the implementation of TBL, their problems and solution, and their English learning progress, especially their oral communication skills progress. More specifically, LJ was used as a method to respond to research question one about students' responses toward the implementation of TBL. Data from LJ were also used to provide supporting evidence to respond to research question three about the shift in use of strategies.

Participants were free to write the LJ either in English or in Indonesian, and most of them wrote in Indonesian. Only a few wrote in English, including those who I found to be high achievers and highly motivated students. From the beginning I strongly encouraged them to express their true opinions, feelings and experiences and I assured them that LJ would not affect their English scores at all. I believe that participants understood the purpose of writing LJ since, besides their positive responses, I also found they were not reluctant to express negative responses such as

their dislike of certain topics because these topics were too difficult or not interesting. By the end of the semester, I collected all the 26 sets of LJs. However, a few sets of LJs were not fully completed with five intakes, and this could be due to students' absence from class or other reasons. However, the collected LJs were adequately rich to be used to respond to research question one.

5.2.4.3 Focus group discussion (FGD).

FGD is “a type of group interview in which the moderator (working for the researcher) leads discussion with a small group of individuals (e.g., students, teachers, teenagers) to examine, in detail, how the group think and feel about the topic” (Johnson & Christensen, 2008, p. 209). This method is helpful in exploring topics, as well as generating, testing, refining, and evaluating a certain program (Minichiello, Aroni, & Hays, 2008). I used FGD to gather responses regarding the implementation of TBL, as also related to findings from LJ. I was interested in seeing the interaction between individuals in responding and evaluating the program being implemented. Through FGD, I could see if differences were resolved and consensus was built (Mertens, 2010). Also, FGD was implemented to minimize students' hesitancy or shyness when interviewed one on one.

At the end of the semester, when the students had completed the final test, I invited students to attend a FGD. Attending FGD were 12 students from the three groups: the high, middle, and low achievers. The setting was equipped with two audio recorders and one video recorder. The main data was sourced from the audio recording while the video recording was used as supplementary source.

Questions which arose were those related to students' general opinions about the English lessons given during the semester, the difficulty of the materials, the problems they encountered while performing oral communication tasks, the strategies they used to overcome the problems, and their progress in learning English, especially progress in their oral communication skills. The list of guiding questions is as attached in Appendix 3. The interview was held in Bahasa Indonesia in an attempt to avoid misunderstanding and to obtain an accurate understanding of students' responses.

The discussion ran in a relaxed fashion. Students supported each other in answering my questions. When they had different opinions, they respected others' opinions and beliefs. They were aware that this discussion was to explore opinions from individual perspectives and that there was no 'right' or 'wrong' response.

5.2.4.4 Stimulated recall interview (SR).

Gass and Mackey (2000) describe stimulated recall as a method

... used to prompt participants to recall thoughts they had while performing a task or participating in an event. It is assumed that some tangible (perhaps visual or aural) reminder of an event will stimulate recall of the mental processes in operation during the event itself. (p. 17)

SR in the current study was used because I believe it is difficult to identify students' use of strategies only from methods such as observation and interview. This study was to explore students' use of oral communication strategies which include not only behavioural but also cognitive and metacognitive strategies. SR was selected as a means of eliciting data about thought processes involved in conducting

oral communication tasks. This method was found effective in previous studies on oral communication use (read for example, Khan & Victori, 2011; Lam, 2007). I employed SR to answer research question one about students' responses toward the implementation of TBL and to provide additional evidence to respond research question three about the shift in use of strategies.

At the end of the semester, students had a final speaking test; it was an achievement test. In this test, students were assigned to have a conversation in pairs on a randomly selected topic. One week prior to the final test, students were informed that they would have a test on speaking in pairs on topics that had been covered throughout the semester. There were two types of topics covered, general and business topics. Included in the general topics were topics about friendship, love, happiness, and success whereas the business topics were those about product description, process, and internet. Students were free to choose their partner. The schedule for each pair was determined. The time allocation was between ten to twenty minutes per pair. On the day of the final test, ten to fifteen minutes before the test, the pair was asked to choose two topics for conversation, one general topic and one business topic. The test was audio-recorded.

One day after the completion of the test, twelve students were invited to participate in a stimulated recall activity. Four of these ten students were high achievers, six were middle achievers, and two were low achievers. A time span of one day was considered sufficient for students to recall how they performed during the test. Implementing the stimulated recall on the same day as the test was not possible. During the stimulated recall process, each student was asked to listen to

their audio-recorded test and to recall what they were thinking while producing the spoken utterances. When students were not sure what to say, I helped with guiding questions such as *'What did you want to say at that time?'*, *'Could you express all the messages you wanted to say?'*, *'What do you mean by?'*, *'Why did you say?'*, and so forth. I also raised further questions in order to understand more deeply what problems the students faced as well as the strategies they implemented to solve these problems. These stimulated recalls were audio-recorded.

5.2.4.5 In-depth interview.

In-depth interview is a method very commonly used in qualitative studies.

Green and Thorogood (2004) suggest that interviewing is

a conversation that is directed more or less towards the researcher's needs for data ... and can be seen as a specific kind of interaction, in which the researcher and the interviewee produce language data about beliefs, behaviour, ways of classifying the world, or about how knowledge is categorised. (p. 87)

I selected in-depth interviews to gather data regarding students' perspectives, beliefs, and behaviour regarding their use of strategies as well as their reasons and possible causes for the shift in use of strategies. Semi-structured interviews were preferred over structured interviews in order to make the interviews more flexible and continuous.

In depth interviews were conducted at the end of the semester when students had undertaken a TBL program for one semester. The main purpose for conducting the interview was to review and confirm students' use of strategies in performing oral communication tasks, especially the shift in strategies use where this had

occurred. The interview mainly referred to the questionnaire of OCSI students had submitted at the beginning and end of the semester. However, some questions related to students' perceptions of the impact of TBL on their employment of oral communication strategies and their progress in oral communication skills were also raised.

There were seven students interviewed. Though this number was lower than planned, the seven students were from three different oral proficiency levels, the high, middle, and low achievers. These students were able to contribute detailed information regarding their use and shift in use of strategies as well as their perspectives on the impact of TBL on their use of oral communication strategies. In order to achieve in-depth responses from the participants and to avoid language problems due to the students' limited English skills, the interview was held in a relaxed atmosphere and in the students' first language, Indonesian. Each interview took between 20 and 30 minutes, and students seemed enthusiastic about answering the questions. Interviews were audio recorded.

5.2.4.6 Classroom observation.

Throughout the semester when TBL was implemented, classroom observations were conducted. As defined by Creswell (2008), observation is "the process of gathering open-ended, firsthand information by observing people and places at a research site" (p. 221). This method can provide "information that can be seen directly by the researcher, heard or felt" (Stake, 2010, p. 90), and through observation, researchers can see themselves what the participants actually do rather than what they claim to do (Bloor & Wood, 2006). I used classroom observation to

tap students' actual use of strategies during the classroom activities as well as to see the shift in use of the strategies throughout the semester. Data collected from classroom activities were used to add evidence to the available data collected from other methods; these data were used as the final evidence polishing previous evidence.

Fifteen class sessions were videorecorded using two stand-still video cameras in two corners of the classroom, operated and controlled by an assistant. I also equipped some students with audio-recorders. I used the video-recordings to confirm the use of certain strategies which could not be caught through audio-recordings. This technique of videotaping and audiotaping enabled me to record the activities. As participant-observer I did not have the chance to write notes during the observation. However, being recorded during classroom activities caused some discomfort to the students as well as the teacher, especially during earlier sessions. Fortunately, this was reduced as the sessions went on and everyone became more accustomed to the recording situation.

During the observations, I involved myself in the classroom, sometimes participating in students' conversations and discussions. On many occasions, students asked me questions regarding difficult words and expressions or sentence arrangements. I positioned myself as a participant-as-observer who "spend a good time in the field participating and observing" (Johnson & Christensen, 2008, p. 214). This technique "offers excellent opportunities to see experiences from the views of participants" (Creswell, 2008, p. 222). At the beginning of the semester, I had mentioned to the participants that I would spend time observing them in the

classroom, but I did not have any authority regarding the teaching and the scoring of their performance. However, participants were aware that I was an English teacher; therefore, they frequently asked me for assistance when they had language difficulties, especially in expressing themselves in English.

5.2.5 Triangulation.

Triangulation is basically a strategy or a test used to improve the validity and reliability of research. Patton (2002) advocates the use of triangulation, claiming that “triangulation strengthens a study by combining methods. This can mean using several kinds of methods or data, including using both quantitative and qualitative approaches” (p. 247). Furthermore, Creswell and Miller (2000) mention that “triangulation is a validity procedure where researcher search for convergence among multiple and different sources of information to form themes or categories in a study” (p. 126).

Triangulation was through multi-methods employing both quantitative and qualitative measurements and multiple strategies used to collect qualitative data in the case study. This study was also a response to Nakatani and Goh’s (2007) suggestion to include triangulation in further research on communication strategies.

5.3 Data Collection Process

As shown in Figure 5.1, the data collection process was conducted in two stages with preliminary stage. The stages were as below:

Preliminary data collection

1. Indication of students' existing oral communication skills levels using Foreign Service Institute (FSI) rating scales presented in Valette (1977) as shown in Appendix 2. From this test, students were grouped into three groups, namely the high, middle, and low achievers. The high achievers were those with the level of proficiency 3 and above while the middle achievers were with the level of proficiency 2 and 2+ and the low achievers were with the level of proficiency 1 and 1+.
2. Completion of Oral Communication Strategy Inventory (OCSI) adapted from Nakatani (2006).

Stage One: During the Semester (all students were participants)

1. Students' Learning Journal (LJ)
All 26 students in the class wrote LJ once every two weeks, making five LJs throughout the semester.
2. Classroom activities videotaping and audio-recording
Classroom activities were both videotaped and audio-recorded.

Stage Two: Final Data Collection (Participants Selected)

1. Redo of questionnaire completion (OCSI) by all students in the class.
2. Videotaped and audio-recorded pair work final test on speaking by 12 students, all representing three different groups.
3. Stimulated Recalls (SR) regarding the 12 students' recorded final test
4. Focus Group Discussion (FGD), attended by 12 participants representing three different groups, the high, middle and low achievers.

5. In-depth interview confirming the completion of OCSI, especially the reasons for the shift in use of strategies. Seven participants were interviewed, all representing three different groups.

5.4 Data Analysis

Data analysis in mixed methods research consists of analysing separately the quantitative data using quantitative methods and the qualitative data using qualitative methods. It also involves analysing both sets of information using techniques that “mix” the quantitative and qualitative data and results-the mixed methods analysis. (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011, p. 203)

The data analysis in the present study was conducted from the beginning of data collection until the end of writing up the thesis report. Basically, the analysis followed Creswell and Plano Clark’s (2011) seven steps, namely preparing the data for analysis, exploring the data, analysing the data, representing the data analysis, interpreting the results, and validating the data and results. As shown in Figure 5.1, this study was conducted adapting the model of explanatory design with participant selection. At the first stage of data collection, both quantitative and qualitative data were collected with all students in the class while at the second stage the follow-up qualitative data were gathered with selected participants. The quantitative data were analysed using quantitative methods separately from the qualitative data. Findings from quantitative data, the OCSI inputs, were employed to gather qualitative data from FGD and in-depth interviews. Data from LJ, classroom observations and SR were used as final evidence to support available evidence. Then, findings from both were connected and interpretation was drawn.

Quantitative data were analysed separately from qualitative data. At the first stage, data from students' OCSI at the beginning of the semester (OCSI 1) was analysed using quantitative method. Descriptive statistic analysis was used to describe the profile of students' use of oral communication strategies prior to the implementation of TBL. Included in the analysis were description and comparison of strategies use by students of three different groups as well as description and comparison of speaking versus listening strategies. Descriptive analysis was done to determine general trends and to see the normality of the distribution of the data. I found that the data were within normality level, and therefore T-test was used for comparison analysis. Findings from OCSI 1 were to respond to one part of research question two. Then, data from OCSI filled out at the end of the semester (OCSI 2) were analysed using descriptive statistic and following the same pattern as OCSI 1. Next, findings from OCSI 1 were compared to OCSI 2. Comparison analysis was done through statistical analysis using t-test. From this analysis, it could be identified which strategies were significantly changed, either increased, reduced, or unchanged. Significant changes and outstanding or major findings were highlighted for further analysed and explored more through qualitative data collection.

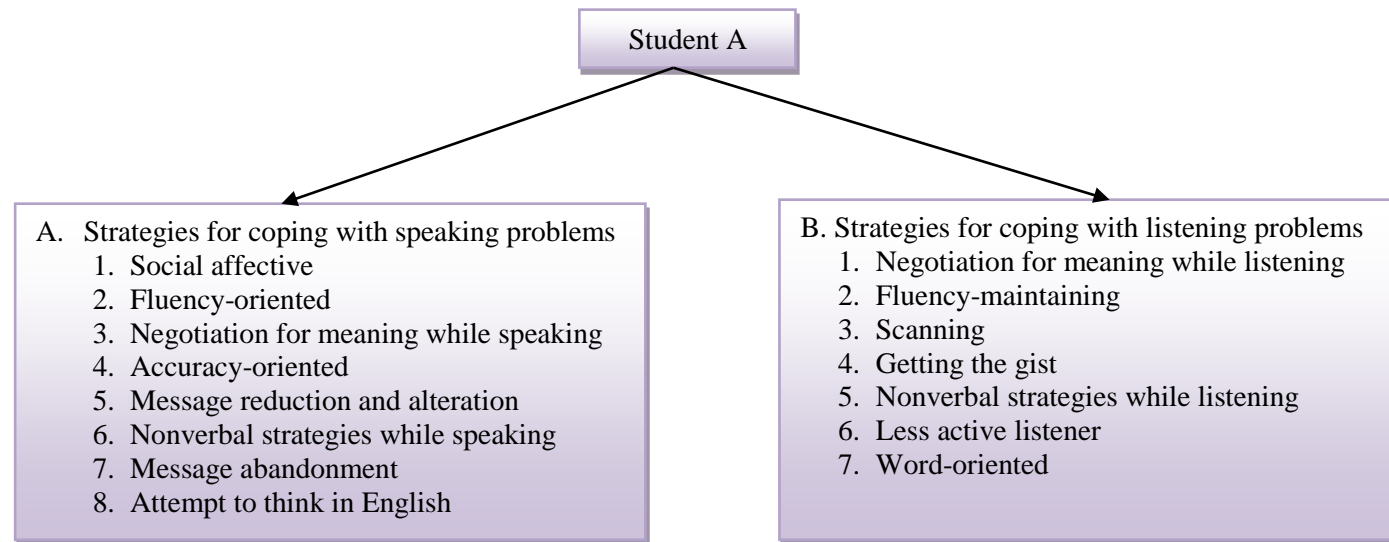
Qualitative data analysis was initiated with the transcription process. In this process, evidence was grouped and labelled with themes. Emerging themes were compared. Similar themes were grouped to build a larger dimension or perspective. The emerging themes were then discussed, connected with the quantitative findings and related to theories.

After the phase of *analysing the data* in each part, the quantitative and qualitative parts, results from both analyses were represented together. Presentation of results followed the case-study style, which was thematic. Quantitative findings were presented as the backdrop, providing background for the qualitative findings. Qualitative findings provided explanations and reasons for what had been found in the quantitative data analysis. The case study was “layered” (Patton, 2002, p. 447). Within one single program, which was the implementation of TBL, there were case studies of several individuals who were grouped into three based on different levels of oral communication skills. In such a layered case study, analysis starts from individual case studies followed by cross-case pattern analysis of the individual cases that later build the analysis of a larger unit, which was three different groups, and finally built the whole case study of the program of TBL. The cross-case pattern analysis may present comparison and contrast of the individual case studies (Patton, 2002). This multi-layer analysis is presented in Figure 5.2.

During the phase of interpreting the results, combined findings from both quantitative and qualitative analysis were referred back to theories, and discussion of the findings was made. I also include my personal perspectives and assessment on what the findings mean to me. Finally, findings and discussions were referred back to research questions, ensuring that research questions had been addressed appropriately and adequately.

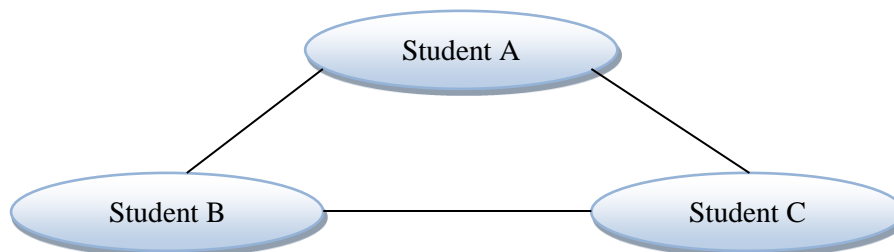
1. Within-Case Analysis (Analysis of one single participant/student)

Eg.

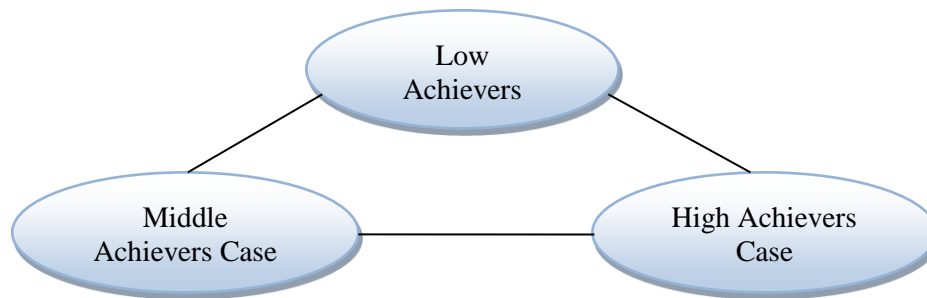


2. Across-Case Analysis 1 (students of the same group)

Eg. Analysis of low achievers



3. Across-Case Analysis 2 (all students of different groups)



4. Chronological Data Analysis

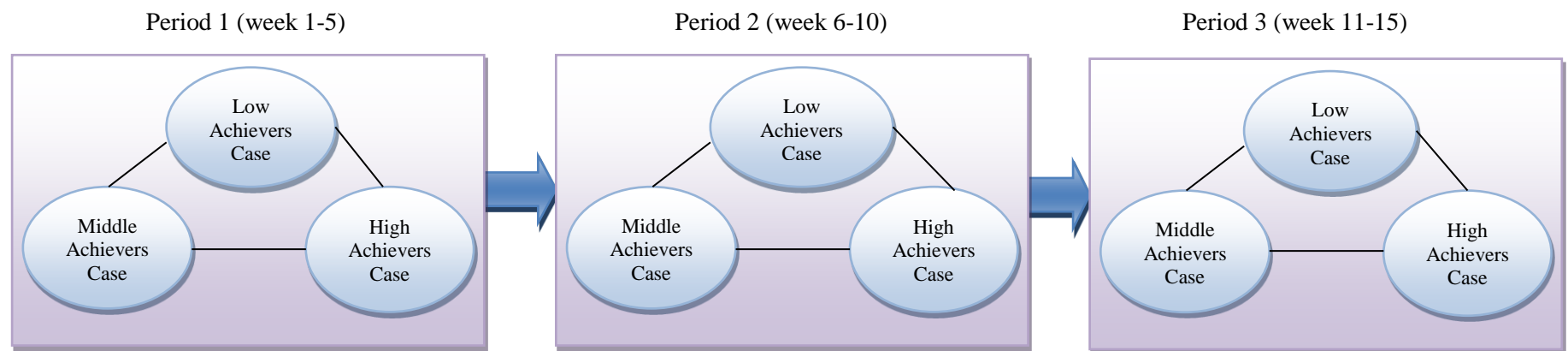


Figure 5.2 Framework of data analysis

CHAPTER 6

IMPLEMENTATION OF TASK-BASED LEARNING

This chapter responds to the first research question regarding the implementation of the Task-Based Learning (TBL) program. The research findings discussed cover those sourced from the focus group discussion (FGD) and the learning journals (LJs). Discussion includes students' responses toward the implementation of TBL over one semester, the problems encountered, their strategies to solve these, and their reported progress in the learning of English skills, especially the development of their oral communication skills.

All excerpts from both the FGD and LJ were translated into English, but those already written or expressed in English are put as they were expressed by students. Therefore some minor grammar and diction errors are inevitable. The translation from Bahasa Indonesia into English attempted to be thematic and is as close as possible to the original message. If clarification appeared necessary, it is presented in square brackets. Excerpts are presented with pseudonyms. Identification of students' proficiency levels is put following the student's pseudonym. (Hi) refers to *High Achievers*, (Md) refers to *Middle Achievers*, and (Lo) refers to *Low Achievers*. The excerpts taken from LJs are provided with number of the LJ entries which could be LJ 1 to LJ 5. LJ 1 means this excerpt was taken from the first LJ which was written in the first two weeks of the semester; LJ 2 refers to the second LJ which was written in the fourth week, and so forth.

6.1 Students' Responses toward the Implementation of TBL

During the FGD, and as reported in students' LJ, students voiced positive attitudes toward the English lessons. They thought that the English lesson they experienced in that semester was different in positive ways and most reported they liked the English lessons given in this semester better than those of previous semesters. Some reasons were given: the interesting topics, the familiar terms and topics, the difficulty level of the materials which was within their level of proficiency, their gaining new knowledge, the arrangement of group work, and the teaching and learning methods.

The most frequent reason for enjoying the English lessons, as reported by students, was the interesting topics. Students said that they felt comfortable with the topics and had fun in performing the tasks. This was more common among the high and middle achievers. Below are excerpts from students' LJs.

Yes, I like when we talk about happiness and success. We have interesting discussion. (Cantik, Hi, LJ 2)

The topics very interested [very interesting]. Can make me enjoy in the class. (Ika, Hi, LJ 3)

... because the lesson can make me enjoy and comfortable. (Baskoro, Hi, LJ 4)

Yes, I like the lesson because the topics are interesting and fun. (Nanang, Md, LJ 4)

I like the topic because it is very interesting and be a trend right now. (Merdu, Md, LJ 4)

I like because the topics that given is very funny. I feel enjoy during English lesson, and it doesn't make me bored.... (Firman, Md, LJ 5)

I like the topic about product description because it was fun; I could enjoy it. (Saputra, Lo, LJ 3)

The second most common reason why students liked the English lessons was their familiarity with the topics. These topics were those related to teenagers and their daily life. In accomplishing the oral communication tasks regarding these

topics, most low achievers used words or expressions familiar to them. Students also reported that the topics were those they often experienced in their real daily life.

These topics reflect their own experience. Therefore, during the class activities, they could share opinions about their own experience. This made the lessons enjoyable.

...[I like the lesson] because the topics are interesting and it always happens around us in our life. (Cantik, Hi, LJ 1)

Yes, I like the topics this week about friendship and love because that topics very familiar with me. I think that topic for teen, so I like it. (Mita, Hi, LJ 1)

I like the topics because these topics are real; every day we meet friends and we also experience 'love' (Sayang, Hi, LJ 1)

Yes, [I like] This is because these 2 topics ['friendship' and 'love'] reflect our own experience. (Sandi, Md, LJ 1)

I like the two topics because they are related to adolescent life. (Merdu, Md, LJ 1)

I really like the topics given this week. The words used are familiar to me, and I often use the words in daily conversations. This makes me easier to follow the class better. (Nuri, Lo, LJ 1)

The above findings with regard to topics given during the semester suggest that TBL can create a situation which arouses learners' interest and engages them in learning. Willis and Willis (2007, 2009) describe this as one characteristic of a task. In this sense, learners' interest engagement nurtures their enthusiasm for learning English. That students were enthusiastic in attending English lessons due to familiarity with topics confirms that real life topics, a core premise of TBL (for example, Ellis, 2003a; Leaver & Willis, 2004; Nunan, 2006; Skehan, 1998; Willis & Willis, 2009), promote language learning and skills development. This is consistent with findings of previous studies (for example, Selinker & Douglas, 1985; Zuengler & Bent, 1991). As viewed from Levelt's (1989) theory of speech production process, conceptualization is the first phase in which speakers should have concepts or information to be conveyed. Being familiar with and interested in the information to be conveyed is an advantage. Familiarity with the discourse domain, including topics, influences speech fluency (Selinker & Douglas, 1985). Engaging topics also

encourage students to have a ‘sense of ownership’ of the task products they are creating, an outcome which Lovick and Cobb (2007) found to be one of the benefits of TBL. It is also claimed that interesting and engaging topics that provide more exposure to real language use reduce learners’ anxiety (Steinberg & Horwitz, 1986; Youngblood, 1991). One reason for this may be that students focus on the topics and forget that they are using a second language.

Another reason why students liked English lessons this semester, as students mentioned in their LJs, was that the difficulty of the materials was within their level of English proficiency. Students reported that, when the materials were not too difficult for them to follow, they were happy to perform the tasks. Only a few lessons, which students did not like, were too difficult or too complicated; these lessons were at a level which students considered beyond their linguistic ability. The preference for easy lessons was more common among the middle and low achievers.

I like the topic about happiness because it is easy to understand. But I did not really like the topic about success because it is rather difficult. (Sandi, Md, LJ 2)

The topics are not too difficult for me. Therefore, I can follow the lesson. (Nuri, Lo, LJ 5)

The difficulty of the lesson and materials was also addressed in the FGD. In a positive way, students mentioned that the materials were not too difficult in the sense that they could solve problems encountered while performing the given tasks. The extra assignments were not a burden for them. An appropriate level of difficulty of materials is conducive for learning development in that students are not frustrated in their attempts to engage in the learning process. As claimed by Krashen (1985), in his ‘input hypothesis’, input should provide a challenge but not be so difficult as to frustrate learners. Frustration may result in high anxiety that, in turn, may inhibit the

development of language learning (Arnold, 1999). Therefore, tailoring learning materials at an appropriate level of difficulty for students is essential in promoting the language learning progress.

- Researcher : Do you think the English lessons this semester is hard?
 Students : No, I don't think so.
 Researcher : But, are you aware that you have more assignments this semester?
 Students : yes ...
 Researcher : What makes it easy to do the assignments?
 Nanang : Because most of the assignments are done in groups.
 Researcher : So, you like working in groups?
 Students : Yes ...
 Researcher : What makes you like working in groups?
 Vera : I can't think seriously when I have to work individually.
 Mita : We can get help from other friends.

 Researcher : So, if you work in groups you can share with friends?
 Students : Yes, Mam
 Researcher : How about the benefit of group work for the high achievers?
 Nanang (Md) : She/He can teach students of the lower achievement.
 Researcher : So, what is the benefit for her/him? She/He is good enough in English.
 Nanang (Md) : He/She can memorize more frequently
 Dيار (Hi) : In order that our knowledge is useful and meaningful
 Maulana (Md) : barokah [bless full]
 Baskoro(Hi) : We will never know our level of ability if we do not share with friends.
 Friends can also help correcting our errors
 Mita (Hi) : yes, Mam. So that we are aware of our own mistakes and weaknesses.

Students also mentioned that they happily accomplished the tasks because most of the assignments were group work where they could share with each other. Group work was another reason for students to like the English lessons. Students felt that they learned a great deal from group work. The lower achievers were helped by the higher achievers who corrected the errors or mistakes and the higher achievers benefited from guiding their friends.

A preference for group work as their strategy in performing the tasks was mentioned by all groups. One reason for this was that students received help from friends when they faced problems. This supports the findings from the survey using the Oral Communication Strategy Inventory (OSCI) which shows students favoured

asking other people for help. This strategy was positioned as the second most favoured strategy at both the beginning and end of semester (see Chapter 7).

Working in groups does not necessarily refer only to appealing for assistance.

Rather, students claimed that group work was more about sharing task responsibilities. They referred to the expertise of team members when distributing the tasks. Unfortunately they seemed not to have effective arrangements or strategies for the group work.

- | | |
|--------------|---|
| Researcher | : Now we go back to group work. How did you manage your group work?
Do you have certain strategy to conduct the group work? |
| Baskoro (Hi) | : It is based on the member's expertise, mam. |
| Nanang (Md) | : So, if for example Wildhan wants to do the computer stuff, we will let him do the computer stuff. |
| Researcher | : Do you have such an arrangement like when you have 5 tasks for a group of 5, then student A will do task 1, student B will do task 2, etc, and then you meet together and share the individual works? |
| Females | : No, Mam, we rarely did that way |
| Males | : Very rare |
| Students | : We just did the work together. |

This classroom arrangement, which allowed students to interact with each other, also stimulated students' enthusiasm for learning English. Students found the classroom arrangement, which was more group-work oriented, beneficial. Students were able to share with other students and could find help more easily; students of both high and low achievement felt that they learned from the group work.

Familiarity with interlocutors facilitated fluency in interaction and supported the development of language learning, as has been found out in several studies (for example, Lee, 2004; Plough & Gass, 1993). Interlocutors who are familiar each other are more willing to signal non-understanding and negotiate. That working in groups or pairs may facilitate reduced levels of anxiety is consistent with a study by Mustapha et al. (2010). This situation promotes the progress of English oral

communication skills as has been found in this study and several previous studies (for example, Hewitt & Stephenson, 2011; Steinberg & Horwitz, 1986; Woodrow, 2006). Working with familiar interlocutors means that students are able to predict the interlocutors' behaviour. As conceptualized by DeVito (1992), trust is related to the predictability of another's behaviour. Thus, working with familiar interlocutors nurtures trust, and this leads to increased risk taking behaviour since trust is regarded as basic to encouraging risk taking behaviour (DeVito, 1992). Therefore, working with familiar interlocutors in groups or in pairs creates a situation in which students feeling secure to express lack of understanding or difficulties in a non-threatening situation that also encourages risk-taking behaviour. This is consistent with findings from previous studies by Gardner and Steinberg (2005) and Kurihara (2006).

Students also reported that they liked the English lessons because they believed they gained new knowledge, which could be either English knowledge or 'knowledge of life'. Students reported they liked some lessons because from these lessons they learned new vocabulary items. They mentioned that they came to "know the meaning of love and friendship"; they got "knowledge about happiness"; they became able to "understand about the way to be the best friend"; they "learned about communication with relations"; or, the topics discussed increased students "positive thinking".

Yes [I like the lesson] because I want to know more about the meaning of 'happiness and success'. Besides, I will get more knowledge on how to conduct an interview. (Baskoro, Hi, LJ 2)

I like the topics given this week to me, because I get many vocabulary and opinion, especially to be success people. (Rejeki, Hi, LJ 2)

Yes I like because I can learn about communication with my relation. (Dinata, Md, LJ 3)

Yes [I like the topic]. I think the topics can make me always positive thinking with anything. (Dita, Md, LJ 5)

Yes [I like the topic] because I was interested in the topic and I got knowledge in offering products or services. (Maulana, Md, LJ 3)

No, I didn't really like the topic of 'Happiness' but I like the topic of 'Success' because this made me know about the ways of gaining success. (Saputra, Lo, LJ 2)

In addition to being interesting and real-life-related, these topics offer new knowledge, and this stimulates curiosity and the feeling of being challenged. Understanding this new knowledge is relevant to fulfilling student need for information about life. These can be included as factors of internal-attitudinal structure of motivation, namely interest and relevance (Saville-Troike, 2006). Curiosity and the feeling of being challenged decreases attention on linguistic difficulties students might encounter. This may result in students having higher motivation to talk, providing assistance for students in the first phase of speech production process, namely the conceptualization stage in which speakers conceive an intention to talk (Levelt, 1989). Ease at this very first phase will support the following phases and result in fluency in the whole speech production process.

Another reason students liked the English lessons was because of the comfortable classroom situation. Students found the teacher presented the materials in a more attractive and encouraging way. The classroom activities were both interesting and challenging for them. Students also enjoyed being provided with more opportunities to practice using English in oral communication.

Researcher	: This semester is different from last semester?
Baskoro (Hi)	: We have a lot of communication (oral communication)
Girls	: We have a lot of speaking practice this semester
Vera (Md)	: Last semester we had a lot of memorizing words activities
Baskoro (Hi)	: Last semester we rarely met the lecturer

In these interactions, students “talk not for the sake of producing language as an end in itself, but as a means of sharing ideas and opinions to achieve individual

goals” (Pica et al., 1993, p. 10). Opportunities provided for students to have interaction and negotiation are regarded as input stimulating to the development of oral communication skills because interactional tasks promote language acquisition and make input comprehensible (Seedhouse, 1999). Furthermore, “more comprehensible input clearly results in more language acquisition” (Krashen, 1991, p. 411), and this will, later, lead to better English proficiency, discussed in the section 6.3 in this chapter.

However, requiring students to focus on memorizing new words was not favoured by the students. This contradicted what students mentioned in their LJs in which they wrote that one strategy to solve their linguistic problems was enriching their vocabulary by memorizing new words. Perhaps memorizing new words is a strategy that students like when it is balanced with other activities such as practicing speaking when students can attempt to use newly memorized words.

In addition, teacher absence was not regarded positively by the students. Perhaps their reluctance to miss lessons was because students regarded the teacher as their model in learning English. In their LJs, some students stated that taking their English teacher as the model and consulting with the teacher was one of the strategies used to solve their problems. Students could not find a good model when they rarely met with the teacher.

A more focused question about the role of the teacher in the classroom was used during the FGD. Students responded that the teacher’s presence in the classroom was vital. When students were to work independently in groups or in

pairs, students confirmed that they needed the teacher around to help them when they encountered problems. Students also mentioned that they would not work to their fullest potential without the teacher's presence in the classroom. They thought that the teacher's attention was essential in motivating them to accomplish the given tasks.

- Researcher : Now, what is your opinion about the role of a teacher in the classroom?
 Baskoro (Hi) : Very vital, Mam
 Researcher : What do you mean 'very vital'? What about if you are given certain task to accomplish in groups and the teacher is not there in the classroom? What about if you have to submit the completed assignment or to report the assignment in the following lesson?
 Vera and Merdu : Then, no one control our works, no one pay attention to us
 Sayang(Hi) : Our work will not be maximally completed
 Researcher : So, the role of a teacher is to control the students?
 Students : Yes Mam
 Researcher : When you have to work independently or have a group or pair discussion, do you still need the presence of a teacher?
 Students : Yes, Mam
 Researcher : Then, what other role does a teacher should perform?
 Students : To help students, to whom students ask for a help

Students hold high respect for their teachers who are believed, and expected, not only to have the knowledge and skills to be transferred to students but also to act as role models in learning. Students' positioning of the teacher-as-model reinforces that, within an English as a Foreign Language (EFL) setting, like in Indonesia, where the target language input is very limited (Chaudron, 1988) and exposure to the target language interaction is restricted to the classroom activities (Hall, 2002), teachers are an essential source of linguistic input (Tulung, 2004) and teacher-talk may serve as important input (Kennedy, 1996). This may also be due to the embedded belief within Indonesian learning culture that teachers should be treated with respect (Charlesworth, 2008; Novera, 2004).

Another issue was raised regarding the most interesting topic given in the English lessons. Students responded that one of the most interesting topics was the Internet. They gave several reasons for favouring this topic. First, the topic was within the students' interest and they enjoyed talking about it. Secondly, the Internet was a topic that was very familiar with the students; it was something that students experienced in their daily activities. Third, students considered the materials were within their level of difficulty. Fourth, students stated that, from this English lesson about "internet", they gained knowledge which was not only related to the improvement of their English skills but also to their general knowledge about the internet. Below are some excerpts from students' LJs regarding their reasons for favouring the topic of internet.

We talked about internet, and I am so interested with internet (Cantik, Hi, LJ 4).

I liked this topic [internet] because this topic is easy and we can enjoy it (Mita, Hi, LJ 4)

I liked the lesson this week because the lesson can make me enjoy and comfortable and I have new vocab and lesson. (Baskoro, Hi, LJ 4)

I liked this topic because it was about internet and internet is something I really understand and love. (Bidadari, Md, LJ 4)

...because in this lesson, I could enrich my knowledge about internet. (Lincah, Md, LJ 4)

Another topic on business English which students considered interesting was that of 'product description'. Students liked doing the tasks on 'product description' with the main reason being the way the task was accomplished by the students. They liked the simulation as they performed the task. Furthermore, students were also aware that this skill and knowledge about 'product description' would be beneficial for them later in real work when they finish their study. Students felt they benefited from learning how to promote and offer products or services as well as how to communicate in business. The issue of benefitting from group work was again

voiced. In short, students' reasons for favouring the topic of 'product description' were not only internally driven but also a result of instrumental motivation. Below are the excerpts from the group discussion and students' LJs.

Researcher : what about the business topic?
 Vera(Md) : product description
 Researcher : why is this topic interesting?
 Maulana (Md) : because we did simulation
 Mita (Hi) : it was like learning marketing, Mam
 Sayang (Hi) : and if later we work in a company, we will not always use bahasa Indonesia, right? We will also have to use English, especially when we work with foreigners. Therefore, we need to learn this business English.

I liked this topic because I can learn about communication with relation (Dinata, Md, LJ 3)

Yes, I liked the lesson because we had to work in groups and I like working in groups. This group work teaches us how to cooperate with others (Nanang, Md, LJ 3)

I liked the topics because I was taught about how to offer products to consumers (Dinda, Hi, LJ 3)

To balance the previous question about students' favourite topics, a question about what topics students considered most difficult was also asked. Students said that the topic of "describing process" was the most difficult. In this lesson, students were asked to describe the process of making "origami". Students were to work in groups, in a jigsaw strategy. There were five kinds of origami, with each origami assigned to one expert group. First, students were allowed time to learn the vocabulary items to be used in describing the origami. Then, they paid attention to the pictures and practiced folding the origami as shown in the pictures. When they were proficient doing the origami within their expert group, they were asked to share with students of other expert groups. By doing so, students were able to do the five kinds of origami. In accomplishing the tasks, students found problems in expressing themselves using appropriate words and expressions, despite the fact that the expressions had already been provided for them. They found the expressions were too unfamiliar although they enjoyed the activity of making the origami, and they

were enthusiastic and eager to complete all the five kinds of origami. However, it seemed that the attraction of making the origami distracted them from using the language necessary for describing the process. Instead, students were more attracted to the activity of doing the origami.

- | | |
|--------------|--|
| Researcher | : What topic was the most difficult for you? |
| Females | : 'describing process', Mam |
| Researcher | : What was difficult about it? |
| Students | : In expressing the intention |
| Researcher | : Why? |
| Maulana(Md) | : The words ... |
| Females | : Yeah, the words ... |
| Nanang (Md) | : The words and expressions seemed awkward to me. |
| Researcher | : Which expressions are too difficult? |
| Mita (Hi) | : The one 'making origami', Mam |
| Researcher | : But was the activity interesting to you? |
| Mita (Hi) | : Yes, the activity was interesting. But, it was so difficult to describe. So, I was lazy to talk. |
| Researcher | : What could be the weaknesses of such an activity? |
| Baskoro (Hi) | : We did not focus mam |
| Researcher | : But, I noticed you focused on doing the origami |
| Students | : Yes, mam. We were very curious to the origami, and we wanted to do it again and again. |
| Researcher | : so, you did not focus on the language but focus more on the origami? |
| Students | : Yes, Mam |

From the above excerpt it can be seen that level of difficulty of learning materials is important to arouse learners' engagement. Being interesting alone does not guarantee a topic will stimulate learners engagement. Therefore, a combination of being interesting, familiar, real-life, and within appropriate level of difficulty can make learning materials stimulating to learners' engagement and lead to learning progress.

6.2 Problems and Strategies during Classroom Interactions

During the implementation of TBL over a semester, students wrote LJ reporting some points including problems encountered during the semester as well as

the strategies they implemented and progress achieved toward the end of the semester. Findings from LJ were confirmed with those from FGD. In the current study, oral communication skills are defined as including linguistic, sociolinguistic as well as conversational skills, and problems encountered by students in conducting oral communication certainly include linguistic and non-linguistic problems. Strategies implemented were also reported as including linguistic and non-linguistic strategies. This section discusses problems and the strategies to solve the problems and relates these points to theories and previous studies in order to identify the cause of the problems and possible solutions are suggested. Discussion is finally related to progress students achieved toward the end of the semester.

There were seven areas of difficulty which students reported in their LJ. Included in the linguistic problems were students' inability to express themselves in English, their limited vocabulary, their inability to arrange words into appropriate sentences, and their lack of fluency in speaking English. Non-linguistic problems included students' belief of their poor English skills, their low self-confidence in speaking in English, and their lack of ability in using gestures and facial expressions during the communication.

Disregarding non-linguistic problems, the features of oral speech itself are potentially problematic. Its special features of face-to-face interaction, real time synthesis of talk, and spontaneous responses (Bygate, 2001; McCarthy, 1998; Meyer & Kiley, 1998; Widdowson, 1978) reflect the complexity of this skill

6.2.1 Linguistic problems and strategies.

Linguistic problems, as students reported in their LJs, were inter-related. Students' lack of ability to express themselves in English may be due to their limited vocabulary or due to their inability to put words into appropriate sentences. Of these, students' limited vocabulary seemed most dominant. These linguistic problems were encountered by most students in all groups, the high, middle, and low achievers. These problems were reported mostly as occurring in the beginning and middle of semester by the high and middle achievers. However, the low achievers still confronted these problems by the end of semester, despite their reported improved linguistic skills.

Below are some excerpts from students' LJs. These extracts were taken in the beginning and end of semester in order to explore a possible shift in problems. LJ 1 means the entry was written in the first week of the semester while LJ 2 was written in the second or third week. LJ 4 and 5 were written at the end of the semester.

- | | |
|-------------|---|
| Cantik (Hi) | : Yes, (I encounter problems). Because sometimes it's hard for me to find the correct and good sentences about the idea that I want to say. (LJ 1)
I still have the same problems. It's hard to arrange my words to be good sentences. (LJ 2)
It's hard to describe the process of something. (LJ 5) |
| Sayang (Hi) | : Basically the words and the topics are of daily life. However sometimes I still encounter problems to express my opinions. (LJ 1)
There are some words that I don't know the meaning. (LJ 2) |
| Dinata (Md) | : I have problems with my vocabulary. I think I can't speak better. (LJ 1)
Some words make me confused. (LJ 2) |
| Sandi (Md) | : The main problem was my poor vocabulary, sometimes I did not understand some words the teacher said. It was also difficult for me to express myself in oral English because it's hard for me to put words in proper sentences. (LJ 1)
The same problems I found last week. I found problems in vocabulary and making sentences. (LJ 2) |

- Nuri (Lo) : I often find problems in communicating in English. My English is very poor, and this makes me difficult to understand the topics given. (LJ 1)
My main problem was my poor English skills especially in oral communication skills. (LJ 2)
I do not have adequate vocabulary to use in appropriate English communication (LJ 4)
The main problem I faced was difficulty in doing oral communication. This is due to my poor vocabulary. (LJ 5)
- Abunawas (Lo) : I found problems with my poor vocabulary. (LJ 1)
I still face problems with my vocabulary. (LJ 2)
I did not really understand the conversations and I still have poor vocabulary. (LJ 5)

The most common linguistic problem that students considered to be a main hindrance in oral communication was their inability to express themselves in English. However, they believe that this is the result of limited vocabulary. Most students, especially the middle and low achievers, believed they faced difficulties in conducting the given tasks in the classroom due to limited vocabulary including the pronunciation of new words. They said that ‘there were some words that made them confused’; they ‘forgot the vocabulary’; they ‘did not understand the meaning of certain words’; they ‘could not find appropriate words’; they ‘could not translate certain words into English or into Bahasa Indonesia’. All of these relate to limited vocabulary knowledge.

Furthermore, with limited vocabulary, students experienced difficulties in arranging words into correct sentences. Some students mentioned that it was hard to find the correct sentences and it was hard to arrange words into good sentences. Students may know the words they wanted to use, but they still found problems in arranging words into correct English sentences. This problem was found among the high and middle achievers.

Some students, as reported by some middle achievers, stated they could not speak in English as fluently as they expected, especially in the middle to the end of semester.

- Maulana (Md) : Maybe I was too nervous and I was not fluent enough in explaining things in English. (LJ 4)
 I was not fluent enough in describing things in English. (LJ 5)
- Linciah (Md) : Yes, I was not fluent enough in speaking English. (LJ 4)

Three linguistic problems encountered by students included limited vocabulary, difficulty in arranging sentences into appropriate sentences, and low speaking fluency. The first and the second problems are similar to what Nation (1990) claims as two possible reasons for language learners not being able to express what they want, which are that students do not know adequate vocabulary and that they do not know how to use the words productively in the spoken language. These two problems cause lack of fluency. Of these linguistic problems, the root cause is basically limited vocabulary because vocabulary is the first prerequisite for communicative competence (Gebhard, 2000; Nunan, 1999) without which communication is seldom successful (Rivers, 1981; Widdowson, 1978). Lexicon as the first criterion for spoken fluency is relevant for the participants of the present study who were mostly beginner and pre-intermediate proficiency levels. This is resonant with what Hilton (2008) claims, that for fluency enhancement, lexical knowledge is fundamental. In short, a possible solution to linguistic problems as encountered by participants of the study starts with vocabulary improvement.

Furthermore, as viewed from Levelt's (1989) production theory, the second stage of speech production, namely 'formulation', is initiated with selection of appropriate lexicon and planning putting these lexicon into utterances during the

‘grammatical encoding’ followed by ‘phonological encoding’. The next stage, ‘articulation’, in which selected planned lexicon is articulated into utterances through activation and control of articulatory system producing overt speech. Description of speech production process supports the view that it is vocabulary that needs to be mastered first, followed by the skills of arranging words into sentences and enhancement of fluency. Thus, when vocabulary improvement is gained, the second problem of arranging words into appropriate sentences can, later, be solved and fluency enhancement will follow as well.

Regarding these linguistic problems, there were six main linguistic strategies students reported. They were reading English texts, improving vocabulary, translating from bahasa Indonesia to English or vice versa, writing sentences before oral communication, practicing English, and improving grammar mastery.

The first strategy used in an attempt to solve students’ linguistic problems is increased reading of English passages or articles. Students mentioned that they needed to read more English articles and passages, especially those related to the topics being discussed during the class activities. Further, students also reported that by reading more they would learn more new words to enrich their vocabulary. They believed reading would enable them to better arrange words into good sentences. This also included checking words in a dictionary. Many students claimed that using a dictionary more frequently would improve their vocabulary.

Below are some excerpts from students’ LJs. These excerpts are the response to the questions of what strategies students used to solve their problems in performing the oral communication tasks in the classroom and the reasons why they

selected these strategies. As can be seen, some students also described the context within which they implemented the strategies.

I read more articles on the internet about the topics. By read the articles (that written in English) I can arrange my words to be a good sentences. So, I can feel confidence whenever I speak.(Cantik, Hi, LJ 1)

By reading books/passages. If I find new expressions, I'll check dictionaries. Because I think this strategy is easy to do and it is within my capability. When I try to find the meaning of certain expressions in dictionaries, then I use the terms in a sentence. (Baskoro, Hi, LJ 1)

I usually ask friends or look up at the dictionary in my mobile phone. When I don't understand some expressions/words the teacher say or I want to use, I usually refer to dictionary or friends. I think so far that is the most effective way. (Sandi, Md, LJ 1)

By studying and reading a lot. By learning and reading a lot, then, memorizing new words, I think I will be able to improve my vocabulary knowledge. (Lincah, Md, LJ 3)

I checked dictionary whenever I found new words. Because I can do this strategy. (Saputra, Lo, LJ 2)

Students gave special attention to reading activity as a receptive skill from which they receive comprehensible input (Huckin, Haynes, & Coady, 1993; Krashen, 1989). By reading more English passages of their own interest, students receive more comprehensible input, especially vocabulary knowledge (Coady, 1997). The concept of extensive reading in which learners read materials of their own choice has been acknowledged for its effectiveness (read, Bell, 1998). In this way, students improved their vocabulary which is considered the fundamental criterion for language development. This confirms findings from previous studies that reading activities provide more opportunities for learners to engage in English and to enrich their vocabulary (for example, Kweldju, 1997; Rohani, 2005)

Among the middle and low achievers, most students preferred checking words in a dictionary while reading text. This was different from the majority of high achievers who reported using the strategy of reading texts more than dictionary use.

The main reason students gave for choosing the strategy of reading English texts or using their dictionary was vocabulary improvement. Students also believed that, by employing this strategy, they would be able to increase their skill in arranging words into appropriate sentences. Finally, using this strategy was believed to improve students' linguistic confidence in performing oral communication tasks. Another reason given by the low achievers for use of this strategy was the feasibility or practicality of the strategy.

The second strategy that students reported using to solve their linguistic problems was improving their vocabulary. Being aware that their main problem in oral communication activities was their limited vocabulary, students claimed they needed some strategies for improving their vocabulary. These strategies include writing or listing new vocabulary items, checking the dictionary, trying to memorize words and using new words in performing oral communication tasks. Some students specifically mentioned they needed to memorize a certain number of new words every day. In their attempts to use the newly memorized words, students stated that they tried to connect new words with known words or replace known words with newly learned words. By doing this, they believed they could increase their vocabulary.

- | | |
|-------------|--|
| Rejeki (Hi) | : Open dictionary, and write the new vocabulary. When I find the difficult vocabulary or new vocabulary, I will to open dictionary. (LJ 1) |
| Nanang (Md) | : I try to memorize new words and find out the meaning. I listened to the pronunciation of the words, wrote them, and tried to memorize. This strategy is very good, I think. (LJ 2)
I try to memorize the new words and try to use the words in the communication with friends. (LJ 3) |
| Hadi (Md) | : Connecting words that I already know and understand. By connecting the words that I already know or heard before, and creating sentences from these words. This strategy helped me understanding the topics. (LJ 1) |

- Asking friends or lecturer, then writing them down and memorizing them. I also tried to use these memorized new words by combining these into sentences. Yes, I think this strategy helped me. (LJ 3)
By using words that I already know to replace words I did not know. (LJ 5)
- Nuri (Lo) : Memorizing at least 5 new words every day. (LJ 4)
Keep on memorizing new words by: asking friends when I found problems, noting down new words, writing what I want to say, trying to memorize every day.
First, I will write what I want to say. Then I will confirm the sentence to my friends and ask him/her to correct the mistakes. When I'm sure with the sentence, I will try to memorize the sentence before saying it out. (LJ 5)
- Dadang (Lo) : Next, I will try to improve my vocabulary by enriching my own vocabulary little by little, for example by memorizing 10 – 20 words per day. (LJ 1)

Students' perseverance in choosing certain strategies to solve their linguistic problems, especially that of low vocabulary, was evident. Students were aware of their weaknesses in vocabulary and they were willing to try several strategies to improve this. The students regarded these strategies to increase their vocabulary as being effective.

The next strategy students reported using was translating from bahasa Indonesia into English or from English into Bahasa Indonesia. Students translated from English into bahasa Indonesia when they tried to comprehend oral statements or written texts. They also needed to translate what they wanted to express in English from Bahasa Indonesia. They first drafted the sentences in Bahasa Indonesia and later translated the sentences into English. Frequent use of this strategy was reported mostly by middle and low achievers. This may support Bialystok and Frohlich's (1980) claim that less proficient learners make more frequent use of L1-based transfer strategies. This strategy was reported to be effective by the students, although this strategy could be a hindrance since students had to spend more time

translating from the two languages. Uncertainty about the effectiveness of this strategy was mentioned by one student.

I find what I say in Indonesia language first and then translate in English with see the dictionary. Besides, when I am asked a question, first I try to guess the question then I try to answer my best. (Baskoro, Hi, LJ 1)

If the lecturer give me question, I think in Indonesian language, than I translate one by one in English. I'm not sure, but I still to try solved the problems with my strategies. (Firman, Md, LJ 1)

I read English text, then I try to change in Indonesia one by one. So, I can understand the text. (Merdu, Md, LJ 2)

When I am not understand about the word for example "recognize", my friends will explain in the English and If I still not understand she will explain with Indonesian so I more understand about word "recognize". (Dinata, Md, LJ 3)

In doing the translation, students reported they performed this strategy by checking the dictionary or asking for a friend's help. It seemed that students translated the sentences word by word, and this may potentially lead to wrong expressions or wrong understanding. In this instance, asking for a friend's help might contribute to a positive result if the friend really understands the expressions appropriately. Further findings about asking for a friend's help are discussed under non-linguistic strategies.

Being aware of difficulties in arranging words into appropriate sentences, students attempted to write sentences that they wanted to express orally. They wrote all sentences or the main points they wanted to express before attempting them orally. In preparing the written texts, students conferred with their friends and tried to memorize the expressions or sentences they would produce while performing the oral communication tasks. They believed this strategy was more effective than only memorizing new words.

I usually write down what I plan to say. This is to avoid errors when I answer of talk to my teacher. This strategy is more effective than memorizing words that I believe harder to do. (Nanang, Md, LJ 1)

First, I will write what I want to say. Then I will confirm the sentence to my friends and ask him/her to correct the mistakes. When I'm sure with the sentence, I will try to memorize the sentence before saying it out. (Nuri, Lo, LJ 5)

Yet, another strategy students selected to solve their linguistic problems was increased practice of English. Students believed that 'practice makes perfect'. With the final goal of improving their oral communication skills, students did more practice in learning and using English including reading more English texts, listening to English songs, watching English movies, and having conversations in English. These activities of using English are interconnected. The first practice was having conversations in English. Many students, especially the high and middle achievers, favored this strategy. They felt the need to be involved in communication in English including responding to the teacher's questions. They were willing to practice communicating in English not only in the classroom but also outside of the classroom, having English conversation with friends or families. Practice in oral communication activities was also believed to improve students' confidence in performing the tasks. Several students mentioned that having more practice in speaking English both in the classroom and at home and making this a habit would increase selfconfidence.

I should do some practices to speak. With more practice, I can be more confidence. (Cantik, Hi, LJ 4)

The important thing is that we need to be involved in the communication to make us used to having conversation in English and also to reduce our doubt level. (Mita, Hi, LJ 1)

To anticipate my lack of confidence, I will make myself get used to expressing my ideas and responding/answering lecturer's questions. I encourage myself to always respond to lecturer's questions without deeply considering whether or not my responses are right. (Maulana, Md, LJ 1)

I do practicing speaking English with friends and getting myself used to speaking in English at home. (Maulana, Md, LJ 5)

It seemed that the strategy of increased practice in oral communication activities was more common among the high and middle achievers. There was no explicit report from the low achievers stating the need to do more practice with oral communication activities. However, one student implicitly mentioned that she did more conversation in English in response to the question of whether students have developed their oral communication skills. This development in oral communication skills could be interpreted as one strategy that she often performed during the semester.

Memorizing more new vocabulary items, reading English texts, listening to English communication, and have more often conversation in English. (Nuri, Lo, LJ 2)

‘Listening to English more’ was mentioned as one way of practicing English by listening to English songs, watching English movies, and paying more attention to the teacher’s explanations and statements. Students believed that doing this would improve their oral communication skills. From movies students could also learn through imitating new words including the pronunciation as well as the intonation of the words and sentences. They also learned new expressions. Some students preferred to watch English movies with the English subtitles on in order that they could learn from it more easily. The use of this strategy of listening to English more was evident in students’ LJs and FGD.

I watched a lot of English movies that have English subtitle. In this way, I will know the spelling as well as the pronunciation. (Nanang, Md, LJ 3)

I watched many English movies because this strategy is fun. Doing this strategy made me able to pronounce words appropriately. (Nanang, Md, LJ 5)

I could increase my vocabulary usually by watching movies and listening to music with high tempo. There I could learn to improve my vocabulary. (Baskoro, Hi, FGD)

I learned a lot from listening to the teacher. When I found new vocabulary, I tried to focus on listening to the teacher, then I tried to memorize the words. I also paid attention how the

teacher said the words (pronunciation and intonation). I also tried to memorize this. To me, when I listen directly to the person, it retains longer in my memory. (Sayang, Hi, FGD)

I think I have improved my vocabulary from ...like ... listening to music, for example. Previously I never listened to English music. (Merdu, Md, FGD)

I usually watch movies or listening to music. From this I find new expressions and how these expressions are used. So, I know when and how I use these expressions in communication. (Cantik, Hi, FGD)

Students believed that listening to English would not only improve their listening comprehension but would also improve their vocabulary including the pronunciation and intonation of newly learned words or expressions. This improvement in vocabulary would later support oral communication, and increased practise in using English would increase students' confidence in oral communication tasks. Linguistic and non-linguistic problems are interconnected and students felt that both, in this instance, could be solved through listening to English more.

More practice in using English could create a habit on the part of the students that would eventually lead to reduced self-doubt in using English. Reduced self-doubt means reduced anxiety (see Arnold, 1999; Scovel, 1978 for the components of anxiety) that is correlated with language learning development. Reduced self-doubt is also be related to increased predictability of successful outcome (read Beebe, 1983 for definition of risk-taking) which is a signpost of increased risk-taking behaviour. Increased practice in English is also connected with habitual situations, in which students are familiar with the situation and this reduces the possibility of encountering a new situation or change of situation. In this way, as claimed by Findley (1978), students are less concerned with loss of face when making mistakes, and this, again, increases risk-taking behaviour. Increased exposure to target language promotes success in language learning as experienced by participants of the present study.

The final strategy used to solve linguistic problems, as reported in the LJ and FGD, was improving grammar mastery. A number of students reported they needed to improve their grammar knowledge. They were aware that, in order to be able to conduct good oral communication, they needed to have appropriate structure.

I'm try to read English structure to repair my grammar, try to memories the formulas each structure. I think that's the best way in order to develop my English structure. (Dinda, Hi, LJ 1)

(My strategies are) improving vocabulary and sentence, structure knowledge. I learn sentence structure continuously so that I can use it out of the cuff. I think those strategies are more practical and efficient to help me solve this problem. (Elok, Md, LJ 1)

Only a small number of students mentioned they needed to improve their grammar while other students tended to choose the strategy of improving their vocabulary. Most students believed their main problem was limited vocabulary. Though students also mentioned that grammar was a problem, most students did not report any attempt to improve their grammar. This could be because they did not put grammar mastery as their priority. This can be seen in this excerpt from the FGD.

Reseracher : Do you now pay more attention to the structure of the sentences?
 Students : No change, mam
 Researcher : meaning?
 Vera and Merdu (Md) : this made us confused ourselves
 Baskoro (Hi) : the difficult is when we have to answer a question quickly. So, we could not pay attention to the structure of the sentences. If we are given enough time, maybe we will be able to do it (pay more attention to the structure)

I tried to express myself orally, but most of the time I did not check the grammar and the words order. (Merdu, Md, LJ 3)

I tried to speak in English and tried to use correct grammar. (Merdu, Md, LJ 4)

However, by the end of the semester, one student reported the need to also pay attention to grammar.

The above description of the findings regarding the use of linguistic strategies by the students identifies one outstanding point - that improving vocabulary was the

core strategy. Students' main concern, their limited vocabulary, directs them to focus more on improving vocabulary. This strategy was the most favoured and it seemed it became the main motivation for other strategies, such as reading English texts, translating from bahasa Indonesia to English or vice versa, and doing more practice using English. Students' end goal in reading more English texts was increased vocabulary. The reason given for translating from and to English was vocabulary; one student specifically identified word by word translation to and from English as a help in increasing vocabulary. Furthermore, practicing using English orally was also considered one form of employing new words. By listening to English from watching movies or listening to English songs, students expected to gain more vocabulary items or expressions in addition to the improvement in pronunciation and intonation.

6.2.2 Non-linguistic problems and strategies.

During the completion of the oral communication tasks, students also encountered non-linguistic problems, including students' belief that their English skills were poor and their low self-confidence in speaking English. As seen in the excerpt below, students, especially the middle and low achievers, mentioned that it was hard to speak in English because they had poor English skills. They felt that they did not understand English. They also claimed they could not speak in English. As a result, they had problems in communicating with their friends and in accomplishing the oral communication tasks in the classroom.

- Bidadari (Hi) : I have problems in speaking English and understanding English. It's because I can't speak English (LJ1)
- Vera (Md) : Yes. I found problems because most of the communication in the classroom was in English. This is because my English skill was still poor and I can only understand a small part of the communication. (LJ 1)

- Yes, my main problem in communicating in English is my poor English skills. (LJ 2)
- Nuri (Lo) : I often find problems in communicating in English. My English is very poor, and this makes me difficult to understand the topics given. (LJ 1)
My main problem was my poor English skills especially in oral communication skills.(LJ 2)

Students' belief that their English skills were poor shows their low self-esteem; they measured themselves as poor in English skills (as put in a simple definition of 'self-esteem' by DeVito, 2009). Low self-esteem may hinder language learning development. As found in a study by Heyde (1979) about the relationship between self-esteem and oral production of a second language, low self-esteem was correlated to poor performance in oral production. The current study supports this finding.

Another non-linguistic problem hindering students' English oral communication activities was low self-confidence. They stated that they were 'nervous' and 'shy' to speak in English. They were also afraid of making mistakes. They 'did not have courage' to talk, especially when they had to do oral presentations in front of the class. They were not confident enough to speak in English with their friends. This lack of confidence was encountered by students of all groups, irrespective of their achievement levels.

- Ika (Hi) : I still confuse if communication with friends. Because I nervous. (LJ 3)
I confuse and nervous. (LJ 4)
- Dinda (Hi) : I'm shy to speak in English because I'm rather lack of confident about my grammar. (LJ 1) I am still not confident enough to speak in English. (LJ 3)
- Dinata (Md) : When my group do the presentation, I am so nervous and confuse. (LJ 5)
- Nanang (Md) : Yes, I did (encountered problem) because I afraid to talk wrong (LJ 1)
- Maulana (Md) : Thank God, I understand most of the conversation although I still find problem in understanding some vocabulary items and I am still not confident (ashamed) to express my ideas. (LJ 1)

Maybe I was too nervous and I was not fluent enough in explaining things in English. (LJ 4)

Saputra (Lo) : Yes (I have problems), because I don't have courage to speak in English (LJ 1)

With low self-esteem, some students found themselves not confident in interacting with friends of higher proficiency. They found working with friends of similar proficiency provided a secure feeling, not being afraid of 'losing face when making mistakes' (Findley, 1978). They may be afraid of losing face when their mistakes are identified by friends of higher proficiency; this shows their low risk-taking behaviour. However, students' risk-taking behaviour was reported as being higher after one semester of English lessons; this may be caused by their increased trust in friends when they develop a closer relationship. Risk-taking behaviour is discussed further in a later section about students' progress in oral communication skills. Low self-confidence may also affect students' lack of ability in using gestures and facial expression. This is mentioned by one participant, a middle achiever, Hadi, who wrote in his LJ4 that he found difficulties in using gestures or facial expressions during presentation. He attempted to use gestures and facial expressions, but found that this did not work effectively.

Students' reasons for low self-confidence were varied and can be categorized into linguistic and non-linguistic reasons. The linguistic reasons cover their inadequate grammar or limited vocabulary. Due to these weaknesses in vocabulary and grammar, some students were not confident enough to perform the oral communication tasks. Students also had low self-confidence because of various non linguistic reasons which include their personality of being a shy person or being

afraid to talk in public. These students were afraid of making mistakes, and they preferred not to produce sentences orally.

The linguistic and non-linguistic problems each stemmed from one problem. Within the linguistic problems, limited vocabulary was the main concern for the students. Due to their lack of vocabulary, students were hindered from expressing themselves fluently in spoken English. Then, with their poor vocabulary, students did not have adequate knowledge with regard to arranging words into appropriate sentences. Students' lack of self-confidence seemed to be the core of the non-linguistic problems. With low self-confidence, students kept the belief that they possessed poor English skills and that they could not perform oral communication appropriately.

Concerning non-linguistic problems, students mentioned two main strategies to solve these problems. These strategies were improving self-confidence in performing oral communication tasks and asking for help from a friend or the teacher.

Most students confirmed that they needed to be 'more self-confident' in oral communication in English. Being self-confident was considered a major issue especially by those who considered themselves shy people. They believed that, by increasing their self-confidence, they would be able to solve their main problems. This strategy was most needed when students had to do oral presentations in front of the class. They felt they needed to convince themselves that they were able to speak English well and were not afraid of making mistakes. One student believed that, if

she was very confident and looked smart, she would not be afraid and ashamed to express herself orally. She insisted on the importance of being involved in the communication with friends. This strategy of increasing self-confidence was found to be more common among the high and middle achievers. This may be because most of the low achievers were still struggling with linguistic problems and focused more on improving linguistic aspects of their language use.

I must confident and always looking smart. Because if we are confident, we won't be afraid and ashamed to express ourselves, it is not a problem to make mistakes. The important thing is that we need to be involved in the communication to make us used to having conversation in English and also to reduce our doubt level. (Mita, Hi, LJ 1)

I try to be self-confident and not afraid of making mistakes. Because by training myself to be more self-confident, I think I will be courageous enough to speak. (Dinda, Hi, LJ 2)

I am so nervous when I do presentation. (Therefore) I learn to more confident. Because if I more confident I am not nervous. (Dinata, Md, LJ 4)

Students believed that convincing themselves they were not afraid of making errors would elevate their self-confidence in conducting oral tasks. Not being afraid of losing face when making mistakes means improving self-esteem which has been identified to be highly correlated with confidence level (for a example, Lai, 1994). Higher self-esteem has been shown to be correlated to higher willingness to speak in English and higher participation in the lesson (Seyhan, 2000). The feeling of not being afraid of making mistakes is one criterion for increased risk-taking behaviour while being courageous enough to take risks is identified as a predictor of students' active participation in the classroom (Ely, 1986) that may promote progress in oral communication development. Thus, increasing self-confidence through not being afraid of making mistakes leads to higher self-esteem and higher risk-taking behaviour; in this way, students are more willing to participate in classroom activities, promoting improvement in oral communication skills.

Another strategy employed by students was appealing for other people's assistance, either friends or teacher. The first person to ask when encountering problems was a friend; the second was the teacher. This strategy seemed common among all students. When students found problems during the class activities, either when they found difficulties in understanding a given instruction or when they did not understand the lecturer's explanation or the material, students usually first asked for their friend's help. They felt they needed to ask, discuss, share or study together with their friends. Students believed this strategy was the easiest. They usually asked friends sitting next to them. Some students intentionally sat next to a friend whom they considered to have better English skills. Some other students reported they preferred asking for the teacher's help.

Asking for friends' helps. I ask when in the classroom and at home (at a friend's home). Because I think it's clearer and more understandable to me. I think the problems were solved because I trust my friends. (Bidadar, Hi, LJ 1)

I'll learning to my friends smarter than me because friends is one of easy media to learning about something like a conversation with English. (Dinat, Md, LJ 1)

Asking friends and lecturer because this strategy is easy to do and can be done quickly. (Sandi, Md, LJ 2)

I tried to discuss with friends (ask for a friend's help). By learning and discussing with friends, we know what we have to do and we can do the task more easily. I think this strategy is effective enough to solve my problems. (Abu, Lo, LJ 5)

Now I often ask my friends. I think asking friends is easier to do than checking up dictionary, it is easier to understand. Asking friends also ask how to pronounce the words. (Nuri, Lo, FGD)

This situation plus students' preference to work in groups (see section 6.2 about students' responses) may show their being "collectivist-oriented" in learning. In a country with a low individualism index (Hofstede et al., 2010), this collectivist profile also appears to be one way of Indonesian students' learning. Participants felt collectivist-oriented learning in oral tasks was more comfortable, easier and of more assistance. Students found working with friends and receiving assistance from them

stimulated a relaxed learning situation and made the learning process easier. This confirms a claim that Indonesian youth rate friends as a primary source of intimacy (French, Rianasari, Pidada, Nelwan, & Buhrmester, 2001). This may not be congruent with the principle of TBL, which is regarded as an extension of Communicative Language Teaching (Richards & Regional Language Centre., 2005), in “promoting students’ autonomous learning” (Jacobs & Farrell, 2003). Learners’ autonomy requires students to learn autonomously, rather than being dependent on their friends. However, when being less-autonomous is conducive for language learning and perceived as a preferred learning strategy and when this strategy is believed to be effective in accommodating students’ progress in oral communication skills, it would be wise to accept this reality, rather than regarding it as a constraint.

Many students believed the teacher was the model from whom they could learn and to whom they could always bring their problems. Students reported that paying more attention to the teacher’s explanation in the way he selected words, arranged the words into sentences, pronounced the words and his intonation of the sentences, was a very good way of learning oral communication. They attempted to follow what the teacher suggested to improve their English skills, like reading, memorizing new words, and practising spoken English. Students also reported that the teacher was the person they would consult to solve their problems, some of which were vocabulary items, arrangement of words in sentences, and pronunciation and intonation. Some students mentioned they would consult the teacher when the dictionary could not be used to solve their problems and when their friends could not help them.

I listen to words or expressions used by the lecturer; then, I try to understand the utterances and try to express my opinions. I think that strategy is the most effective one for my case. (Sayang, Hi, LJ 1)

Sit in front row of class. So I can understand what the teacher say, and listen how he arrange his words. (Cantik, Hi, LJ 2)

When I don't understand a question addressed to me, I will ask the teacher to rephrase the question to a simpler one. (Nanang, Md, LJ 1)

I think with ask to the lecturer about any difficult word, I can solve the problem. If I don't understand with the difficult words, I ask to the lecturer, and sometimes if I want to explain my idea but I can explain it into the English I ask to them. (Dita, Md, LJ1)

I usually ask to my friend, when my friend can't solve the problem then I ask to the lecturer. (Dita, Md, LJ 5)

When the lecturer spoke in English (for example, in front of the class), I usually tried to concentrate listening to and thinking of his utterances. If I still did not understand, I asked a friend sitting next to me. (Vera, Md, LJ 1)

I learned a lot from listening to the teacher. When I found new vocabulary, I tried to focus on listening to the teacher, then I tried to memorize the words. I also paid attention how the teacher said the words (pronunciation and intonation). I also tried to memorize this. To me, when I listen directly to the person, it retains longer in my memory. (Sayang, Hi, FGD)

This confirms what has been discussed in earlier sub-sections about students' responses toward the implementation of TBL. Students liked the English lesson for several reasons, one of which was the way they regard the teacher as a role model and a respected person to follow. Besides the limited exposure to real English use outside the classroom as is common in the context of English taught as a foreign language, such a situation may be related to Indonesians' culturally embedded philosophy. As asserted by Dardjowidjojo (Dardjowidjojo, 2001), language learning in Indonesia, especially in Java from where all participants of the present study originated, may be influenced by the deeply embedded Javanese cultural attitudes of *manut-lan-miturut* (an attitude of total obedience), *ewuh-pekewuh* (a feeling of discomfort when discussing controversial issues, holding different opinions, and questioning the words of elders) and *sabda pendita ratu* (giving high respect to elder or leader). In *manut-lan-miturut*, judgement of a person being good or bad is based on the degree of his obedience to his parents. Being used to total obedience,

Indonesians develop *ewuh-pekewuh* in interacting with their community. “They would feel uncomfortable (*ewuh*) and uneasy (*pekewuh*) to discuss controversial issues, to question the words of elders, or disagreeing with them” (Dardjowidjojo, 2001, p. 315). The philosophy *sabda pendita ratu*, has resulted in an attitude where elders or leaders are very cautious in what they say, and whatever they say is to be taken as a truth to follow. The words (*sabda*) of a priestly king (*pandita ratu*) are to be obeyed. Though not fully implemented due to the effect of globalization, combination of these three philosophical concepts has made students regard teachers as role models and give them great respect. Consequently, this situation of students’ dependence on teacher may not support the idea of learners’ autonomy that should be promoted by TBL; this was also identified by Griffiths (2001). Yet, when students consider this an effective strategy that assists them to achieve learning goals, this charismatic-dependency-bond between students and teacher can be included as a contextually effective strategy.

Despite being aware that the teacher is more capable and more reliable in response to students’ questions and solving students’ problems, most students believed that asking friends is easier than asking the teacher. This was because friends are more available than the teacher. Therefore, some students tended to sit next to their ‘smarter’ friends during the classroom activities. Furthermore, students are emotionally closer to their friends than to their teacher. With the gap in relationship, student-teacher versus student-student, students share the same feeling and are closer to friends than to the teacher. Student-student relationship is less risky resulting in students being more comfortable in appealing for assistance from friends than from the teacher.

6.3 Progress in Oral Communication Skills

After addressing general questions dealing with the presentation of English lessons during the semester, the problems students encountered, and how they selected strategies to solve the problems, a question about the improvement in students' oral communication skills was raised both during the FGD and in students' LJs. While the FGD was held at the end of the semester, the LJ was completed out once every two weeks. Thus, in order to show students' progress by the end of the semester, only the 3rd to the 5th LJs are included in this section. At this stage students were accustomed to the teaching and learning situation in the classroom and they were at the stage of being able to review and comment on their English learning.

In response to the question of their progress, students reported that, in general, their oral communication skills had improved. This improvement covered both linguistic and non-linguistic aspects of language use. One obvious linguistic improvement, as the students reported, was increased vocabulary, including the pronunciation of new terms. Students also reported increased self-confidence and social skills.

The linguistic progress addressed by the students was improvement in vocabulary. Students believed that their improved vocabulary helped them in improving their oral communication skills. This finding supports previous findings about students' problems in performing oral communication tasks as well as the strategies they selected to solve the problems. Students reported their limited vocabulary as their main problem, and they used a number of strategies to improve

their vocabulary. Attempts to improve vocabulary included listing new words, rereading them, and using these new words when practicing conversations with friends. Further, students added that the practice of using new words is better conducted in a relaxed situation. When asked about sources for new vocabulary items, students mentioned reading English texts, listening carefully to teacher's explanations, watching English movies, and listening to English songs. Thus, it could be argued that students succeeded in implementing their strategies for improving vocabulary to gain improvement in oral communication skills.

Researcher : What have you learned this semester? What progress have you seen?
Nuri (Lo) : my speaking skill is improved, my vocabulary is increased.

Yes, I have developed in oral communication skill by this week. With speaking English with my friend in my boarding house. (Rejeki, Hi, LJ 5)

Yes (I have developed my oral communication skills), after I remember new vocabulary that I get. (Baskoro, Hi, LJ 5)

I think I have improved in both my oral communication skills and vocabulary. (Nanang, Md, LJ 4)

I improved the way I pronounced words appropriately. (Nanang, Md, LJ 5)

Yes (I have developed my oral communication skills). Always listing new words, memorizing these new words. (Nuri, Lo, LJ 5)

There were many positive responses regarding students' increased self-confidence in oral communication activities. Students mentioned their increased courage to use English in oral activities. In the FGD, students reported that they gained this increased self-confidence (courage to speak in English) due to several reasons including more practice in oral communication activities, increased support from the teacher, the more relaxed nature of the classroom, and the closer relationship with the teacher and friends. Data from students' LJs also showed support for this finding.

- Researcher : Do you see any change as compared in the beginning and end of semester?
- Females : Yes, mam
- Researcher : What is it? How about you, Maulana?
- Maulana (Md) : Yes, Mam. Uhm. I now have more courage to speak in front of friends.
-
- Researcher : Why do you think you now have more courage to speak?
- Baskoro (Hi) : We now have a lot of practice
- Nuri (Lo) : We often talk (in English) now.
- Mita (Hi) : Because it (oral communication skills) is more often activated.
- Researcher : So, you are not afraid to talk now?
- Sayang (Hi) : Because the communication with the lecturer is very good, I am not afraid, I am not ashamed to talk. So, I can say I enjoy the classroom situation, not ashamed.
- Researcher : So, you think that that your speaking skill is improved now, your vocabulary is also improved, and now you have more courage (to speak in English). What about talking in front of public?
- Students : Yes, mam
- Researcher : How about your social skill? Your work and relationship with your friends
- Nanang (Md) : If we make mistakes in our spoken language, friends will correct us.
- Baskoro (Hi) : I found our friendship solidarity is getting stronger now.

I think by this week, I can develop my oral communication skills, with that I ask before.. self-confident and listening teacher or ask him. (Mita, Hi, LJ 3)

I think I must self-confident and not afraid to ask about our mean. (Mita, Hi, LJ 4)

Yes, I do (I have improved). I think more confident to speak English with the topic in this week. (Salihah, Md, LJ 4)

Yes, I do (I have improved). I feel more confident. (Salihah, Md, LJ 5)

I think I have improved my skill in speaking in front of public. (Maulana, Md, LJ 4)

I think I am more enthusiastic in learning English. I now have more courage to speak in English. (Elok, Md, LJ 4)

6.4 Summary

In summary, students felt that now they had more courage to speak in English for several reasons. First, with more opportunities provided for the students to talk in English during the classroom activities, students became more accustomed to speaking in English. This reduced the level of anxiety and the level of inhibition towards using spoken English. Secondly, students' increased courage to use spoken English was also due to the more relaxed nature of the classroom. Students felt they were not tense about producing spoken English when the situation was not tense. Furthermore, this changed atmosphere enhanced closer relationships with friends

who were willing to help when they had problems expressing themselves or when they made mistakes while performing oral communication tasks. This relaxed situation and feeling in the classroom was also supported by the teacher who students felt had a closer relationship with them. This closer relationship between students and the teacher was the third reason for students' increased courage and willingness to speak in English.

CHAPTER 7

A PROFILE OF ORAL COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES

Chapter seven responds to the second research question regarding the type of oral communication strategies employed by students with a range of oral proficiency levels during the implementation of Task-Based Learning (TBL). It presents the use of strategies at the beginning and end of semester using quantitative data sourced from the Oral Communication Strategy Inventory (OCSI) developed by Nakatani (2006).

The OCSI was administered twice, at the beginning of semester when TBL had not been implemented and at the end of semester after TBL had been implemented. It consists of oral communication strategies for coping with speaking problems and for coping with listening problems. The presentation of strategies in this chapter is divided into four main sections: general overview of oral communication strategies, the use of strategies for coping with speaking problems, the use of strategies for coping with listening problems, and ends with summary and discussion. The general overview presents a snapshot of the use of strategies both at the beginning and end of semester. In the sections on strategies for coping with speaking and listening problems, strategies are presented within their categories and followed by presentation of individual strategies. At the end of the chapter, the most noteworthy findings are summarised, discussed, and related to theories and previous studies.

The strategies employed are reported based on the mean score of use, whether it was low (mean between 1.00 and 2.33), medium (mean between 2.34 and 3.67) or high (mean between 3.68 or above). The description also compares strategies employed by students with a range of oral proficiency levels, grouped as high, middle, and low achievers (see Chapter 5 for definition of this grouping).

7.1 Employment of Strategies – General Overview

This section presents general use of strategies employed both at the beginning and end of semester. Strategies are presented in categories, covering eight strategies for coping with speaking problems and seven categories for strategies for coping with listening problems.

7.1.1 Employment of strategies at the beginning of semester.

The strategies used at the beginning of semester by students with a range of oral proficiency levels are summarized in table 7.1.

As shown in the table, the average of strategies employed for coping with speaking problems was 3.635, suggesting a medium range of use. The average of the strategies for coping with listening problems showed a value of 3.866, suggesting a high range of use. Disregarding students' levels of oral proficiency, two categories of strategies for coping with speaking problems were highly employed. Message reduction and alteration strategy, with the mean of 4.290, was the most frequently used strategy while social affective strategy, averaged at 3.913 was next. In relation to the strategies for coping with listening problems, four categories were identified as

being high in frequency of use. The most frequently used strategy was word-oriented, with an average use of 4.380. The second was the scanning strategy, showing an average use of 4.185. Less active listener strategy was positioned third with a mean of 4.130. The fourth highest strategy used for coping with listening problems was the non-verbal with a mean of 3.815.

Table 7.1

Frequency of Use of Oral Communication Strategies at the Beginning of Semester

A. Strategies for Coping with Speaking Problems		High Achievers	Middle Achievers	Low Achievers	Average
1	Social Affective	4.188	3.764	3.778	3.913
2	Fluency-Oriented	3.458	3.333	3.333	3.377
3	Negotiation for Meaning while Speaking	3.375	3.458	3.000	3.370
4	Accuracy Oriented	3.325	3.333	3.467	3.348
5	Message Reduction and Alteration	4.167	4.361	4.333	4.290
6	Non-verbal Strategies	4.125	3.458	2.667	3.587
7	Message Abandonment	3.344	3.625	3.917	3.565
8	Attempt to think in English	3.563	3.625	3.833	3.630
Average of All		3.693	3.620	3.541	3.635
B. Strategies for Coping with Listening Problems		High Achievers	Middle Achievers	Low Achievers	Average
1	Negotiate for Meaning while Listening	3.525	3.510	3.267	3.482
2	Fluency Maintaining	3.775	3.417	3.333	3.530
3	Scanning	4.250	4.167	4.083	4.185
4	Getting the Gist	3.594	3.479	3.167	3.478
5	Non-Verbal Strategies	4.313	3.792	3.333	3.913
6	Less Active Listener	3.875	4.292	4.167	4.130
7	Word-Oriented	4.313	4.438	4.333	4.380
Average of All		3.949	3.860	3.669	3.866

When the strategies for coping with speaking problems ($M = 3.633$, $SD = .233$) were compared to the strategies for coping with listening problems ($M = 3.866$, $SD = .325$), results show that strategies for coping with listening problems were more highly used. This was tested using t-test, and the result suggested a highly significant difference at $p = .000$ with $t(21) = -5.191$. This was confirmed in that the strategies highly used for coping with listening problems outnumbered the strategies for coping with speaking problems. There were two strategies highly used for coping with speaking problems, whereas there were four highly used strategies for coping with listening problems. These findings suggest that at the beginning of the study students had a tendency to focus more on listening activities during oral communication tasks. This may, further, suggest that they tended to be passive during the communication.

Comparison of the strategies highly used by students of different oral proficiency levels showed that, in general, the higher the students' level of oral proficiency, the more numerous and the more frequently they employed strategies for coping with both speaking and listening problems. The high achievers frequently employed eight categories of strategies for coping with speaking and listening problems while the middle achievers frequently employed six strategies and the low achievers employed seven categories. Furthermore, as seen on the table, the high achievers employed strategies for coping with speaking problems with an average of 3.693, suggesting a high range of use. This was higher than the middle achievers' ($M = 3.620$) and the low achievers' ($M = 3.541$), both indicating a medium range of strategy use. There were similar findings in the students' use of strategies for coping with listening problems. The high achievers used the strategies with an average of 3.949, which was higher than the middle achievers' ($M = 3.860$) and the low

achievers' ($M = 3.669$). Both the high and middle achievers' average use of strategies for coping with listening problems suggested a high range of use while the low achievers' suggested an upper medium range of use.

7.1.2 Employment of strategies at the end of semester.

At the end of semester, when TBL had been implemented throughout the whole semester, the same inventory on students' oral communication strategies was distributed. This section describes the findings from the inventory. Further discussion in this section refers to Table 7.2 which summarizes the use of strategies by students of different oral proficiency levels at the end of semester.

As shown in Table 7.2, the strategies for coping with speaking problems averaged 3.753 and the strategies for coping with listening problems were at 3.864, both suggesting a high range of use. Furthermore, both the high and middle achievers also showed consistency in more highly used strategies for coping with listening problems than in strategies for coping with speaking problems. Only the low achievers used the speaking strategies more frequently than the listening strategies. The high and middle achievers also revealed high use of speaking and listening strategies, which ranged between 3.771 and 3.971. The low achievers showed a medium range of strategies use, 3.591 for coping with speaking problems and 3.395 for coping with listening problems. These findings may suggest that both the high and middle achievers were more active in oral communication tasks.

Table 7.2

Frequency of Use of Oral Communication Strategies at the End of Semester

A. Strategies for Coping with Speaking Problems		High Achievers	Middle Achievers	Low Achievers	Average
1	Social Affective	4.019	4.183	3.667	4.029
2	Fluency-Oriented	3.741	3.517	3.208	3.551
3	Negotiation for Meaning while Speaking	3.861	3.500	3.063	3.565
4	Accuracy Oriented	3.644	3.280	3.100	3.391
5	Message Reduction and Alteration	3.704	4.067	4.500	4.000
6	Non-verbal Strategies while Speaking	4.111	4.050	3.375	3.957
7	Message Abandonment	2.969	3.675	3.688	3.421
8	Attempt to think in English	3.667	4.150	4.125	3.957
Average of All		3.771	3.803	3.591	3.753
B. Strategies for Coping with Listening Problems		High Achievers	Middle Achievers	Low Achievers	Average
1	Negotiation for Meaning while Listening	3.956	3.660	2.850	3.635
2	Fluency Maintaining	3.756	3.380	2.850	3.435
3	Scanning	4.306	4.300	3.563	4.174
4	Getting the Gist	3.639	3.472	2.563	3.375
5	Non-Verbal Strategies	4.167	4.100	4.125	4.130
6	Less Active Listener	3.611	3.950	3.750	3.783
7	Word-Oriented	4.361	4.500	4.063	4.364
Average of All		3.971	3.965	3.395	3.864

Disregarding the types of problems being dealt with, word oriented category (for coping with listening problems) seemed to be the strategy most highly used. This category of strategy was used with an average of 4.364. The second most highly used strategy was scanning which was used with an average of 4.174. The third category of most highly used strategy was non-verbal strategies while listening with an average use of 4.130. The least frequently used strategy for coping with listening

problems was getting the gist, which averaged 3.225. The second least frequently used strategy for coping with listening problems was fluency for maintaining with an average of 3.329.

When the average use of strategies for coping with speaking problems ($M = 3.753$) was compared to the average use of strategies for coping with listening problems ($M = 3.864$), the listening strategies outnumbered those for speaking. Students tended to use the listening strategies a little more frequently than the speaking strategies. There was no difference in the number of highly used categories of strategies; as shown in the table, there were four highly used categories of strategies for coping with speaking problems and there were also four highly used categories for coping with listening problems. These findings show that at the end of semester students tended to balance the use of strategies for coping with speaking and listening problems.

Comparison of highly used strategies across students of different levels of oral proficiencies shows that high achievers employed the most numerous strategies. They highly used ten categories of strategies while the middle achievers employed nine categories and low achievers employed six categories. Again, these findings suggest that the higher the students' language proficiency, the more numerous and the more frequently they employ listening strategies.

7.2 Strategies for Coping with Speaking Problems

This section presents findings and analysis of the use of strategies for coping with speaking problems both at the beginning and end of semester. Each subsection presents the profile of speaking strategies in categories and in individuals.

7.2.1 Use of speaking strategies at the beginning of semester.

In this subsection, some outstanding points regarding the use of strategies for coping with speaking problems at the beginning of semester are presented: the most frequently used strategies, the uses of *negative* versus *positive* strategies, and comparison of strategies use among the groups of students. Table 7.3 summarizes the data presentation.

Among the strategies for coping with speaking problems, message reduction and alteration was the highest in use. In this category, the high achievers employed this strategy the least ($M = 4.167$) whereas the low achievers were positioned second ($M = 4.333$) and the middle achievers employed it the most ($M = 4.361$). While the middle and low achievers favoured this strategy most for coping with speaking problems, the high achievers tended to employ another strategy, which was social affective strategy. Given that message reduction and alteration are considered *negative* strategies (Nakatani, 2006), this finding suggests that the lower proficiency the students have, the more tendency there is to employ negative strategies. However, it should be noted that the middle achievers used this strategy slightly more than the low achievers.

Table 7.3

Frequency of Use of Oral Communication Strategies for Coping with Speaking Problems at the Beginning of Semester

Positive Strategies

Strategies for Coping with Speaking Problems	High	Middle	Low	Average
	Achievers	Achievers	Achievers	
1 Social Affective	4.188	3.764	3.778	3.913
2 Fluency-Oriented	3.458	3.333	3.333	3.377
3 Negotiation for Meaning while Speaking	3.375	3.458	3.000	3.370
4 Accuracy Oriented	3.325	3.333	3.467	3.348
6 Non-verbal Strategies	4.125	3.458	2.667	3.587
8 Attempt to think in English	3.563	3.625	3.833	3.630
Average of All	3.672	3.495	3.346	3.538

Negative Strategies

Strategies for Coping with Speaking Problems	High	Middle	Low	Average
	Achievers	Achievers	Achievers	
5 Message Reduction and Alteration	4.167	4.361	4.333	4.290
7 Message Abandonment	3.344	3.625	3.917	3.565
Average	3.756	3.993	4.125	3.928

There were similar findings in the use of the message abandonment strategy which is also classified as *negative*. Only the low achievers used this category highly; they employed this strategy at an average of 3.917. Other groups of students used this strategy at a medium range; the middle achievers with an average of 3.625 and the high achievers at 3.344. These findings suggest that the higher the students'

level of oral proficiency, the less frequently they reduce and alter messages during oral communication tasks.

Findings on the employment of message reduction and alteration strategy as well as message abandonment strategy suggest that the lower the students' oral proficiency, the more they tend to give up attempts to convey the intended message. This could be due to a variety of factors, one being the level of the students' language knowledge.

At the beginning of semester, most students across different levels of oral proficiencies employed negative strategies more than positive ones. This was confirmed with the average use of negative strategies which was 3.928. This score was much higher than the average use of positive strategies which was 3.538. Furthermore, five out of six average scores in the positive strategies uses could be classified as a medium range of use whereas one average score in the negative strategies uses was included in the high range of use and another one was included in the upper medium use. Again, these suggest that at the beginning of semester most students were less active oral communicators, tending to be passive listeners during communication.

Regarding the social affective strategy use, the rating of the high achievers with an average use of 4.118 was the highest. It was also the most frequently used strategy by the high achievers in coping with speaking problems. The middle and low achievers also highly used this strategy with an average use of 3.764 and 3.778 respectively.

Regarding the use of strategy in attempting to think in English, data showed that the low achievers reported the highest attempt to think in English, as compared to the high and middle achievers. They employed this strategy at an average of 3.833, suggesting a high range of use, whereas the high and the middle achievers' use of this strategy with an average of 3.563 and 3.625 respectively, both fell in the medium range of use. More detailed discussion concerning the use of individual strategies within this category later in this chapter may explain why this happened.

The least frequently used strategies for coping with speaking problems were accuracy oriented. This was employed with a mean of 3.348, suggesting a medium range of use. The second and third least frequently used strategies were negotiation for meaning while speaking and fluency-oriented with an average use of 3.370 and 3.377 respectively. These three categories suggest a medium range of use. As can be seen in the table, the higher the students' oral proficiency level, the higher the tendency to be fluency oriented. In contrast, the lower the oral proficiency level, the higher the tendency to be accuracy oriented.

Use of individual strategies for coping with speaking problems at the beginning of the semester is presented in Table 7.4.

Table 7.4

Frequency of Use of Individual Oral Communication Strategies for Coping with Speaking Problems at the Beginning of Semester

Strategies for Coping with Speaking Problems			High Achievers	Middle Achievers	Low Achievers	Average of All
Category 1 Social Affective	1	I try to use fillers when I cannot think of what to say.	4.375	4.083	4.667	4.261
	2	I try to give a good impression to the listener	4.500	3.917	3.667	4.087
	3	I don't mind taking risks even though I might make mistakes.	3.875	4.000	3.000	3.826
	4	I try to enjoy the conversation.	4.375	3.667	4.333	4.000
	5	I try to relax when I feel anxious.	4.250	3.583	3.667	3.826
	6	I actively encourage myself to express what I want to say.	3.750	3.333	3.333	3.478
Category 2 Fluency-Oriented	7	I change my way of saying things according to the context.	3.000	3.250	2.333	3.044
	8	I take my time to express what I want to say.	4.500	4.333	4.667	4.435
	9	I pay attention to my pronunciation.	3.500	3.083	3.667	3.304
	10	I try to speak clearly and loudly to make myself heard.	3.625	3.583	3.000	3.522
	11	I pay attention to my rhythm and intonation.	3.250	2.667	3.000	2.913
	12	I pay attention to the conversation flow.	2.875	3.083	3.333	3.044
Category 3 Negotiation for Meaning while Speaking	13	While speaking, I pay attention to the listener's reaction to my speech.	4.375	4.000	3.333	4.044
	14	I give examples if the listener doesn't understand what I am saying.	3.375	3.417	3.000	3.348
	15	I repeat what I want to say until the listener understands.	3.000	3.833	3.667	3.522
	16	I make comprehension checks to ensure the listener understands what I want to say.	2.750	2.583	2.000	2.565
Category 4 Accuracy Oriented	17	I pay attention to grammar and word order during conversation.	3.125	3.250	3.333	3.217
	18	I try to emphasize the subject and verb of the sentence.	2.875	2.916	3.333	2.957
	19	I correct myself when I notice that I have made a mistake.	4.000	3.833	3.667	3.870
	20	I notice myself using an expression which fits a rule that I have learned.	3.625	3.417	3.333	3.478
	21	I try to talk like a native speaker.	3.000	3.250	3.667	3.217

Category 5	22	I use words which are familiar to me.	4.625	4.750	4.667	4.696
Message Reduction & Alteration	23	I reduce the message and use simple expressions.	4.000	4.167	4.667	4.174
	24	I replace the original message with another message because of feeling incapable of executing my original intent.	3.875	4.167	3.667	4.000
Category 6 Non-Verbal Strategies while Speaking	25	I try to make eye-contact when I am talking.	3.875	3.333	3.000	3.478
	26	I use gestures and facial expressions if I can't communicate how to express myself.	4.375	3.583	2.333	3.696
Category 7 Message Abandonment	27	I abandon the execution of a verbal plan and just say some words when I don't know what to say.	3.250	4.167	3.667	3.783
	28	I leave a message unfinished because of some language difficulty.	3.000	3.083	4.333	3.217
	29	I ask other people to help when I can't communicate well.	4.500	4.583	4.667	4.565
	30	I give up when I can't make myself understood.	2.625	2.667	3.000	2.696
Category 8 Attempt to Think in English	31	I think first of what I want to say in my native language and then construct the English sentence.	4.000	3.833	4.333	3.957
	32	I think first of a sentence I already know in English and then try to change it to fit the situation.	3.000	3.417	3.333	3.261
Average of All Strategies for Coping with Speaking Problems			3.693	3.620	3.541	3.635

As shown in the table, there were three outstanding individual strategies most highly used. The first most highly used individual strategy was using words which are familiar to students with an average use of 4.696. The middle achievers used this strategy extremely highly. They were followed by the low achievers while the high achievers were positioned last. The second most highly used individual strategy was that of asking other people to help with an average use of 4.565. The low achievers used this strategy most followed by the middle achievers. The high achievers were ranked third. The third individual strategy in the highest use was that of taking time to express what was to be said with an average use of 4.435. Again, it was the low achievers who used this strategy the most while the middle achievers were positioned second and the high achievers were ranked last. The last two findings confirm that

the lower the students' levels of oral proficiency, the higher their use of these two strategies.

In terms of the number of most highly used individual strategies within each category, the social affective category was the most outstanding. This strategy category consisted of five highly used strategies. Among them, trying to use fillers when unable to think of what to say ($M = 4.261$) was the highest in frequency. All students used this strategy within a very high range. The second highest strategy within this social affective category was trying to give a good impression to the listener, with an average use of 4.087. For this individual strategy, the higher the students' level of oral proficiency, the higher their use of this strategy. The next most highly used strategy within the social affective category was trying to enjoy the conversation with an average use of 4.000. All three groups of students used this strategy highly with the high achievers using it most followed by the low achievers and the middle achievers last. With an average use of 3.826, the strategy of not minding taking risks even though making mistakes was positioned next. It was the high and middle achievers who used this strategy within the high range while the low achievers used this strategy at medium range. The next most highly used strategy was trying to relax when feeling anxious ($M = 3.826$). Only the high achievers used this strategy within the high range while both the middle and low achievers used this strategy at medium range.

The second category with a large number of individual strategies highly used was that of message reduction and alteration. All three individual strategies in this category were highly used. With an average use of 4.696, the strategy of using familiar words was used the most. The middle achievers used this strategy most,

followed by the low achievers. The high achievers ranked last. The second most highly used individual strategy within the category of message reduction and alteration was that of reducing message and using simple expressions with an average use of 4.174. The low achievers used this strategy the most, and the high achievers used this strategy the least. This finding suggests that the higher the level of students' oral proficiency, the lower their use of this strategy. The last individual strategy highly used in the category of message reduction and alteration was that of replacing the original message with another message due to feeling incapable of executing the original intent. This strategy was used with an average of 4.000 with the middle achievers using it most and the low achievers using it least.

As seen from the number of highly used individual strategies, the higher the students' level of oral proficiency, the more numerous the oral communication strategies, especially the positive strategies, they employ. In this study, students of high achievement frequently used 16 individual strategies while the middle achievers frequently used 11 strategies. The low achievers only used eight strategies frequently. This finding is more obvious when the positive strategies are differentiated from the negative strategies, which include individual strategies within the categories of message reduction and alteration and message abandonment.

When positive strategies were separated from the negative ones, it shows a tendency for students with higher proficiency level to use positive strategies more frequently. The high achievers used 12 individual strategies most. The middle achievers were positioned second in the use of nine out of those 12 strategies and the low achievers were positioned last. The low achievers used eight individual

strategies most. Sometimes the middle achievers were positioned second in use of these eight strategies and sometimes the high achievers were. A more prominent finding can be seen in the use of individual strategies within the categories of social affective and non-verbal strategies while speaking. In these two categories, high achievers dominated the use of positive individual strategies.

Regarding the use of negative strategies, namely reducing the message and using simple expressions, leaving a message unfinished, asking other people to help, and giving up when listeners cannot understand the message, findings show that students of lower proficiency favour negative strategies more than those of higher proficiency. The use of the other three individual strategies revealed that the middle achievers used these strategies most and the high achievers used them least. Included in the three strategies were using only familiar words, replacing the original message with another message, and abandoning the execution of a verbal plan and just saying some words. These findings consistently support the tentative premise that the higher the level of students' oral proficiency the higher their use of positive strategies and the lower their use of negative strategies.

7.2.2 Use of speaking strategies at the end of semester.

In this sub-section, students' use of strategies for coping with speaking problems at the end of semester is discussed in detail. Discussion covers highly used strategies, negative versus positive strategies, as well as comparison of strategies use among the different groups of students. Findings are summarized in Table 7.5.

Table 7.5

Frequency of Use of Oral Communication Strategies for Coping with Speaking Problems at the End of Semester

Positive Strategies

Strategies for Coping with Speaking Problems	High Achievers	Middle Achievers	Low Achievers	Average
1 Social Affective	4.019	4.183	3.667	4.029
2 Fluency-Oriented	3.741	3.517	3.208	3.551
3 Negotiation for Meaning while Speaking	3.861	3.500	3.063	3.565
4 Accuracy Oriented	3.644	3.280	3.100	3.391
6 Non-verbal Strategies while Speaking	4.111	4.050	3.375	3.957
8 Attempt to think in English	3.667	4.150	4.125	3.957
Average of All	3.841	3.780	3.423	3.742

Negative Strategies

Strategies for Coping with Speaking Problems	High Achievers	Middle Achievers	Low Achievers	Average
5 Message Reduction and Alteration	3.704	4.067	4.500	4.000
7 Message Abandonment	2.969	3.675	3.688	3.421
Average	3.337	3.871	4.094	3.711

As shown in the table, disregarding students' level of proficiency, social affective strategies were the highest in use; this category was highly used with an average of 4.029. Within this category, the middle achievers used this strategy most frequently with an average of 4.183 followed by the high achievers at 4.019, both indicating a high range of use. The low achievers used this strategy at a medium range with an average of 3.667.

The second most highly used strategy was that of message reduction and alteration which averaged 4.000. Within this category, the low achievers used this

strategy most with an average of 4.500. With an average use of 4.067, the middle achievers were positioned second. The high achievers used this strategy least, averaging 3.704. All students were within the high range of use. These findings suggest that the higher the level of students' oral proficiency, the lower their tendency to use this negative strategy.

The third and fourth highest strategies used were non-verbal strategies while speaking and attempts to think in English, both at an average of 3.957. The high achievers used non-verbal strategies the most while the low achievers used this strategy at a medium range. The high achievers used the strategy of attempting to think in English at a medium range while both the middle and low achievers used this strategy at a high range.

Findings on the use of fluency oriented, negotiation for meaning while speaking and accuracy oriented strategies illustrate that students of higher levels of oral proficiency used these strategies more frequently than those of lower proficiency. It was only the high achievers who used the strategies of fluency oriented and negotiation for meaning while speaking at a high range while both the middle and low achievers used these two strategies at medium range. All students used the strategy of accuracy oriented at a medium range with the high achievers ranked first.

Further analysis reveals that the high achievers used the positive strategies the most followed by the middle achievers and the low achievers positioned last. Both the high and middle achievers used the positive strategies within high range while

only the low achievers used the positive strategies within medium range. In contrast, the low achievers used the negative strategies most followed by the middle achievers and the high achievers were positioned last. It was only the high achievers who used the negative strategies within medium range while the middle and low achievers used these strategies at high range.

Use of individual strategies for coping with speaking problems at the end of semester is presented in Table 7.6. Of all the individual strategies across different categories, there were three outstanding individual strategies for coping with speaking problems which were most highly used. These strategies were using familiar words ($M = 4.652$), asking other people to help ($M = 4.435$), and trying to give a good impression to listener ($M = 4.304$). In using the negative strategies of using familiar words and asking other people to help, the low achievers were positioned first with the high achievers last. In contrast, the high achievers used the strategy of trying to give a good impression the most and the low achievers the least. The lower achievers favour negative strategies more than the higher achievers and this remained the same throughout the period of the research.

Table 7.6

Frequency of Use of Individual Oral Communication Strategies for Coping with Speaking Problems at the End of Semester

Strategies for Coping with Speaking Problems			High Achievers	Middle Achievers	Low Achievers	Average of All
Category 1 Social Affective	1	I try to use fillers when I cannot think of what to say.	4.000	4.200	3.250	4.000
	2	I try to give a good impression to the listener.	4.500	4.400	4.000	4.304
	3	I don't mind taking risks even though I might make mistakes.	4.000	3.700	3.750	3.739
	4	I try to enjoy the conversation.	4.375	4.200	3.750	4.087
	5	I try to relax when I feel anxious.	4.000	4.300	4.250	4.087
	6	I actively encourage myself to express what I want to say.	4.250	4.300	3.000	3.957
Category 2 Fluency-Oriented	7	I change my way of saying things according to the context.	3.625	3.600	3.250	3.522
	8	I take my time to express what I want to say.	3.750	4.000	4.000	3.957
	9	I pay attention to my pronunciation.	4.000	3.200	3.000	3.435
	10	I try to speak clearly and loudly to make myself heard.	3.875	3.200	3.500	3.435
	11	I pay attention to my rhythm and intonation.	3.625	3.600	3.000	3.435
	12	I pay attention to the conversation flow.	4.250	3.500	2.500	3.522
Category 3 Negotiation for Meaning	13	While speaking, I pay attention to the listener's reaction to my speech.	4.375	3.900	4.250	4.130
	14	I give examples if the listener doesn't understand what I am saying.	4.000	3.900	2.750	3.696
	15	I repeat what I want to say until the listener understands.	4.375	3.300	2.750	3.565
	16	I make comprehension checks to ensure the listener understands what I want to say.	3.125	2.900	2.500	2.870
Category 4 Accuracy Oriented	17	I pay attention to grammar and word order during conversation.	3.875	2.600	3.250	3.174
	18	I try to emphasize the subject and verb of the sentence.	3.875	3.400	3.250	3.478
	19	I correct myself when I notice that I have made a mistake.	3.625	4.000	3.500	3.739
	20	I notice myself using an expression which fits a rule that I have learned.	3.250	2.800	2.750	2.957
	21	I try to talk like a native speaker.	4.250	3.600	2.750	3.609

Category 5 Message Reduction & Alteration	22	I use words which are familiar to me.	4.500	4.700	5.000	4.652
	23	I reduce the message and use simple expressions.	3.500	4.200	4.250	3.957
	24	I replace the original message with another message because of feeling incapable of executing my original intent.	3.000	3.300	4.250	3.391
Category 6 Non-Verbal Strategies	25	I try to make eye-contact when I am talking.	4.000	3.700	3.000	3.696
	26	I use gestures and facial expressions if I can't communicate how to express myself.	4.500	4.400	3.750	4.217
Category 7 Message Abandonment	27	I abandon the execution of a verbal plan and just say some words when I don't know what to say.	3.125	3.800	4.250	3.636
	28	I leave a message unfinished because of some language difficulty.	2.500	3.500	3.000	3.044
	29	I ask other people to help when I can't communicate well.	4.125	4.500	4.750	4.435
	30	I give up when I can't make myself understood.	2.125	2.900	2.750	2.652
Category 8 Attempt to Think in English	31	I think first of what I want to say in my native language and then construct the English sentence.	3.375	4.400	4.750	4.130
	32	I think first of a sentence I already know in English and then try to change it to fit the situation.	3.875	3.900	3.500	3.783
Average of All Strategies for Coping with Speaking Problems			3.767	3.747	3.490	3.753

Regarding the large number of individual strategies highly used in each category, the social affective category outnumbered all others. All six individual strategies within this category were highly used, ranging from an average of 3.739 to an average of 4.304. The individual strategy most highly used was trying to give a good impression to the listener with an average use of 4.304. Two strategies were next, namely the strategy of trying to enjoy the conversation and the strategy of trying to relax when feeling anxious, each with an average use of 4.087. In trying to enjoy the conversation, the high achievers were positioned first but in trying to relax when feeling anxious they were positioned last. The last most highly used individual strategy within the social affective category was students' not minding taking risks even though making mistakes. For this strategy the high achievers were positioned

first ($M = 4.000$) while the middle and low achievers showed similar use, with an average of 3.700 and 3.750 respectively.

The next categories with a large number of highly used individual strategies were non-verbal strategies while speaking and attempting to think in English. Both categories consist of two individual strategies which were both highly used.

Regarding the use of individual strategies of trying to make eye-contact when talking and using gestures and facial expressions when unable to express themselves, higher achievers used these strategies more frequently. The higher the students' level of oral proficiency the higher their use of these strategies.

One further point is evident in the use of the fluency-oriented category. Only one individual strategy was highly used by the students, which was that of taking time to express what students want to say. This strategy was used with an average of 3.957. Both the low and middle achievers used this strategy at an average of 4.000 while the high achievers used this strategy at an average of 3.750. This suggests that students' level of proficiency also determines the time taken to express themselves orally. The higher their proficiency level the less time they need to express themselves in oral communication. This was different from the use of other individual strategies within the same category. As shown in the table only the high achievers frequently used the strategies of paying attention to pronunciation, trying to speak clearly and loudly to make themselves heard, and paying attention to the conversation flow. Other groups used these strategies at medium range.

Comparison of the individual strategies use across students of different oral proficiency levels shows that the higher the students' level of oral proficiency, the more numerous the strategies they employed. The high achievers frequently used 21 individual strategies while the middle achievers frequently used 18 strategies. The low achievers were positioned last with frequent use of 13 individual strategies including the use of both positive and negative strategies.

When the negative strategies are separated from the positive strategies, it shows that, generally, the lower the students' level of oral proficiency the higher their use of negative strategies. Five out of seven negative individual strategies were used with the low achievers consistently using these strategies most and the high achievers using them least. The strategies were using only familiar words, reducing the message and using simple expressions, replacing the original message with another message, abandoning the execution of a verbal plan and just saying some words, and asking other people to help. Use of the other two individual strategies revealed that the middle achievers used the strategies the most and the high achievers used them least. These two strategies were leaving a message unfinished and giving up when cannot communicate. In short, these findings continue to support the claim that the higher the level of students' oral proficiency, the higher their use of positive strategies and the lower their use of negative strategies.

7.3 Strategies for Coping with Listening Problems

This section presents the use of strategies for coping with listening problems at the beginning and end of semester. Each subsection presents use of strategies in categories and in individuals.

7.3.1 Use of listening strategies at the beginning of semester.

In this subsection, findings on the use of strategies for coping with listening problems are presented, highlighting the most frequently used strategies, the use of negative versus positive strategies, and comparison of strategies used by different groups of students. Summary of the findings is presented in Table 7.7.

Table 7.7

Frequency of Use of Oral Communication Strategies for Coping with Listening Problems at the Beginning of Semester

Positive Strategies

Strategies for Coping with Listening Problems	High Achievers	Middle Achievers	Low Achievers	Average
1 Negotiate for Meaning while Listening	3.525	3.508	3.267	3.433
2 Fluency Maintaining	3.775	3.417	3.333	3.508
3 Scanning	4.250	4.167	4.083	4.167
4 Getting the Gist	3.594	3.479	3.167	3.413
5 Non-Verbal Strategies while Listening	4.313	3.792	3.333	3.813
7 Word-Oriented	4.313	4.438	4.333	4.361
Average of All	3.962	3.800	3.586	3.783

Negative Strategies

Strategies for Coping with Listening Problems	High Achievers	Middle Achievers	Low Achievers	Average
6 Less Active Listener	3.875	4.292	4.167	4.111

Of all the categories and disregarding students' level of oral proficiency, a word-oriented strategy was most highly used, with an average of 4.361. The middle achievers used this strategy most frequently with an average use of 4.438 followed by the low achievers at 4.333 and the high achievers at 4.313.

The second most highly used strategy was scanning, with an average use of 4.167. The high achievers used this strategy most, with an average use of 4.250. The middle achievers with an average use of 4.167 followed, and the low achievers used this strategy least, with an average use of 4.083. There was a tendency that the higher the level of oral proficiency the students possessed, the higher the frequency of use of the strategy.

The third most highly used category was that of being less active listeners. In this category, the middle achievers used the strategy most frequently with an average of 4.292 while the low achievers were second with an average use of 4.167. The high achievers were last with an average use of 3.875.

The fourth highly used category was that of non-verbal strategies. The high achievers used this strategy most with an average of 4.313 while the middle achievers and the low achievers used it at an average of 3.792 and 3.333 respectively. Both the high and middle achievers used this strategy at a high range, and the low achievers employed this strategy at a medium range.

The other three categories of strategies were averagely employed at a medium range of use. These strategies were fluency maintaining, negotiation for meaning while listening, and getting the gist, each with an average of 3.508, 3.433, and 3.413

respectively. Getting the gist was the least frequently used strategy. Again, for these three categories, the high achievers used these strategies the most, and the middle achievers used them more frequently than the low achievers.

Regarding the use of negative versus positive strategies for coping with listening problems, findings show that negative strategies were used more frequently than positive strategies. The low achievers used positive strategies the least, at the medium range, while both the high and middle achievers used the strategies at the high range. High achievers used positive strategies most and negative strategies the least. Low achievers used the negative strategies slightly lower than the middle achievers who used these most. The high achievers used the negative strategies least. Thus, the higher the students' level of proficiency, the higher their tendency to use positive strategies for coping with listening problems and the lower their tendency to use negative strategies.

Use of individual strategies for coping with listening strategies is presented in Table 7.8. It presents the 26 individual strategies as used by students of different levels of oral proficiency.

Of all the individual strategies across different categories, there were three strategies very highly used. The most highly used strategy was trying to catch every word that the speaker uses, with an average use of 4.609. It was the middle achievers who favoured this strategy most with the low achievers positioned second and the high achievers last. The second most highly used strategy was guessing the speaker's intention by picking up familiar words, showing an average use of 4.565. For this

Table 7.8

Frequency of Use of Individual Oral Communication Strategies for Coping with
Listening Problems at the Beginning of Semester

Factors	Strategies for Coping with Listening Problems		High Achievers	Middle Achievers	Low Achievers	Average of All
Category 1 Negotiation for Meaning	1	I ask the speaker to slow down when I can't understand what the speaker has said.	3.375	3.546	3.333	3.435
	2	I ask the speaker to use easy words when I have difficulties in comprehension.	3.750	3.909	3.667	3.826
	3	I make a clarification request when I am not sure what the speaker has said.	3.125	3.091	2.667	3.046
	4	I ask for repetition when I can't understand what the speaker has said.	4.125	3.909	3.667	3.957
	5	I make clear to the speaker what I haven't been able to understand.	3.250	3.091	3.000	3.130
Category 2 Fluency-maintaining	6	I ask the speaker to give an example when I am not sure what he/she said.	4.250	3.727	2.667	3.783
	7	I pay attention to the speaker's rhythm and intonation.	4.000	3.546	3.667	3.670
	8	I send continuation signals to show my understanding in order to avoid communication gaps.	3.750	3.000	2.667	3.217
	9	I use circumlocution to react the speaker's utterance when I don't understand his/her intention well.	2.750	3.364	4.000	3.261
	10	I pay attention to the speaker's pronunciation.	4.125	3.455	3.667	3.696
Category 3 Scanning	11	I pay attention to the first part of the sentence and guess the speaker's intention.	3.750	4.182	4.333	4.044
	12	I try to catch the speaker's main point.	4.625	4.455	4.333	4.522
	13	I especially pay attention to the interrogative when I listen to WH-questions.	4.375	4.455	4.333	4.435
	14	I pay attention to the subject and verb of the sentence when I listen.	4.250	3.455	3.333	3.739
Category 4 Getting the Gist	15	I try to respond to the speaker even when I don't understand him/her perfectly.	4.000	3.455	3.333	3.609
	16	I guess the speaker's intention based on what he/she has said so far.	3.750	3.636	4.000	3.696
	17	I don't mind if I can't understand every single detail.	3.375	3.546	3.000	3.478
	18	I anticipate what the speaker is going to say based on the context.	3.250	3.182	2.333	3.130

Category 5 Nonverbal Strategies	19	I use gestures when I have difficulties in understanding.	3.875	3.636	3.333	3.696
	20	I pay attention to the speaker's eye contact, facial expression and gestures.	4.750	3.909	3.333	4.130
Category 6 Less Active Listener	21	I try to translate into native language little by little to understand what the speaker has said.	3.750	4.455	4.000	4.130
	22	I only focus on familiar expressions.	4.000	4.091	4.333	4.130
Category 7 Word- Oriented	23	I pay attention to the first word to judge whether it is an interrogative sentence or not.	4.125	4.182	4.000	4.174
	24	I try to catch every word that the speaker uses.	4.500	4.727	4.667	4.609
	25	I guess the speaker's intention by picking up familiar words.	4.625	4.636	4.333	4.565
	26	I pay attention to the words which the speaker slows down or emphasizes.	4.000	4.273	4.333	4.174
Average of All Strategies to Cope with Listening Problems			3.949	3.860	3.669	3.866

category, the middle achievers were positioned first and the low achievers ranked last. The third most highly used strategy was trying to catch the speaker's main point with average of 4.522. The high achievers used this strategy most with the low achievers using it least.

When the number of highly used individual strategies is compared among students of different groups, it shows that students of high achievement used the most numerous strategies, with a number of 18 highly used individual strategies. The middle achievers highly used 13 individual strategies while the low achievers highly used 11 individual strategies. This confirms previous findings that students of higher level of oral proficiency use more strategies.

Further claims can be made regarding highly used individual strategies within categories. Word-oriented strategy was found to have the highest number of highly

used individual strategies; all of the four individual strategies included in this category were highly used. These individual strategies ranged between an average use of 4.174 and 4.609. Two of these four individual strategies were the highest two among all individual strategies across different categories; these were trying to catch every word that the speaker uses and guessing the speaker's intention by picking up familiar words. Both the strategies of paying attention to the first word to judge whether a sentence is an interrogative and paying attention to the words which the speaker slows down or emphasises were of the same average use. A tentative conclusion can be drawn that the middle achievers were the most word-oriented group, using these three strategies most frequently.

The second category with a large number of highly used individual strategies was the scanning category. Three out of four individual strategies were highly used. Those four individual strategies ranged between an average use of 3.739 and 4.522. The highest individual strategy in use was trying to catch the speaker's main point, which was also the third highest strategy used among all individual strategies across different categories. The second was the strategy of paying attention to the interrogative when listening to WH-questions with an average use of 4.435. The third highly used individual strategy was paying attention to the first part of the sentence and guessing the speaker's intention, showing an average use of 4.044. Of all these individual strategies within the scanning category, the low achievers used three out of the four strategies the least.

The third category with a large number of highly used individual strategies was that of less active strategies, considered as negative strategies. Both two

individual strategies within this category were of an average use of 4.130. The high achievers used these two strategies the least. The low achievers used the strategy of only focusing on familiar words the most while the middle achievers most highly used the strategy of trying to translate into native language little by little to understand what the speaker has said. These findings, again, confirm the previous premise that the higher the level of students' oral proficiency, the lower their use of negative strategies.

7.3.2 Use of listening strategies at the end of semester.

This subsection presents the use of strategies for coping with listening problems at the end of semester when TBL had been implemented for the whole semester. Discussion covers the most highly used strategies, negative versus positive strategies, as well as comparison of strategies use among the groups of students. Table 7.9 summarizes the findings.

Among the strategies for coping with listening problems, word oriented strategy was the most frequently used by all students across different oral proficiency levels. The average use of 4.364 suggests a very high use of range. Within this category, it was the middle achievers ($M = 4.500$) who used this strategy most, followed by the high achievers ($M = 4.361$) and the low achievers ($M = 4.063$).

The second most highly used strategy was scanning with an average use of 4.174. For this category, the high achievers used the strategy most. The middle achievers followed with an average use of 4.300. Both the high and middle achievers

used the scanning strategy in the high range. Finally, the low achievers used this strategy with an average of 3.563, suggesting a medium range of use.

Table 7.9

Frequency of Use of Oral Communication Strategies for Coping with Listening Problems at the End of Semester

Strategies for Coping with Listening Problems	High Achievers	Middle Achievers	Low Achievers	Average
1 Negotiation for Meaning while Listening	3.956	3.660	2.850	3.635
2 Fluency Maintaining	3.756	3.380	2.850	3.435
3 Scanning	4.306	4.300	3.563	4.174
4 Getting the Gist	3.639	3.472	2.563	3.375
5 Non-Verbal Strategies while Listening	4.167	4.100	4.125	4.130
7 Word-Oriented	4.361	4.500	4.063	4.364
Average of All	4.031	3.902	3.336	3.852

Strategies for Coping with Listening Problems	High Achievers	Middle Achievers	Low Achievers	Average
6 Less Active Listener	3.611	3.950	3.750	3.783

The third most frequently used strategy was that of non-verbal strategies while listening, showing an average use of 4.130. The high achievers used this most, followed by the low achievers and finally the middle achievers. All groups of students used this strategy within a high range.

The next most highly used strategy for coping with listening problems was that of being less active listener, with an average use of 3.783. The middle achievers used this strategy most while the high achievers used this strategy least within a medium range of use. The low achievers also used this strategy within high range but were positioned second after the middle achievers.

The next three categories of strategies for coping with listening problems were within the range of medium use. Those strategies were negotiation for meaning while listening with an average use of 3.635, followed by fluency maintaining with an average of 3.435. Finally, getting the gist was positioned last with an average use of 3.375. For these three categories, the high achievers were always positioned highest in using the strategies, followed by the middle achievers and finally the low achievers. It was only the high achievers who used the strategies of negotiation for meaning while listening and fluency maintaining within the range of high use while the middle and low achievers used these strategies within the medium range. Finally, all students used the strategy of getting the gist within the medium range; none of the groups used this strategy within the high range of use.

Regarding the use of positive versus negative strategies, findings show that the average use of positive strategies was higher than that of negative strategies, despite both being within the same range of high use. The high achievers showed the high use of positive strategies with an average use of 4.031. The middle achievers were positioned second with an average use of 3.902. Both the high and middle achievers used positive strategies at high range. The low achievers used positive strategies at medium range with an average use of 3.336. There were different findings in the use of negative strategies. The high achievers used these at medium range while both the middle and low achievers used negative strategies at high range. The middle achievers lead with an average of 3.950 followed by the low achievers averaging at 3.750. It was expected that the higher the level of the students' oral proficiency, the lower their use of negative strategies. However these findings show

that the middle achievers used negative strategies more frequently than the low achievers. In this case, qualitative data is needed to further explore the findings.

The use of individual strategies for coping with listening problems at the end of semester is presented in Table 7.10. It covers the use of 26 individual strategies.

Across different categories, there were four individual strategies very highly used. Those strategies were guessing the speaker's intention by picking up familiar words ($M = 4.565$), trying to catch the speaker's main point ($M = 4.565$), paying attention to the first word to judge whether a sentence is an interrogative ($M = 4.348$), and paying attention to the words which the speaker slows down or emphasizes ($M = 4.318$). The middle achievers used three of these four strategies most while the low achievers used them least. These three individual strategies belong to word-oriented category.

When all categories are compared in terms of the high number of individual strategies within high range of use, the word-oriented strategy was first. Within this category, all of the four individual strategies were highly used. The first highly used individual strategy was guessing the speaker's intention by picking up familiar words, with an average of 4.565. The second individual strategy most highly used in this category was paying attention to the first word to judge whether a sentence is an interrogative, showing an average use of 4.348. The next individual strategy was paying attention to the words which the speaker slows down or emphasizes ($M = 4.318$). As mentioned earlier, the first three individual strategies in this category were also the highest in use across categories. The last was the strategy of trying to catch

Table 7.10

Frequency of Use of Individual Oral Communication Strategies for Coping with
Listening Problems at the End of Semester

Factors		Strategies for Coping with Listening Problems	High Achievers	Middle Achievers	Low Achievers	Average of All
Category 1 Negotiation for Meaning	1	I ask the speaker to slow down when I can't understand what the speaker has said.	3.889	3.556	3.000	3.565
	2	I ask the speaker to use easy words when I have difficulties in comprehension.	4.333	3.778	3.000	3.826
	3	I make a clarification request when I am not sure what the speaker has said.	4.000	3.444	2.750	3.522
	4	I ask for repetition when I can't understand what the speaker has said.	4.111	4.111	3.250	3.913
	5	I make clear to the speaker what I haven't been able to understand.	3.444	3.778	2.250	3.348
Category 2 Fluency-maintaining	6	I ask the speaker to give an example when I am not sure what he/she said.	4.111	3.667	2.500	3.609
	7	I pay attention to the speaker's rhythm and intonation.	4.111	3.667	3.000	3.739
	8	I send continuation signals to show my understanding in order to avoid communication gaps.	3.556	3.222	4.000	3.522
	9	I use circumlocution to react the speaker's utterance when I don't understand his/her intention well.	3.000	2.778	2.250	2.826
	10	I pay attention to the speaker's pronunciation.	4.000	3.444	2.500	3.478
Category 3 Scanning	11	I pay attention to the first part of the sentence and guess the speaker's intention.	4.111	4.333	3.250	4.087
	12	I try to catch the speaker's main point.	4.667	4.556	4.500	4.565
	13	I especially pay attention to the interrogative when I listen to WH-questions.	4.333	4.556	3.750	4.261
	14	I pay attention to the subject and verb of the sentence when I listen.	4.111	4.000	2.750	3.783
Category 4 Getting the Gist	15	I try to respond to the speaker even when I don't understand him/her perfectly.	4.000	4.000	2.500	3.739
	16	I guess the speaker's intention based on what he/she has said so far.	4.000	3.556	2.750	3.652
	17	I don't mind if I can't understand every single detail.	3.222	3.778	2.500	3.348
	18	I anticipate what the speaker is going to say based on the context.	3.333	2.556	2.500	2.864
Category 5 Nonverbal Strategies	19	I use gestures when I have difficulties in understanding.	4.000	4.222	4.000	4.044
	20	I pay attention to the speaker's eye contact, facial expression and gestures.	4.333	4.333	4.250	4.217

Category 6 Less Active Listener	21	I try to translate into native language little by little to understand what the speaker has said.	3.667	4.111	3.750	3.826
	22	I only focus on familiar expressions.	3.556	4.000	3.750	3.739
Category 7 Word- Oriented	23	I pay attention to the first word to judge whether it is an interrogative sentence or not.	4.333	4.444	4.000	4.348
	24	I try to catch every word that the speaker uses.	4.222	4.556	3.750	4.273
	25	I guess the speaker's intention by picking up familiar words.	4.556	4.556	4.500	4.565
	26	I pay attention to the words which the speaker slows down or emphasizes.	4.333	4.444	4.000	4.318
Average of All Strategies to Cope with Listening Problems			3.971	3.965	3.395	3.864

every word that the speaker uses, with an average use of 4.273. In using these four individual strategies, the middle achievers were always in the first position and the low achievers last.

The second category with a large number of highly used individual strategies was the scanning category which consisted of four highly used individual strategies. Within this category, the first highest individual strategy used was trying to catch the speaker's main point which was the highest in use across different categories. This strategy was used with an average of 4.565. The second was the strategy of paying attention to the interrogative when listening to the WH-questions, showing an average of 4.261. Third was the strategy of paying attention to the first part of a sentence and guessing the speaker's intention with an average use of 4.087. Fourth was the strategy of paying attention to the subject and verb of a sentence when listening. This strategy had an average use of 3.783. In using these four individual strategies, the high and middle achievers were ranked first or second while the low achievers were always positioned last.

The third category with a large number of highly used individual strategies was that of non-verbal strategies while listening. Paying attention to the speaker's eye contact, facial expression and gestures was the first most frequently used strategy within this category. Use of this strategy showed an average of 4.217. Both the high and middle achievers used this strategy at an average of 4.333 while the low achievers used this strategy with an average of 4.250. The second most highly used individual strategy within this category was using gestures when having difficulties in understanding speaker's utterances, with an average use of 4.044. For this category, the middle achievers used it most ($M = 4.222$) while the high and low achievers used it at an average of 4.000.

Regarding the use of negative strategies, both the two individual strategies within the category of less active listener were also high in use. The strategy of trying to translate into native language little by little to understand what the speaker has said was used at an average of 3.826. The second individual strategy, focusing on familiar expressions, was used with an average of 3.739. The middle achievers used both individual strategies most, the low achievers were second and the high achievers used them least.

7.4 Summary and Discussion

Data analysis in this chapter shows some noteworthy findings. These findings are related to students' use of oral communication strategies at the beginning and end of semester, their preferences for using strategies for coping with speaking problems

and listening problems, and their preference for strategies use as determined by their levels of oral communication proficiencies.

In general, data revealed that students of higher levels of oral communication proficiency used oral communication strategies more numerous and more frequently. This happened for the uses of strategies for coping with speaking and listening problems and was maintained from the beginning until the end of semester. This is consistent with a number of previous studies (for example, Green & Oxford, 1995; Griffiths, 2003a; Macaro, 2006; Magogwe & Oliver, 2007; Oxford & Ehrman, 1995; Rubin, 1975; Wharton, 2000) in providing further evidence that students of higher achievement use more strategies and use them more frequently. However, this is not consistent with Bialystok and Frohlich's (1980) claim that learners of high proficiency level were more efficient in communication strategy use because they were assumed not to encounter as many problems as learners of lower proficiency do. Nor are these findings congruent with Poullisse's (1997) principle of "economy" which requires learners to use strategies which involve the least possible expenditure of effort.

That findings of this study are not consistent with Bialystok and Frohlich (1980) or Poullisse (1997) may be due to the method used to collect data. In the present study, data were collected using an inventory in which students indicated what they "think" they are doing to solve problems, rather than showing what strategies they are "really" implementing. Therefore, in order to get accurate data regarding students' use of oral communication strategies, triangulation is necessary (Nakatani & Goh, 2007). The combination of various procedures such as

combination of transcribed classroom activities, retrospective interviews, and a validated questionnaire is one option. This combination of data collection methods was implemented in the present study.

At the beginning of semester, there was a significant difference between the uses of strategies for coping with speaking and listening problems with students' preference in using listening strategies. Students tended to focus more on the listening activities than on the speaking activities during oral communication tasks. However, at the end of semester, students' tendency to use listening strategies was reduced. Students now balanced the use of both speaking and listening strategies by increasing the use of speaking strategies and reducing the use of listening strategies. Figure 7.1 shows the change. Disregarding other possible influential factors, the implementation of TBL has impacted on a shift in strategies used. This suggests that students were now more active in expressing themselves orally; they were now more motivated to speak than they were at the beginning of semester. The gap between the two types of strategies was reduced with the higher rate of speaking strategies use and the lower rate of listening strategies use. This suggests that the implementation of TBL over one semester resulted in a more balanced use of strategies for coping with speaking and listening problems, which can be attributed to more effective use of strategies when referred to students' progress in their oral communication skills (see Chapter 6, section 6.3).

This shift of strategies use is presented in more detail in Chapter 8 and 9, discussing shifts in oral communication strategies use in which comparison of the

students' use of oral communication strategies at the beginning and end of semester is discussed covering both quantitative and qualitative findings.

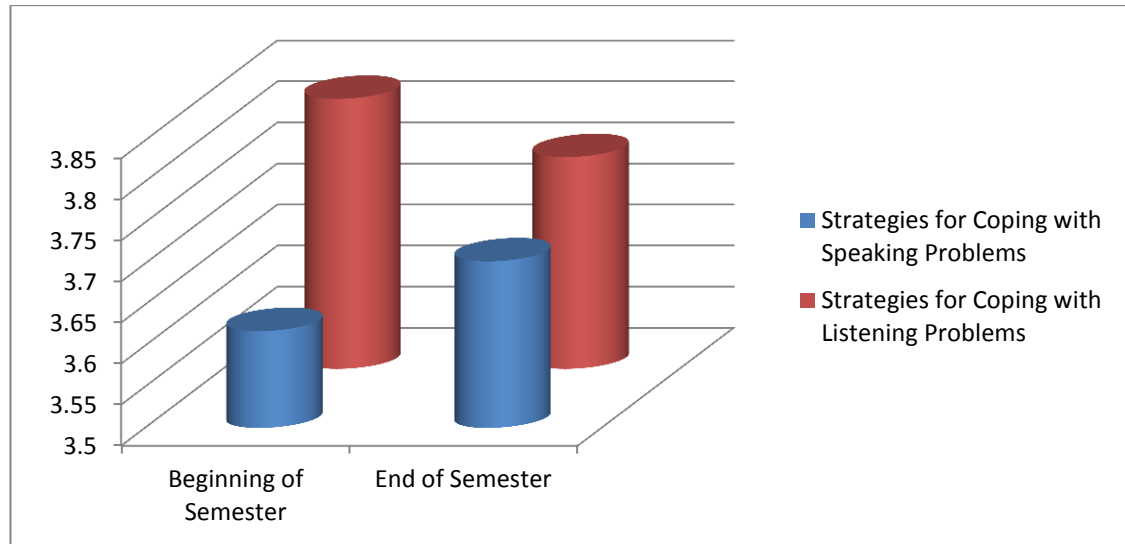


Figure 7.1 Changes of the oral communication strategies use.

Findings regarding more balanced use of strategies for coping with speaking and listening problems implies better strategic competence, one of the components of communicative competence (Canale & Swain, 1980). Improved communication strategies may support learners' development in oral communication skills (Goh, 2007). Related to findings presented in Chapter 6 about students' progress in oral communication skills (see section 6.3), these findings are consistent with Willis (1996) who claims that one of the specific goals of TBL is to develop learners' strategic competence in order to make them more communicatively effective. These findings also corroborate a study by Lee (2004), that second language acquisition can evolve from learner-learner interaction in communicative tasks through strategies.

Both at the beginning and end of semester and for strategies to cope with both speaking and listening problems, there was a tendency that the higher the level of

students' oral communication proficiency, the more they use positive strategies. Students of lower proficiency used negative strategies more frequently than those of higher proficiency. Most of these strategies (for example, use of familiar words or simple expressions, inability to convey original message, or leaving message unfinished) are the result of limited linguistic knowledge, especially lexicon. Therefore, it is understandable that most low achievers, with more limited linguistic knowledge, used negative strategies more frequently.

At the beginning of semester, all students used negative strategies frequently. Toward the end of semester, students' use of negative strategies, namely message reduction and alteration and less active listener, was significantly reduced while most positive strategies were increasingly used. Students were shifting from employing reduction strategies, where learners give up a topic or abandon a specific message, to increasingly using achievement strategies, where learners decide to keep the original communication goal and attempt to compensate for insufficient means for achieving it (see Faerch & Kasper, 1983 for differences between reduction and achievement strategies). As related to findings presented in section 6.3 about students' progress in oral communication skills, these findings may support a claim that achievement strategies foster acquisition but avoidance strategies do not (Faerch & Kasper, 1980). Further, it can be suggested that the implementation of TBL for one semester, among other possible factors, may result in the reduced use of negative strategies and increased use of positive strategies.

Among the oral communication strategies for coping with speaking problems, the social affective strategy was the most favoured. This strategy was ranked second

at the beginning of semester and ranked first at the end of semester. This finding echoes Wharton's (2000) study which indicated that bilingual Asian students favoured social strategies more than any other strategy and category and that social strategies in general were one of the most favoured strategies among all Asian students. However, findings at the end of semester showed an increased use of this strategy by the middle and low achievers, suggesting a stronger intention of these groups to use social affective strategies. Interestingly, only the high achievers showed a reduced use of social affective strategies. This relates to findings of a study by Oxford et al. (2004) claiming that affective strategies are helpful when learners are anxious or when they need a motivational boost, so high-proficiency learners may not require these strategies as much as students with less advanced language skills.

For the use of individual strategies for coping with speaking problems, the strategy of using words which are familiar to students was always the most favoured by all students from the beginning to the end of semester. The strategy of asking other people's help was always second. With regard to individual strategies for coping with listening problems, the strategy of guessing the speaker's intention by picking up familiar words was positioned second at the beginning of semester and was most favoured by the end of semester.

CHAPTER 8

SHIFTS IN ORAL COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES FOR COPING WITH SPEAKING PROBLEMS

This chapter responds to part of the second research question, whether there was a change in students' use of oral communication strategies during the implementation of Task Based Learning (TBL), in terms of strategies for coping with speaking problems. In response to this question, this chapter presents findings and discussions of the quantitative data sourced from the questionnaire of Oral Communication Strategy Inventory (OCSI) by Nakatani (2006) and qualitative findings from in-depth interviews, speaking test, stimulated recalls, and classroom activities. Regarding quantitative findings, changes or shifts in oral communication strategies used were traced by the comparison of strategies use at the beginning of semester, when TBL had not been implemented, and at the end of semester when TBL had been implemented. Quantitative discussion is supported by presentation and analysis of qualitative findings.

Computation of shifts in oral communication strategies use within the quantitative analysis was conducted using a paired t-test with 21 paired samples. Presentation of values in tables in this chapter may not show the same values as presented in Chapter 7. This is due to the omission of non-paired values in the computation of the shifts. For example, student A who filled out the whole inventory at the beginning of the semester but left some blanks at the end of the semester would have the unfilled items excluded in the computation of shift.

All excerpts from the interviews, speaking test, and stimulated recall were transcribed. Data which was to be used in the findings presentation was translated into English. The translation from Indonesian language into English attempted to be thematic as this was expected to be as close as possible to the original message. If clarification appeared necessary, it is presented in square brackets. Excerpts are presented with pseudonyms. Identification of students' proficiency levels is put following the student's pseudonym. (Hi) refers to High Achievers, (Md) refers to Middle Achievers, and (Lo) refers to Low Achievers. When these occurred, pauses were transcribed into dots, the longer the pause the greater the number of dots.

8.1 Shifts in Use of Speaking Strategies across Students of Different Proficiencies

This section presents the findings on students' shifts in the use of oral communication strategies for coping with speaking problems across students of different proficiencies as viewed in categories. It covers the presentation of significant changes, increased and decreased use within each category and comparison of positive and negative strategies, as well as comparison of shifts among students of different oral proficiency levels. Table 8.1 summarizes the findings.

Table 8.1

Shifts in Use of Oral Communication Strategies for Coping with Speaking Problems (in Categories)

No	Categories	High Achievers				Middle Achievers				Low Achievers				Average All Groups			
		Means		t-value	Sig. (2-tailed)	Means		t-value	Sig. (2-tailed)	Means		t-value	Sig. (2-tailed)	Means		t-value	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Begin	End			Begin	End			Begin	End			Begin	End		
1	Social Affective	4.188	4.021	.847	.425	3.650	4.183	-2.157	.059	3.778	3.500	.945	0.444	3.952	4.024	-.554	.586
2	Fluency Oriented	3.458	3.771	-1.472	.185	3.467	3.517	-.214	.835	3.333	3.056	.714	0.549	3.444	3.548	-.699	.492
3	Negotiation for Meaning while Speaking	3.375	3.844	-2.007	.085	3.375	3.500	-.432	.676	3.000	3.333	-.355	0.757	3.321	3.607	-1.445	.164
4	Accuracy Oriented	3.325	3.675	-1.433	.195	3.380	3.280	.522	.614	3.467	3.200	.512	0.659	3.371	3.419	-.316	.755
5	Message Reduction and Alteration	4.167	3.708	2.762	.028	4.400	4.067	1.732	.117	4.333	4.444	-.378	0.742	4.302	3.984	2.633	.016
6	Non-Verbal Strategies in Speaking	4.125	4.375	-1.871	.104	3.450	4.050	-4.129	.003	2.667	3.167	-.866	0.478	3.595	4.048	-3.97	.001
7	Message Abandonment	3.250	3.107	.760	.476	3.725	3.675	.452	.662	3.917	3.917	.000	1.000	3.588	3.513	.842	.410
8	Attempt to Think in English	3.563	3.625	-.284	.785	3.817	4.150	-1.861	.096	3.833	3.833	.000	1.000	3.643	3.905	-1.562	.134

Disregarding the students' levels of oral proficiency, of all the strategy categories for coping with speaking problems, there were six increased and two decreased use of strategies. Interestingly, the six increased categories belong to positive strategies while the two decreased strategies are those considered as negative strategies, namely message reduction and message abandonment. The other six categories increasingly used were strategies of social affective, fluency oriented, negotiation for meaning while speaking, accuracy oriented, non-verbal strategies in speaking, and attempting to think in English. These findings reveal that, after the implementation of TBL for one semester, in general, students' use of positive strategies increased while their use of negative strategies decreased.

Findings for each group show that among the high achievers there were five increased and three decreased use of oral communication strategies for coping with speaking problems. Increasingly used oral communication strategies were strategies of fluency oriented, negotiation for meaning while speaking, accuracy oriented, non-verbal strategies while speaking and attempt to think in English. All five strategies belong to positive strategies. Decreasingly used strategies by high achievers were social affective, message reduction and alteration, and message abandonment. Two of these strategies belong to negative strategies. These findings support the general finding that, by the end of semester, when TBL had been implemented for one semester, high achievers' use of positive oral communication strategies, except the social affective strategy, increased and their use of negative strategies decreased.

Furthermore, findings on the changes to oral communication strategies for coping with speaking problems as used by the middle achievers were similar. There

were five increased and three decreased use of strategies. All of the five increasingly used strategies were included in the positive strategies; they were the strategies of social affective, fluency oriented, negotiation for meaning while speaking, non-verbal strategies on speaking, and attempt to think in English. Two out of the three decreasingly used strategies belong to negative strategies, which were message reduction and alteration and message abandonment. The only positive strategy which was decreasingly used by the middle achievers was that of accuracy oriented. In short, these findings confirm that, after the implementation of TBL for one semester, middle achievers' use of positive strategies, except the accuracy oriented strategy, was increased while their use of negative strategies was decreased.

A different pattern was found on the shifts of oral communication strategies used by the low achievers. There were three increased use, three decreased use, and two unchanged use of oral communication strategies. The three increasingly used strategies were those of negotiation for meaning while speaking, non-verbal strategies in speaking, and message reduction and alteration. Those belonging to the decreasingly used strategies by the low achievers were social affective, fluency oriented, and accuracy oriented. Two strategies whose use did not change were that of message abandonment and that of attempting to think in English. This pattern of shifts in strategy-use by the low achievers did not follow the general pattern shown by the high and middle achievers. The low achievers increased the use of one negative strategy and two positive strategies and reduced using three positive strategies.

When significant changes were sought in each group of oral proficiency levels, it was found that the middle achievers outnumbered other groups in terms of change. There were three significant changes in the use of oral communication strategies by the middle achievers while there were two significant changes made by the high achievers and no significant changes made by the low achievers. The significant changes of oral communication strategies by the middle achievers were the increased use of social affective ($p = .059$), the increased use of non-verbal strategies while speaking ($p = .003$), and the increased use of attempt to think in English ($p = .096$). For the high achievers, the significant changes in the use of oral communication strategies were the increased use of negotiation for meaning while speaking, showing a $p = .085$ and the decreased of message reduction and alteration ($p = .028$). These findings suggest that the implementation of TBL for one semester significantly affected shifts in some oral communication strategies for both high and middle achievers but not for low achievers.

All of the above findings regarding the shifts in oral communication strategies use after the implementation of TBL for one semester suggest the following. First, TBL impacted on students' use of oral communication strategies for coping with speaking problems. Second, after one semester implementation of TBL, in general, students increased the use of positive strategies and decreased the use of negative strategies. Finally, it seems that the higher the students' levels of oral proficiency the greater their tendency to increase the use of positive strategies and to reduce the use of negative strategies.

8.2 Shifts in Use of Speaking Strategies

This section presents findings regarding shifts in use of oral communication strategies. Following general discussion of findings, this section is divided into eight sub-sections under the eight categories of strategies for coping with speaking problems. Each subsection comprises of individual strategies, 32 in total. Discussion presented covers increased and decreased use of strategies, significant changes, comparison of positive versus negative strategies, and comparison of shifts between different groups of students. Table 8.2 summarizes the shifts in use of individual strategies.

Disregarding the level of students' oral communication proficiencies, there were 17 increased, 14 decreased, and one unchanged use of individual oral communication strategies for coping with speaking problems. Five out of the 14 decreased use of individual strategies belong to negative strategies. Those five strategies are using only familiar words, reducing the intended messages and using simple expressions, replacing the original messages with another message, leaving messages unfinished due to some language difficulty, and asking other people to help when unable to communicate well. There was only one negative strategy which was increasingly used; it was that of giving up when unable to make listeners understand.

Table 8.2

Shifts in Use of Individual Oral Communication Strategies for Coping with Speaking Problems

Factors	Item No.	Questionnaire Items	Beginning of Semester		End of Semester		Changes in the Use of Strategies		
			Mean	SD	Mean	SD	t-value	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Factor 1 Social Affective	1	I try to use fillers when I cannot think of what to say.	4.333	0.796	4.000	0.837	1.195	20	0.246
	2	I try to give a good impression to the listener.	4.095	0.768	4.286	0.784	-1.164	20	0.258
	3	I don't mind taking risks even though I might make mistakes.	3.857	0.793	3.667	0.966	1.284	20	0.214
	4	I try to enjoy the conversation.	4.095	0.889	4.095	0.889	0	20	1
	5	I try to relax when I feel anxious.	3.857	1.062	4.048	0.921	-0.722	20	0.479
	6	I actively encourage myself to express what I want to say.	3.476	0.873	4.048	0.921	-2.169	20	0.042
Factor 2 Fluency- Oriented	7	I change my way of saying things according to the context.	3.095	1.261	3.524	0.814	-1.441	20	0.165
	8	I take my time to express what I want to say.	4.571	0.598	3.952	0.740	3.281	20	0.004
	9	I pay attention to my pronunciation.	3.381	0.865	3.333	1.111	0.204	20	0.841
	10	I try to speak clearly and loudly to make myself heard.	3.571	0.926	3.429	0.978	0.645	20	0.526
	11	I pay attention to my rhythm and intonation.	3.000	1.096	3.476	0.981	-1.599	20	0.125
	12	I pay attention to the conversation flow.	3.048	1.071	3.571	0.978	-1.562	20	0.134
Factor 3 Negotiation for Meaning	13	While speaking, I pay attention to the listener's reaction to my speech.	4.048	0.805	4.095	0.700	-0.252	20	0.803
	14	I give examples if the listener doesn't understand what I am saying.	3.238	0.944	3.810	0.981	-2.098	20	0.049
	15	I repeat what I want to say until the listener understands.	3.476	1.123	3.667	1.278	-0.476	20	0.639
	16	I make comprehension checks to ensure the listener understands what I want to say.	2.524	0.928	2.857	0.793	-1.375	20	0.184

Factor 4 Accuracy Oriented	17	I pay attention to grammar and word order during conversation.	3.191	0.981	3.095	1.091	0.357	20	0.724
	18	I try to emphasize the subject and verb of the sentence.	2.905	1.044	3.429	1.028	-1.672	20	0.11
	19	I correct myself when I notice that I have made a mistake.	3.905	0.625	3.762	0.831	0.719	20	0.48
	20	I notice myself using an expression which fits a rule that I have learned.	3.524	0.750	3.048	1.028	0.346	20	0.733
	21	I try to talk like a native speaker.	3.333	1.111	3.762	1.091	-1.307	20	0.206
Factor 5 Message Reduction & Alteration	22	I use words which are familiar to me.	4.714	0.717	4.667	0.483	0.295	20	0.771
	23	I reduce the message and use simple expressions.	4.191	0.680	3.857	0.854	2.32	20	0.031
	24	I replace the original message with another message because of feeling incapable of executing my original intent.	4.000	0.949	3.429	0.811	1.922	20	0.069
Factor 6 Non-Verbal Strategies	25	I try to make eye-contact when I am talking.	3.524	0.814	3.810	0.981	-1.826	20	0.083
	26	I use gestures and facial expressions if I can't communicate how to express myself.	3.667	1.065	4.286	0.956	-3.281	20	0.004
Factor 7 Message Abandonment	27	I abandon the execution of a verbal plan and just say some words when I don't know what to say.	3.750	0.967	3.700	0.801	0.188	19	0.853
	28	I leave a message unfinished because of some language difficulty.	3.286	0.956	3.143	1.062	0.767	20	0.452
	29	I ask other people to help when I can't communicate well.	4.619	0.740	4.476	0.75	1.826	20	0.083
	30	I give up when I can't make myself understood.	2.762	0.944	2.810	1.03	-0.213	20	0.833
Factor 8 Attempt to Think in English	31	I think first of what I want to say in my native language and then construct the English sentence.	3.952	1.117	4.095	0.944	-0.46	20	0.651
	32	I think first of a sentence I already know in English and then try to change it to fit the situation.	3.286	1.007	3.714	0.845	-2.423	20	0.025

The other 16 increased use of strategies were positive strategies. These findings, which show decreased use of most negative strategies and increased use of most positive strategies, suggest good progress in students' use of oral communication strategies.

Students' different levels of oral communication proficiencies resulted in different patterns of change in use of oral communication strategies. This is summarized in Table 8.3. All three groups showed differences in terms of the number of significant changes and types of individual strategies. Of all the oral proficiency groups, the middle achievers made the greatest number of significant changes in the use of individual oral communication strategies for coping with speaking problems. There were ten significant changes made by the middle achievers whereas the high achievers made six significant changes. The low achievers did not show any significant changes.

In terms of the number of significant changes in each category, findings show that the category of message reduction and alteration showed the greatest change. Students made two significant changes in using this negative strategy; they were the strategy of reducing the original message and using simple expressions and the strategy of replacing the original message with another one due to students' feeling of being unable to express themselves. The use of individual strategies in other categories showed an average of one significant change. However, there was no significant change in the use of individual strategies within the category of accuracy oriented.

Table 8.3

Shifts in Use of Individual Oral Communication Strategies for Coping with Speaking Problems across Different Groups

Categories	Item No.	Questionnaire Items	High Achievers		Middle Achievers		Low Achievers	
			t-value	Sig. (2-tailed)	t-value	Sig. (2-tailed)	t-value	Sig. (2-tailed)
Category 1 Social Affective	1	I try to use fillers when I cannot think of what to say.	1.158	.285	.000	1.000	1.512	.270
	2	I try to give a good impression to the listener.	1.000	.351	-1.861	.096	.000	1.000
	3	I don't mind taking risks even though I might make mistakes.	.424	.685	2.449	.037	-1.000	.423
	4	I try to enjoy the conversation.	.314	.763	-2.449	.037	1.732	.225
	5	I try to relax when I feel anxious.	1.323	.227	-1.769	.111	-1.000	.423
	6	I actively encourage myself to express what I want to say.	-.607	.563	-2.372	.042	2.000	.184
Category 2 Fluency-Oriented	7	I change my way of saying things according to the context.	-.935	.381	-.429	.678	1.512	.270
	8	I take my time to express what I want to say.	1.488	.180	2.714	.024	.000	1.000
	9	I pay attention to my pronunciation.	-1.426	.197	.000	1.000	.000	1.000
	10	I try to speak clearly and loudly to make myself heard.	-.607	.563	1.861	.096	.756	.529
	11	I pay attention to my rhythm and intonation.	-.798	.451	-1.445	.182	-2.000	.184
	12	I pay attention to the conversation flow.	-3.813	.007	-.688	.509	-.229	.840
Category 3 Negotiation for Meaning	13	While speaking, I pay attention to the listener's reaction to my speech.	.000	1.000	.287	.780	.229	.840
	14	I give examples if the listener doesn't understand what I am saying.	-1.323	.227	-2.090	.066	-.756	.529
	15	I repeat what I want to say until the listener understands.	-2.546	.038	.921	.381	.000	1.000
	16	I make comprehension checks to ensure the listener understands what I want to say.	-.552	.598	-.937	.373	.000	1.000

Category 4 Accuracy Oriented	17	I pay attention to grammar and word order during conversation.	-1.528	.170	1.406	.193	.756	.529
	18	I try to emphasize the subject and verb of the sentence.	-1.488	.180	-1.152	.279	1.000	.423
	19	I correct myself when I notice that I have made a mistake.	.798	.451	-.429	.678	1.000	.423
	20	I notice myself using an expression which fits a rule that I have learned.	1.000	.351	1.561	.153	-1.000	.423
	21	I try to talk like a native speaker.	-2.049	.080	-.208	.840	2.000	.184
Category 5 Message Reduction & Alteration	22	I use words which are familiar to me.	.357	.732	.557	.591	-1.000	.423
	23	I reduce the message and use simple expressions.	2.376	.049	.000	1.000	.000	1.000
	24	I replace the original message with another message because of feeling incapable of executing my original intent.	1.667	.140	1.868	.095	-1.732	.225
Category 6 Non-Verbal Strategies	25	I try to make eye-contact when I am talking.	-2.049	.080	-1.152	.279	-2.000	.184
	26	I use gestures and facial expressions if I can't communicate how to express myself.	-.552	.598	-3.250	.010	1.732	.225
Category 7 Message Abandonment	27	I abandon the execution of a verbal plan and just say some words when I don't know what to say.	-.258	.805	1.177	.269	-1.000	.423
	28	I leave a message unfinished because of some language difficulty.	1.426	.197	-1.406	.193	-.378	.742
	29	I ask other people to help when I can't communicate well.	1.000	.351	1.500	.168	1.000	.423
	30	I give up when I can't make myself understood.	.552	.598	-.231	.823	1.512	.270
Category 8 Attempt to Think in English	31	I think first of what I want to say in my native language and then construct the English sentence.	1.871	.104	-1.108	.297	.000	1.000
	32	I think first of a sentence I already know in English and then try to change it to fit the situation.	-2.049	.080	-2.449	.037	-1.000	.423

The following discusses of findings regarding the shift in use of oral communication strategies. Every sub-section represents findings of each category,

each of which consists of discussion on findings of individual strategies. Quantitative findings initiate the discussion, and are followed by qualitative findings.

8.2.1 Social affective strategies.

As shown in Table 8.1, toward the end of the semester, both the high and low achievers reduced using the social affective strategy while the middle achievers greatly increased using it. The high achievers showed a t-value of .847 and the low achievers showed .945. In contrast, the middle achievers greatly increased the strategy use with a t-value of -2.157.

Regarding the shift in use of individual strategies, presented in Table 8.2, there were three increased, two reduced, and one unchanged use of strategies. Students increased their use of strategies for trying to give a good impression to the listener, trying to relax when feeling anxious, and actively encouraging themselves to express what they want to say. They reduced the use of strategies for trying to use fillers when they cannot think of what to say and in not minding taking risks even though they make mistakes. Students did not change the frequency of use of the strategy of trying to enjoy the conversation.

As presented in Table 8.3, both the high and low achievers decreased the use of the strategy of trying to use fillers when cannot think what to say while the middle achievers did not show any change. Both the high and middle achievers decreased their use of the strategy of not minding taking risks even though they might make mistakes but the low achievers increased using this strategy. Only the middle achievers increased their attempts to enjoy the conversation while both the high and

low achievers decreased the use of this strategy. While the high achievers decreased their strategy of trying to relax when feeling anxious, both the middle and low achievers increased using this strategy. Finally, both the high and middle achievers increased actively encouraging themselves to express what they want to say but the low achievers decreased use of this strategy.

Students' responses as found in the interviews and stimulated recalls were elicited to explore three individual strategies shifts, namely the reduced use of fillers, the increased use of not minding taking risks despite making mistakes, and the increased use of the strategy of actively encouraging themselves to express what they want to say.

First, the reduced use of the strategy of using fillers as a way to compensate when not knowing what to say was reported as the result of students' improved vocabulary. Students' higher use of fillers at the beginning of the semester was reported as compensation when preparing what to say. The more time they needed to prepare, the more they used fillers. This is supported by another finding included in the fluency oriented category that the time span needed by students to express what to say was reduced significantly. Since one barrier to using oral English was limited vocabulary knowledge, improved vocabulary knowledge shortened the time span between the preparation and the production of the spoken English. Improved vocabulary helped students in arranging sentences more efficiently before producing oral English and, consequently, reduced their use of fillers. This reasoning behind the use of fewer fillers was mentioned by *Maulana*, a middle achiever.

This is because now I know more vocabulary items. Previously, I had to think first, before saying utterances. While thinking what to say, I said aaaa ... uuhhmm... Now my vocabulary knowledge is improved. So, I reduce my saying of aaaa ... uuhhmm...(Maulana, Md, Int)

The reduced use of fillers was evident in students' audio-taped classroom activities. Below are some excerpts of students' classroom activities conducted at the beginning and end of the semester. The first excerpt was taken from the second lesson on the 9th of September 2009 when four students, *Rejeki*, *Merdu*, *Nuri* and *Vera*, were discussing the topic 'Love'. Despite her enthusiasm to speak in English, it is apparent that *Merdu* used fillers frequently and used Indonesian words with the expectation of getting help from friends to find the correct English terms. She sometimes did not finish her utterances due to inability to express herself in English. The use of pauses, which is shown as 'dots' with the number of dots indicating the length of the pause, was also found to be a dominant feature of the conversation.

- Rejeki : what do you love about yourself? [*reading the question from the handbook*]
 Maybe I err ... I love about myself that I always err ... remember err ... about my .. about the suggestion from my parents, so I always increase myself to solve my problem and I always err ... try to.....try to ... face every problem with patience and believe that my god always help me to solve my .. my problem. And you, Merdu, what do you love about yourself?
- Merdu : I love myself because I err ... I .. I...I'm a humorist.
- Rejeki : yes ...
- Merdu : but I err ... silent people
- Rejeki : you silent people? He he he [*laughing*], maybe no
- Merdu : but I like err... I like humorist character. I often cry crying and [*stop trying to say due to inability to express*] what about you?
- Vera : I love err ... myself, I love all about err uhm ...all giving God for me
- Rejeki : how about you, Nuri?
- Nuri : I love my self, is always happy very very happy although many problem ha ha ha [*previously, she asked Rejeki about the English of 'meskipun' which is although. She asked in Indonesian*]
- Rejeki : could you stay married to someone did not love? Explain. [*reading the question from the handbook*]
 May be no no no no, because err ... when err ... I don't have love with someone, maybe I will ... I will not get err ... happiness in my life, and I think err ...when when .. err... I married with someone err ... we must err ... give love each other. And you Merdu?

- Merdu : I think so, I ... I ...couldn't .. eerr [*opo? Asking friend*] I don't married with someone err ...
- Rejeki : when you don't have love
- Merdu : eerr what? When .. when I don't love. Because err .. err ... with didn't love we get understanding for.... for .. uhm .. err ... [*stop trying to say words due to inability*].

At the end of the semester *Merdu* used fewer fillers. The questionnaire revealed that she reduced her use of fillers from the 'always' (point 5) to 'often' (point 4). This was apparent in her conversation with *Cantik* about 'Success' recorded on the 21st of January 2012 as shown in the excerpt below. When fillers were used, she did not take much time to continue her utterances while at the beginning of the semester she often used fillers plus pauses. With her improved vocabulary, *Merdu* tried to use English most of the time instead of using many Indonesian words as she often did at the beginning of the semester. She could also construct longer sentences and she tried to complete her utterances.

- Merdu : Cantik err, can you give me your opinion about "Success"? Because I'm still confuse confused about the meaning of the "success".
- Cantik : Oh really? In my opinion, I think success is a condition when you can get something that you want or err you can reach out your target. Why are you still confused?
- Merdu : Because err I I can't measure err how err .. I can't measure that err .. how can...
- Cantik : How can we call a person success or not!
- Merdu : Yes.
- Cantik : I think it depends on the way we look at. Because success I think is relative. You and I have a different target. So, that's why if you can get the tar, if you can get the target, I can say that you are success. So, I think it's it just depends on the way you look at what is success. ... Uhm after I hear your your problem about success, so what do you think err .. do you have err.. in your opinion success is about career, study, or success is about what?
- Merdu : I think err I think so. Success is relative. But, err .. I suggest that the success err for me, err success for err success to get job or uhm success to study in university or ... etcetera.
- Cantik : Yes. Although I think that success is general, its not only about success not only about career or study, but I have a mindset like you, like that success is related with err study, with our career, with our future something like that.

- Merdu : Err do you err do you success err .. do you feel success now?
- Cantik : Uhm right now?!
- Merdu : Yes.
- Cantik : No. I still haven't felt like I'm success now because I still err can't reach out my target. I have I have err .. write about my target and I think I should reach out my target. And I still in process to reach out my target. So, what is what is your strategy to get to be success?
- Merdu : I think to success err .. I must study hard and make my family proud and err .. if...dream come true..
- Cantik : Oh...to make your dream come true?
- Merdu : Make my dream come true.
- Cantik : Oh I see.
- Merdu : Many people say that the success is destiny. What do you think?
- Cantik : No, I think success is not is not about destiny. We can't wait our destiny but we must create our destiny err from now. I mean that err .. yeah I know that God has err has err destiny for us but we should make an action to to err to make our dreams come true and yeah to reach out our target.
- Merdu : Okay...
- Cantik : So, are you still confused about success?
- Merdu : No. Thank you for your opinion and I understand err about the meaning of success.
- Cantik : You're welcome.

With improved vocabulary, students believed they reduced their use of fillers while speaking in English. This certainly improved their fluency, as the time span needed to express what to say was significantly reduced. This may support Levelt's (1989) theory of speech production process that, within formulation stage, retrieval of lemmas from speaker's mental lexicon during the grammatical encoding, is done before phonological encoding. Improved vocabulary may mean that the grammatical encoding, that produces surface structure, is better prepared. When the surface structure is formed appropriately, the following procedure, which is phonological encoding, is supported. Then, the articulation stage which produces overt speech is also easier. In this way, overt speech is produced more fluently.

When students were asked questions related to their increased use of the strategy of not minding taking risks despite making of mistakes, they said that this was due to their increased courage to speak in English. Making mistakes was unavoidable but tolerable. The focus was on the production of the spoken English. However, students' responses showed different levels of not minding taking risks. While one student mentioned she had more courage and really focused more on her speaking rather than the mistakes, another student of the same group of proficiency mentioned being afraid of making mistakes, despite his claim of not really minding to take risks. The latter believed this was due to his personality as a shy person who was afraid of making mistakes. In this sense, students' individual differences were evident as one of the factors affecting their courage to produce spoken English.

Yes, this is because now I have more courage to speak. I just talk. Yes, I don't really care whether I speak correctly or not. I just talk. (Nuri, Lo)

Interviewer : Do you often think hard (before speaking)?
Dadang (Lo) : I am afraid of making mistakes.
Interviewer : Not have courage to take risks?
Dadang (Lo) : I have courage, but I am afraid of making mistakes.

Students' increased use of strategy of not minding to take risk may be due to their lower anxiety level and higher risk taking behaviour. This is mentioned by students in the interview. Toward the end of the semester, as discussed in Chapter 6 section 6.1, students voiced their positive attitude toward English lessons given in that semester. They found English lessons interesting with real life topics that arouse interest engagement. This may result in a lower level of anxiety (Steinberg & Horwitz, 1986; Youngblood, 1991). Students' preference for classroom arrangements, which give more opportunities for students to work in groups and is able to build trust among students, is another factor that may reduce anxiety level

(consistent with studies by Hewitt & Stephenson, 2011; Steinberg & Horwitz, 1986; Woodrow, 2006) and increase risk-taking behaviour (corroborates studies by Gardner & Steinberg, 2005; Kurihara, 2006). Furthermore, comfortable classroom management, in which harmonious students-teacher relationships are formed in a charismatic-bond in which students treat the teacher respectfully as their role model and the teacher lowers his high-distance power to students, creating a relaxed teacher-student interaction, is also a factor leading to reduced levels of anxiety (resonant with studies by Young, 1990; Youngblood, 1991) and higher courage to take risk. Combination of these factors affects the increased use of the strategy of not minding to take risk.

However, individual differences, in this sense, students' personalities, also affect the shift in use of the strategy of not minding to take risk. One student described himself as shy and maintained his shyness toward the end of the semester. Shyness, which McCroskey (2009) believes to be different from communication apprehension yet which may result from CA, was found to inhibit this student's progress in oral communication development. This student did not show good progress at the end of the semester. This finding is congruent with Nani and Agatha's (2004) who found that the high CA of Indonesian students learning foreign language may cause use of negative communication strategies.

Regarding the increased use of the strategy of actively encouraging themselves to express what they want to say, students mentioned that this was due to their increased motivation to learn English. Both integrative and instrumental motivation was found to be one reason for students' more actively encouraging

themselves to use spoken English. One student mentioned her main motivation to achieve better English was that she likes English and she needs it for her future employment. She did not study English harder for better scores; rather she believed that English skills would help her in her future work.

Talking about my willingness to be better in English is talking about my priority. I believe later in our work, we will need to have good English. So, my main reason to learn English better is not for gaining good scores. It is not about how good my scores will be; it is because I like English and that I will really need English in my future jobs. (Mita, Hi)

Students' increased use of the strategy of encouraging themselves to express what they want to say possibly resulted from their higher motivation. This strategy was increasingly used by the high and middle achievers and decreasingly used by the low achievers, and may show that students of lower achievement have lower motivation than those of higher achievement. One high achiever mentioned her reason to learn English was due to both her high integrative and instrumental motivation. She learned English because she likes English and that she believes English skills would be beneficial in assisting her finding a good career. This strengthens the theory that motivation is central (Brown, 2007) and plays a crucial role in foreign language learning (Arnold, 1999). In the case of Mita, a high achiever, who showed excellent progress in oral communication development during the semester, supports Gardner's (2001) theory that integrative motivation drives success in learning a language. This finding also corroborates findings from previous studies showing positive correlation between motivation and language learning achievement (Bernaus & Gardner, 2008; Liu & Huang, 2011; Wang, 2010) and that integrative motivation leads to better oral communication than instrumental motivation (Seyhan, 2000).

The above findings related to the shift in use of social affective strategies reveal a number of points related to students' improved linguistic and non-linguistic knowledge and skills. First, students' linguistic skill progress, specifically their improved vocabulary knowledge, reduced their use of fillers while speaking in English. Secondly, students' non-linguistic skill progress, their increased courage and motivation to use spoken English, resulted in reduced anxiety, not minding taking risks and actively encouraging themselves to express what they want to say. With increased courage to speak in English, students did not really mind taking risks and they were not afraid of making mistakes. Students' increased motivation to learn English was the main reason for being more determined to express what they want to say.

8.2.2 Fluency-oriented strategies.

Table 8.1 shows that within the category of fluency-oriented, a similar pattern of shift was made by the three groups. The high achievers greatly increased the use of fluency oriented with a t-value of -1.472 while the middle achievers showed a t-value of -.214. On the contrary, the low achievers reduced the frequency of use of the strategy of fluency oriented (t-value = .945).

As shown in Table 8.2, quantitative findings showed three increased uses and three reduced uses of individual strategies in the fluency-oriented category. Students increased their use of the strategies of changing their ways of saying things according to the context, paying attention to rhythm and intonation, and paying attention to the conversation flow. Strategies reduced in use were those of taking time to express

what to say, paying attention to pronunciation, and trying to speak clearly and loudly. The strategy of taking time to express what to say, which could be regarded as a negative strategy, was found to be the only significantly reduced strategy.

Regarding differences among the groups in the shift in use of individual strategies as shown in Table 8.3., there were both similarities and differences among these groups. Both the high and middle achievers increased their use of the strategy of changing their ways of saying things according to the context but the low achievers decreased using this strategy. Next, both the high and middle achievers decreased using the strategy of taking time to express what they want to say while the low achievers did not show any change. Only the high achievers increased their use of strategy of paying attention to their pronunciation while both the middle and low achievers did not show any change in using this strategy. In using the strategy of trying to speak clearly and loudly, only the high achievers increased the use of this strategy while both the middle and low achievers decreased using this strategy. Finally, all three groups increased the use of strategies of paying attention to rhythm and intonation as well as paying attention to the conversation flow.

The quantitative findings revealed significantly reduced use of the strategy of taking time to express what students want to say. This finding is supported by students' conversations during classroom activities, when compared to those at the beginning of the semester. Baskoro, for example, reduced the time span he needed to arrange utterances. This is obvious when his conversation at the beginning of the semester is compared to the conversation at the end of the semester. Below is an excerpt from his conversation with the teacher at the beginning of the semester when

he was asked his opinion about the discipline implemented at school (the State Polytechnic of Malang).

- Baskoro : I feel not enjoy about the condition because .. oh oh my God I think eh he I think err .. So, I have err so I have the when the err.. when ... err ... when join in Polytechnic Negeri Malang again. It it it doesn't need to .. it doesn't need .. to cut .. hair
- Teacher : do you think that it's a very unusual, it's not normal, if you cut your hair? Why do you think it's not normal?
- Baskoro : err.. because uhm err ... really really really err ... err .. for other people is normal, but like me ... it's not normal because I err ... err ... I use I think I think not comfortable for me. There is err.. this is a .. unforgettable experience. But I think Polytechnic err .. err get get err give me give me err me err err ... give me other experience and now err .. but now I I ... I ... agree err .. with err ... Polytechnic idea. So this err learn to me err ... there is this is err ... err ... uhm make me a discipline.
- Teacher : I mean err .. about the hair. Is it, does it have a connection with discipline? The hair ..
- Baskoro : yes, yes I think. But but not not err .. same for all student.
- Teacher : do you think it's unforgettable in a good way or bad way? When you remember this 'oh I like it' or 'oh I hate it', which one? Do you think it's good or bad to your experience?
- Baskoro : first first I think it's a bad bad experience. But but .. now, I think I think I think is it a good idea.
- Teacher : for example, if you have to do it again. You have to cut your hair again.
- Baskoro : yes
- Teacher : do you think it is good, too?
- Baskoro : yes, yes
- Teacher : why?
- Baskoro : Because err uhm ... because it is err ... err need discipline again for student because err ... err .. not same
- Teacher : but usually young people do not like discipline thing. They like freedom if they have to cut again.
- Baskoro : but err ...
- Teacher : what do you think about it?
- Baskoro : but but err ... we need err .. one time err .. one time err ... err ... we ... err one time we need we need err ... we need err .. discipline.

From the above excerpt it is obvious that Baskoro paused frequently; he took an extended time to express what he wanted to say. He often repeated saying the same words, mostly when he was trying to find the English words to be used in his utterances. Sometimes, he left the sentences unfinished due to his inability to convey

the complete message. The above conversation is very different to the conversation recorded at the end of the semester when Baskoro was talking about the use of internet with his friend, Dita, as shown in the excerpt below. Now, Baskoro did not take much time to think before delivering his message. He still repeated words, but this was much less often than before. This excerpt also shows Baskoro's attempts to maintain the conversation flow.

- Dita : Do you think do you think you can get err a girlfriend from facebook?
- Baskoro : Yes, I think. But but I but so so difficult to meet to meet her
- Dita : Why don't you .. err ... looking for some somebody especially from you?
- Baskoro : what what? From what?
- Dita : uhm .. Don't you err ... get a new girlfriend?
- Baskoro : I think it's it's one the one way if I I I not I cannot get in real condition I I can I can err introduce myself in Facebook. And I chatting and share with with her about all.. all all .. all.. about all information we give and I know.. if I know if I know .. err.. her I know her about her and I ...invite he invite her to meet me and and first dating. And after first dating ...
- Dita : your heart beat faster?
- Baskoro : yess he he he. Yeah, I like it
- Dita : Err.. What do you think about friendship?
- Baskoro : I think friendship if err.. I can I can I can help him or her to solve my problem and him or her can solve my problem. I think it's friendship because friendship just not receive but we give we give a something and she or him give me again. And how about you? About friendship?
- Dita : I think friendship is .. something beautiful
- Baskoro : something beautiful? Why?
- Dita : yes, because err I have many friend and that that they can solve my problem and if I if I get a problem, I can sharing with them.
- Baskoro : about what? Sharing?
- Dita : Maybe about love he he he
- Baskoro : With boy or girl, sharing?
- Dita : I more comfort if I sharing with a boy
- Baskoro : a boy? Why?
- Dita : I don't know, I don't know why.
- Baskoro : You you have friendship from senior high school or from since you children
- Dita : uhm .. I have a friendship from from since I was child

Reduced use of the strategy of taking time to express what to say was evident in both quantitative and qualitative findings. This is closely related to the reduced use of fillers as discussed in subsection 8.3.1 about shift in use of social affective strategies. Causes of reduced taking time to express what to say may include students' improved vocabulary and improved ability to participate in classroom. Low self-esteem can also be correlated with the use of more pauses in speech production; these longer pauses may be due to students' request for approval or release of tension (Heyde, 1979). Besides using fillers, other ways of compensation resulting in taking time to express what to say include students' repeatedly saying the same words or leaving sentences unfinished. Excerpts showing this can be found in the conversation between Rejeki and Merdu presented in sub-section 8.2.1 or in sub-section 8.2.2 in the conversation between Baskoro and teacher. Regarding the excerpt of Baskoro's conversation taken at the beginning of the semester as shown in sub-section 8.2.2, in which he was having a conversation with the teacher, the dominant use of fillers and taking time in expressing himself is evident. Besides his limited vocabulary, his interlocutor, who was the teacher, seemed to cause inhibition in delivering his intention. The high power distance between teacher and student at the beginning of the semester may result in inhibition of speech production. This is consistent with Taguchi's (2007) finding that, regardless learners' level of proficiency, the degree of power and imposition created a situation that affects speech production in the implementation of TBL. There may be a different result when both the interlocutors were of similar degree of power and imposition, for example, when both were students who were familiar each other.

In response to the shift in use of the strategy of paying attention to pronunciation as well as rhythm and intonation, students gave two different reasons for this change. Some students, especially the high achievers, felt it was necessary to pay more attention to pronunciation. The motivation to improve their pronunciation was triggered when these students paid attention to their friends and their teacher who they believed spoke English with very good pronunciation. Therefore, paying attention to the higher achiever friends' and teacher's pronunciation was regarded as one way to improve their own pronunciation. This confirms the important role the teacher is expected to play in the classroom, being the role model and essential source of linguistic input (Tulung, 2004). Taking examples from friends is a result from a study by French et al. (2001) that Indonesian youth rate friends as primary source of intimacy. The need to pay attention to rhythm and intonation was mentioned in order to differentiate between positive and interrogative statements.

Interviewer : Now you pay more attention to your pronunciation?
Mita (Hi) : Maybe because I see my friends now have very good pronunciation. Previously I did not pay attention, and I was very much influenced by my friend's intonation. But, now, I try to find active friends (of better English proficiency)..... If I want to have good pronunciation, I have to pay attention to my teacher, like Mr. B or Mrs. A whose way of speaking (intonation and pronunciation) I really like.

That this is a question and that one is a statement, I pay attention to the intonation (*Maulana, Md.*)

A different response came from a middle-lower achiever. She said that she could not really pay attention to her pronunciation because of confusion as to where she should focus. At her level of proficiency, this student believed that she needed to concentrate on delivering the message. The comprehensibility of her spoken utterances was considered more important than the correctness of her pronunciation.

A similar reason was reported by the same student regarding her reduced attention to rhythm and intonation.

- Interviewer : Now, you more rarely pay attention to your pronunciation?
 Vera (Md) : Yes, I am confused. Usually I prepare and plan what I want to say or present (in front of the class), then I'm usually nervous. Therefore, I am not really concerned (with my pronunciation), I focus on speaking English. Yes, the important point is that my friends understand what I am saying.
- Interviewer : Now, you rarely pay attention to rhythm and intonation?
 Vera (Md) : Yes, because when I speak in English, I am afraid of making mistakes. So, I'm afraid if I will mess up my conversation (if I pay attention to the rhythm and intonation as well).

In general, the strategy of paying attention to the conversation flow was used increasingly by the end of the semester. One reason given for increased use of this strategy was improved vocabulary. When students were familiar with the vocabulary, they tended to pay more attention to the conversation flow. This increased attention to the conversation flow was also due to students being better able to follow their partners' flow of conversation. In this sense, they were trying to maintain fluent two-way communication.

- Maulana (Md) : yes (I pay more attention to the conversation flow) when I understand the vocabulary. But, when I don't understand the vocabulary, I don't really pay attention to the conversation flow.
- Baskoro (Hi) : Yes (I pay more attention to the conversation flow) I just try to follow my partner's conversation flow.

The reduced use of the strategy of paying attention to pronunciation, rhythm, and intonation for some students was thought to be because of their inability to split their focus from delivering messages using appropriate words and putting them in appropriate sentences. In this sense, message comprehensibility in terms of its lexical fluency is more important than fluency in terms of pronunciation, rhythm and intonation. That lexical competence is primary in second language spoken fluency is consistent with a study by Hilton (2008). At their stage of learning English, which

was at beginner or pre-elementary level, students' focus on lexicon is the first prerequisite (Kormos, 2006) which can later be followed by other factors such as grammar, pronunciation, rhythm, and intonation.

However, different responses, especially from the middle-lower and the low achievers, were also given, showing reduced attention to the conversation flow. One student, for example, said that she was a straightforward person who tended to reply directly to questions. Her responses during the conversation were focused on answering questions raised by her conversation partners. Another student, who also claimed to pay reduced attention to the conversation flow, said that she focused more on comprehending the main messages conveyed by her partner. These findings support previous findings that, among the high and middle achievers and those who had improved their vocabulary, paying increased attention to conversation flow was one of the ways to have better two-way communication. However, this seems not to occur among the middle-lower and low achievers since they need to focus more of their attention to comprehending and delivering main messages.

- | | |
|-------------|---|
| Interviewer | : Now, Vera pays less attention to the conversation flow? |
| Vera (Md) | : Yes, because basically I cannot talk long and wordily. I tend to get to the point and get myself to respond to the questions. |
| Interviewer | : Do you now pay less attention to the conversation flow? |
| Nuri (Lo) | : yes, mam. I don't really pay attention to the conversation flow because I'd rather focus on comprehending the messages so that I will be able to answer it appropriately. |

Basically, findings related to the use of the fluency oriented strategies suggest higher use of these strategies. Among the high and middle achievers, except for the middle-lower achievers, increased use of the fluency-oriented strategies was, among other reasons, due to improved vocabulary and improved ability to participate in the conversation. Friends were also found to be one of the triggers stimulating students'

attempts to achieve a higher level of fluency. Friends encouraged them to pay more attention to pronunciation, rhythm and intonation, and conversation flow. However, among the low achievers, the use of fluency-oriented strategies was reduced, the reason being that their main attention had to be on the process of comprehending and delivering messages.

8.2.3 Negotiation for meaning while speaking strategies.

All students of different oral proficiency levels shared the same experience in increasing the use of strategies of negotiation for meaning while speaking. The high achievers showed the highest change ($t\text{-value} = -2.007$) and the low achievers showed the lowest change ($t\text{-value} = -.355$).

Regarding change in the use of individual strategies within the category of negotiation for meaning while speaking, as shown in Table 8.3., most changes found among groups were increases rather than decreases. All three groups increased giving examples if the listeners do not understand their utterances, with the middle achievers significantly increasing using the strategy. High achievers significantly increased the use of the strategy of repeating what they want to say until the listeners understand whereas the middle achievers decreased using this strategy and the low achievers did not show any change. Both high and middle achievers increased making comprehension checks to ensure the listeners understand while low achievers did not make any change. Finally, both middle and low achievers decreased use of the strategy of paying attention to the listener's reaction while speaking while the high achievers did not show any change.

Findings from the interviews discuss the shifts in use of four strategies, namely paying attention to the listener's reaction while speaking, giving examples if the listener does not understand what is being said, repeating what the students want to say until the listeners understand and making comprehension checks to ensure the listener understands what the student wants to say.

In response to the increased use of the strategy of paying attention to the listener's reaction while speaking, students said the reason for using this strategy was to maintain the flow of conversation. Sayang, for example, was concerned that if listeners did not respond to her, this might be because the listeners did not understand her utterances. Thus, she needed to pay attention to the listener's reaction in order to confirm that the listener understood her and to maintain the conversation flow.

Interviewer	: when you talk, do you now pay attention to the listener?
Sayang (Hi)	: (yes). Because when I talk and I ask "Do you think so?" but he/she (the listener) just kept silent not responding, then I wonder if she/he understands or not. Therefore, I pay more attention to the listener. I'm afraid I talk, and she/he doesn't understand at all.

Paying attention to listeners' responses was believed to be one strategy to maintain conversation flow and was used mostly by high achievers. High achievers, assumed to also have high self-esteem, usually have responsibility for initiating, continuing, and maintaining conversation; this is similar to a research finding by Heyde (1979). One high achiever mentioned that she tried to pay attention to the listener in order to check the comprehensibility of her utterances. A passive reaction may indicate not understanding the message. Being passive when not being able to understand speakers' messages is common among students in Indonesia, and may be the result of Indonesian cultural philosophy '*ewuh pekewuh*' (Dardjowidjojo, 2001) discussed in section 6.1., in which students tend to keep silent, not asking or

confirming the intention of the speaker; they are afraid of receiving negative social evaluation, one component of foreign language anxiety (Brown, 2007). As MacIntyre and Gardner (1989) claim, in this situation, errors can be a source of anxiety for those who want to make a positive social impression when speaking in the target language.

A different point was raised by a middle achiever in her statement that she tended not to pay attention to the listeners when she had to talk to the class. She gave the reason of being shy, uncomfortable and afraid of making mistakes. However, she said she was much less reluctant when having a conversation in pairs or in groups. Being very close to friends reduced her fear of making mistakes, creating a more comfortable situation that allowed her to give more attention to the listener's reaction to her utterances.

- | | |
|-------------|---|
| Interviewer | : When you talk, you seldom pay attention to the listener in front of you, this is decreasing from point 5 (in the beginning of the semester) to point 3(in the end of the semester) |
| Vera (Md) | : Yes, Mam. This is because when I talk in front of many friends (in front of the class) I am always uncomfortable to look at my friends. I'm afraid I'll make mistakes, and I'm afraid they will respond unexpectedly. |
| Interviewer | : Now, how about if you have a conversation in pairs or in groups? |
| Vera (Md) | : I usually have a pair-conversation with Nuri. So, I'm not nervous when I have a conversation in group. When I talk alone in front of others, I'm very nervous. |
| Interviewer | : So, you are very close to Nuri? Is your point 4 or 5 when having a conversation with Nuri? |
| Vera (Md) | : When I have a conversation with Nuri, it's 5. |

What Vera mentioned is very interesting. This student displayed high anxiety, low risk-taking behaviour, and low self-esteem when presenting in front of a group of students; this made her not pay attention to listeners. However, she was not afraid of making mistakes when having a conversation with her close friends or friends of the similar level of proficiency. This confirms McCroskey's (1984) suggestion to put

communication apprehension (CA) within a continuum, starting from ‘traitlike’ CA moving to generalized-context CA and person-group CA, and ended in situational CA. In this situation, CA about public speaking or in-front-of class speaking lies at the second point of the continuum, which is considered strong CA. Therefore, such anxiety is considered a constraint to language learning development. However, such a CA can be minimized by allowing students to work with close friends whom they ‘trust’.

One strategy within the category of negotiation for meaning is giving examples if the listener does not understand what the student is saying. There were two different responses regarding use of this strategy. The first response supports the quantitative findings of significant increased use of this strategy. Students said they tried to give examples when listeners did not understand their utterances. When listeners seemed to understand the utterances, students did not make any attempt to give examples. However, it seemed that giving examples was not easy to do for all students. One middle-lower achiever, Vera, for example, slightly reduced using the strategy of giving examples to listeners due to her low proficiency. She reduced using this strategy from the point of 3, in the beginning of the semester, to the point of 2, at the end of the semester. It seems that using the strategy of giving examples to listeners when they do not understand is also related to students’ English proficiency. The greater the students’ English proficiency, the greater their tendency to give examples as a negotiation for meaning. This supports the quantitative findings revealing high and middle achievers’ greater increase and low achievers’ slighter increase in using this strategy.

- Interviewer : What makes you often or seldom give examples?
 Mita (Hi) : uhm ..what I ... I give examples when the listeners do not understand (my utterances). When they cannot comprehend my intention. If he/she just keeps silent, I will do what I have to. So, if she does not understand but keeps quiet, I will not give examples. I don't need to push myself.
- Interviewer : Now you seldom give examples to the listeners when they do not understand what you are saying?
 Vera (Md) : Yes, because if I have to give examples, I do not know the English.

Regarding the shift in use of the strategies of repeating what students want to say until the listeners understand and of making comprehension checks to ensure the listener understands what the student wants to say, it seems that students' vocabulary played a role. Students of low achievement said that their lack of vocabulary held them back from using these strategies. These students preferred using gestures or non-verbal strategies to negotiate meaning.

- Interviewer : Now you seldom repeat what you want to say so that the listeners understand?
 Vera (Md) : point 3, mam. Sometimes I repeat.
 Interviewer : So, it reduces? Why?
 Vera (Md) : Yes, Mam. Because I don't have adequate vocabulary
- Interviewer : Nuri, now you increase making comprehension checks to make sure the listeners understand what you want to say?
 Nuri (Lo) : I sometimes do that, Mam. Because, I think, I am lack.. uhm.. because I don't have adequate vocabulary. So, I prefer using gestures to make my friends understand what I am saying.

The above findings related to the shifts of strategies use within the category of negotiation for meaning suggest several points. First, the high achievers and middle achievers who possessed adequate vocabulary for maintaining the flow of conversation increased the use of negotiation for meaning strategies. However, the low and the middle-lower achievers found their limited vocabulary was a draw back from using these strategies. Instead, they preferred using gestures or non-verbal strategies. Low or middle-lower achievers found talking before the class caused them to become nervous and worried about making mistakes. However, having

conversations in pairs or groups reduced the level of anxiety and worry. In this sense closeness and trust among friends are included as important factors supporting the development of oral communication skills.

8.2.4 Accuracy-oriented strategies.

Regarding shifts in use of the strategy of accuracy oriented, as shown in Table 8.1., both the middle and low achievers decreased using this strategy while the high achievers showed an increased frequency. The middle and low achievers made a change in using this strategy with a similar t-value of around .512. In contrast, the high achievers increased the use of this strategy with a t-value of -1.433.

As shown in Table 8.2 concerning the shift in use of individual strategies, there were three decreases and two increases. Students increased the use of strategies for trying to emphasize the subject and verb of a sentence and trying to talk like a native speaker, with the high achievers making a significant change in increasing the use of the strategy of trying to talk like a native speaker. They reduced the frequency of use of the strategies of paying attention to grammar and word order during conversation, correcting themselves when they notice they have made mistakes, and noticing themselves using an expression which fits a rule that they have learned.

Table 8.3 shows shift in use of individual strategies within the category of accuracy-oriented across students of different proficiencies, and it can be seen that there were more increases than decreases. The high achievers increased the use of the strategy of paying attention to grammar and word order during conversation while both the middle and low achievers decreased using this strategy. Both the high and

middle achievers increased their use of the strategy of trying to emphasize the subject and verb of the sentence while the low achievers showed reduced use of this strategy. Both the high and low achievers increased their use of the strategy of correcting themselves when they noticed they have made mistakes; the middle achievers reduced using this strategy. In noticing themselves using an expression which fits a rule they have learned, the high and middle achievers showed a decrease while the low achievers showed an increased use of this strategy. Lastly, both the high and middle achievers showed an increased use of the strategy of trying to talk like a native speaker when the low achievers reduced using this strategy.

The qualitative findings presented in this subsection outline the reasons behind students' preference in increasing or reducing the use of several strategies, namely paying attention to grammar and word order during conversation, trying to emphasize the subject and verb of the sentence, students' correcting themselves when noticing they have made mistakes, and trying to talk like a native speaker.

In relation to shifts in use of the strategy of paying attention to grammar and word order during conversation, there were two different responses. While most high achievers increased their attempts to use this strategy, middle and low achievers tended to reduce using this strategy. Responding to the question of why she increasingly paid attention to grammar and word order during conversation, Cantik said her intention was to produce better and more appropriate utterances. She was happy when she could produce well-arranged utterances, and she could tell when she made poor utterances.

- Interviewer : Do you now pay more attention to grammar and word order?
Cantik (Hi) : Yes, because usually I can feel if I make mistakes while talking. I can feel if the words are well-arranged or not.

Different reasons were given by the middle and low achievers in response to the question of why they reduced their attention to grammar and word order during conversation. These students were more concerned with delivering messages and having more fluent spoken English. They felt that correct grammar and word order would come after fluency. They said that their limited vocabulary drove them to focus their attention on delivering messages. Improving vocabulary by memorizing new words was considered one solution.

- Interviewer : Do you pay less attention to grammar and word order?
Nuri (Lo) : Yes, Mam. I do not really pay attention to grammar and word order. So, I concentrate more on having fluent conversation and having more vocabulary. This is because my English is still very poor and my memorized vocabulary is very limited.

Findings regarding the use of the strategy of paying attention to grammar and word order during conversation show that most high achievers tend to increase the use of this strategy while most of the middle and low achievers tended to reduce using this strategy. Reasons given by middle and low achievers for reduced attention to grammar and word order was that their attention was focused on the production of appropriate words and having fluent spoken English. This finding confirms the trade-off between fluency, accuracy, and complexity in learning a foreign language. As claimed by Skehan (1998), due to learners' capacity, the three aspects of fluency, accuracy, and complexity may not be produced and developed at the same rate. Therefore, when fluency is given priority, accuracy may be given less attention. Furthermore, students' regarding vocabulary as more important aspect than grammar

is consistent with Scarcella and Oxford's (1992) finding confirming that this often occurs among beginners.

Use of the second individual strategy within the category of accuracy-oriented strategies, trying to emphasize the subject and verb of the sentence, increased among the high and middle achievers but reduced among the low achievers. This was shown in the quantitative findings. One reason to increasingly pay attention to the subject and verb of the sentence was because this was easy to do, much easier than paying attention to all the grammar of the sentences. What was considered difficult to control was the tense of the sentence; the subject and the verb of the sentence were not new concepts in language learning. This finding may relate to one of the concepts of interlanguage in foreign language learning in which an established concept in the native language results in ease of target language learning, while new concepts which do not exist in the native language may result in problems in learning the target language. As found in this study, difficulties in controlling the tenses resulted in students' ignorance of the tenses of the sentences while being familiar with the concept of the subject and the verb of sentences made students emphasize these in an attempt to produce fluent spoken English. This finding may indicate the importance of recognizing that first language influences can lead to errors, avoidance, overproduction, and constraints on learners' hypotheses, as also found in a study by Huang (2010). This also shows that first language background affects the use of communication strategies, as claimed by Tarone (1977).

- Interviewer : Do you now pay more attention to the subject and the verb of a sentence?
Maulana (Md) : Yes, I now pay attention to it. If I find (read) stories or statements, I pay attention to the subjects of the sentences.

- Interviewer : Do you know why you pay more attention to the subject and verb of a sentence but reduce your attention to the grammar? What do you think 'grammar' is?
- Maulana (Md)* : What I think difficult is the tenses. It is difficult to think about the tenses (while talking). So, I just ignore. If it's the subject, I've been familiar with this (concept). Subjects are only those things. For the verbs, I only use verbs that I am familiar with.

Regarding students' use of the strategy of correcting themselves when noticing that they have made a mistake, quantitative findings showed that students of high and low proficiency had a tendency to reduce using this strategy while middle achievers tended to show increasing use. Students sometimes corrected themselves at the time of speaking, but they did not do this when presenting in front of the class. This could be because of anxiety. This anxiety more dominantly occupied students' minds while talking in front of many students so that they were not aware of their mistakes at the time of speaking. Awareness of the mistakes appeared after the presentation when it was too late to correct. It is obvious that, in this sense, students' anxiety when speaking in English affects their use of oral communication strategies. In this case, anxiety or communication apprehension (CA) about public speaking or CA in class was evident (read McCroskey, 1984 for the continuum of CA).

- Interviewer : Do you correct yourself when you notice you have made a mistake?
- Vera (Md)* : When I do presentation in front of the class, sometimes I feel that what I say is as what I planned. Or, I become aware of my mistakes when the presentation is over. I realize that I should have not said those wrong sentences. Therefore, it's too late for me to correct it because the presentation is over.
- Interviewer : So, you did not realize your mistakes at the time of speaking?
- Vera (Md)* : No, because I was too nervous during the presentation.

The last strategy to be discussed within the category of accuracy-oriented strategies is trying to talk like a native speaker. The use of this strategy by the high achievers was significantly increased while the middle achievers slightly increased using this strategy. However, the low achievers reduced using this strategy. A

number of reasons for reduced use of this strategy were given by some middle achievers. Students said their limited vocabulary hindered them from speaking like a native speaker.

- Interviewer : Now, you seldom try to talk like a native speaker? This is from point 3 (at the beginning of the semester) to point 2 (at the end of the semester)
- Vera (Md) : Because if I have to talk like a native speaker, I do not know the words. I'm very much more comfortable when talking in my own language.

Another reason was given by a middle achiever who believed his fossilized Indonesian accent made it hard for him to have a native-like English accent. Furthermore, his low paced fluency in English also hindered him from being able to try to talk like a native speaker. In this case, L1 background which is different from the target language may cause the difficulty (Tarone, 1977); their 'fossilized' Indonesian accent made it more difficult to have English intonation (Gass & Selinker, 2008; Selinker, 1972). However, it may be premature to determine fossilization or stabilization of linguistic development at this stage, and, to date, there is still a lack of longitudinal studies confirming the presence of fossilisation (Gass & Selinker, 2008). Most probably, it is the students' low self-esteem which determined their judgement of being 'fossilized'. Then, again, this low self-esteem is proven to influence the use of strategies and inhibit the development of students' oral communication skills.

- Interviewer : Maulana, now you seldom try to talk like a native speaker. Can you tell me the reasons?
- Maulana (Md) : Yes, mam. That's because my accent is so Indonesian. (English) native speakers talk very fast while I am still learning the language. Maybe, I will try bit by bit.

Qualitative findings of the individual strategies included in the accuracy-oriented category include some noteworthy points. First, except for most of the high

achievers, accuracy in grammar and word order was not given much attention; instead, attention to accuracy came after the successful accomplishment of message delivery and fluency. This was due to students' limited vocabulary and students being focused on delivering main messages. What students referred to as the grammar of English sentences was tenses, which do not exist in Indonesian language. However, student' attempts to emphasize the subject and the verb of sentences was high because this was considered an essential factor in producing correct utterances. The concept of subject and verb of a sentence was not a new concept for students, and they found this comparatively easy. In other words, students' familiarity with the concept of subject and verb of sentences as found in Indonesian language made it easier for students to pay attention to the English subject and verb of sentences they were trying to produce. Furthermore, students' correcting themselves when they noticed they made mistakes was affected by their anxiety, or communication apprehension, when talking in front of the class. Thus, sometimes, this strategy was not done appropriately at the time of speaking. When students realized their mistakes, it was too late, usually after they had finished talking in front of the class. Finally, attempts to talk like a native speaker were not favoured by most students, except for the high achievers. Students' limited vocabulary, low-paced fluency and belief that their accent was fossilized inhibited attempts to talk like a native speaker.

8.2.5 Message reduction and alteration strategies.

Table 8.1 shows that there was a significantly reduced use of message reduction and alteration strategies ($t = 2.633$, $p = .016$). Both high and middle achievers decreased the use of this negative strategy. There was a tendency

confirming that the higher the level of students' oral proficiency the higher their rate of reduction in the use of both negative strategies. The high achievers showed a significant reduced use of message reduction and alteration strategy with a t-value of 2.762 while the middle achievers showed a t-value of 1.732. Only the low achievers showed an increased use of this strategy.

Findings presented in Table 8.2 and Table 8.3 show more decreases than increases in the use of individual strategies within the category of message reduction and alteration. There were two significantly decreased uses of the strategy of reducing the message and using simple expressions as well as that of replacing the original message with another message. The high and the middle achievers tended to reduce use of all of the three individual strategies within this category; only the low achievers showed a higher use of these negative strategies. The high achievers significantly reduced the use of the strategy of reducing the message and using simple expressions while the middle achievers significantly decreased their use of the strategies of replacing the original message with another message due to the feeling of being unable to execute the original intent.

The qualitative findings in this section explore reasons for the reduced use of three strategies: using familiar words, reducing the message and using simple expressions and replacing the original message with another message. These findings also discuss some low achievers' reasons for reducing use of these negative strategies.

Regarding the reduced use of the strategy of using familiar words, students gave as the reasons their improved vocabulary and more practice in using new words. With their improved vocabulary, students also increased their self-confidence in attempting to use the words during conversation. These new words, which students found from resources such as English songs, were easily understood when they resembled students' already known words. Then, practice using these new words enhanced their skill in producing more fluent oral language. Furthermore, the desire to have more practice in producing oral English was also affected by students' high motivation and interest in learning English. Cantik, for example, mentioned that she intentionally increased attempts to enrich her vocabulary and do more practice because of her high interest in English.

- Interviewer : Cantik, previously (in the beginning of the semester) you always used familiar words; it was point 5. Now, you seldom use familiar words, you use not necessarily familiar words. Is it because you use newly learned words or because of other reason?
- Cantik (Hi) : Yes, I think this is because now I have more new words. Because usually ... uhm ... I do like English. So, I listen to English songs more often, and from this I get new words. I actually deliver the same message but I use different words.

This finding shows that giving more opportunities for students to practice using English trains them to be more effective in using communication strategies. In turn, effective use of strategies also encourages more practice in using the target language. This is related to students' progress in learning English, as shown in Chapter 6 and is consistent with Green and Oxford's (1995) claim that students' awareness of using strategies involving active use of the target language promotes good progress in language learning.

The significantly reduced use of the strategy of reducing the message and using simple expressions as found in the quantitative findings was confirmed by students during the interviews. At the end of the semester, instead of reducing the message and using simple expressions, students discussed their increased efforts to make longer sentences. Making shorter and simple sentences was now no longer a preference. Though it was still believed that speaking spontaneously had the potential to cause mistakes, there was compensation in being more careful in making longer sentences and not reducing the message.

Previously (at the beginning of the semester) when I had to make long sentences, I tended to shorten the sentence. So, I tried to find an easy way for me to express myself. Now, I try to arrange longer sentences by using (combining) words. But I cannot do it spontaneously because I'm afraid I will make mistakes. In short, now I do not try to reduce what I want to say; I try to make longer sentences and not make simple sentences. (Mita, Hi)

Data from students' in-class activities also reveal their reduced use of the message reduction and alteration strategies. Mita's conversations at the beginning and end of the semester can be taken as an example of this change. At the beginning of the semester, it is evident that Mita used the message reduction and alteration strategies a great deal. She used words which were familiar to her and most of her expressions were simple. She also seemed to reduce the message when she did not know what to say. She asked friends to help her finding the correct English terms; otherwise, she used Indonesian words when she did not know the English.

Mita	: uhm oh yeah Cantik, why why you don't .. you don't ..err..
Cantik	: find someone to be my boyfriend?
Mita	: okay, yes. Why?
Cantik	: I want to focus to my study
Mita	: okay
Dinata	: err .. sometimes boyfriend err ... give give me a spirit and yes support to uhm ..
Cantik	: to your study?

- Dinata : yes, to my study
- Mita : and you don't .. you don't want to... mencobanya [try]?
- Dinata : to try .. to try find a boyfriend?
- Cantik : he he maybe no
- I think we have too many activities that we should that we can do err besides err dating with someone. Maybe we can study or maybe hang out with our friends. There are many activities that I do.
- Mita : I think sometime .. very important, sometime no
- Dinata : sometime boring [*she meant 'bored'*] sometime happy.
- Mita : what's your ..your .. what's your.. Cantik, what's your err plan, what's your plan about your err ... about err .. when you married err .. in in *di umur berapa?* [*using Indonesian language for at what age*]
- Cantik : what age?
- Mita : aah, what age you you get married?
- Dinata : in your plan,
- Mita : if you eh, err .. do you ... do you must work first?
- Cantik : Yes. how about you, do you want to work first and then get married?
- Mita : yes.. yes.. same with you

At the end of semester, Mita produced longer utterances and tried not to reduce the message she intended to deliver. She also tried to combine words in such a way so that she was able to make more complex sentences. There were still some fillers used, but not as many as at the beginning of the semester. The use of fillers might be compensation for her being more careful in arranging sentences and to avoid mistakes. No Indonesian words were used; instead, Mita tried to use English words only. She seemed also to have improved her vocabulary since she used some new terms she had learned during the semester. Below is an excerpt of Mita's conversation conducted at the end of semester.

- Mita : Hi Dinda, how are you today?
- Dinda : I'm fine, what about you?
- Mita : fine too. Uhm I think you look err so happy now, why?
- Dinda : oh yeah.. because err in the last I get good mark in my .. English
- Mita : okay. Err what do you think about happiness?

- Dinda : well yeah, I think happiness is the kind of condition can make me feel enjoy and uhm we're not bored to uhm to do err our regular activity because I think that err sometimes if we do err a regular activity sometimes we feel so bored, right? yeah
- Mita : and about me, err maybe same with you. Err I I I think I can may err feel feel happiness if I'm err I'm and err I'm and my family together. Uhm.. and have err many friends and because they . they can make me happy.
- Dinda : so, uhm .. what condition that can make you feel so happy?
- Mita : my condition err can make me happy err .. if I'm err with my family. Actually err, I live with my parents. Err I have 4 brothers and 2 sisters, err we are err seven siblings. Err my first err my first brother err was married err and . and so with my second and my . fourth sister. At the time err when we meet together err is the happiest moment. Uhm . we can imagine err what happen when a big family meet together err. err err we can we can err imagine about our own stories err to share. Uhm ... there're err there're err there are a lot . a lot of funny thing makes me happy and laugh. So, err our problem, my sadness, all are disappears are disappears and change to be happiness. And you what, and you Dinda, what do you think err, what kind of thing err that can make you happy?
- Dinda : yeah.. uhm I can happy when when I'm with when I'm with my friends, I guess. Err in my home I am the last child, so uhm sometimes I feel so lonely because my my brother was married and he must to work and they seldom to go to my home. So, I always spend my day with my friends.
- Mita : I think err you can err you can make err happy with your friends?
- Dinda : yes
- Mita : okay, where do you go err when you when you spend with your . your friends?
- Dinda : uhm usually I go to to the mall, err we just go to the coffee shop and spend many err hour there and then err or just walking around and err go to the new place.
- Mita : it's the happiest moment.

Another reason for students being able to avoid reducing messages and using simple expressions was their improved vocabulary. One high achiever, Baskoro, considered reducing the message would make listeners less able to understand his utterances. At the same time he also tried to speak more clearly. His increased ability to speak more clearly helped him to not reduce the message. He mentioned improving vocabulary as one of the reasons for his success.

Previously I often reduced the message and used simple expressions. And, yes, because now I learn to speak more clearly to make the listener understand me better. One of the ways that I do is improving my vocabulary. (Baskoro, Hi)

Improving vocabulary also refers to improving the ability to understand certain expressions before using these in spoken utterances. As one strategy to avoid reducing messages in conversation, students mentioned that, before delivering messages, they made greater efforts in understanding the meaning of words which they previously found hard to use. Then, in order to avoid making mistakes in their 'longer sentences', students tried to arrange the new words more correctly.

Yes, now I try to ... uhm ...comprehend what these words are (the meaning)... I make more attempts to make my spoken utterances understood by the listeners. (Sayang, Hi)

The above findings regarding reduced use of the strategy of reducing messages and using simple sentences show the positive impact of students' improved vocabulary. When lexicon knowledge as the first requirement for communicative competence to occur (Gebhard, 2000; Nunan, 1999) is fulfilled, the flow of communication is more fluent. This is also consistent with Hilton's (2008) claim that, for fluency enhancement, lexical knowledge is fundamental. Successful communication includes effective employment of communication strategies, which, in this sense, is concerned with the reduced use of negative strategies such as reducing messages. This shows effective use of strategic competence. However, communicative competence does not only include grammatical and strategic competence; this competence also includes discourse and sociolinguistic competence (Canale & Swain, 1980). The complex features of oral speech as a reciprocal activity, demanding spontaneous responses (Bygate, 2001; McCarthy, 1998; Widdowson, 1978) requires more care on the part of the students in order not to make mistakes or errors. This may inhibit attempts to speak more spontaneously and more fluently, especially for those with high anxiety.

Qualitative findings support the quantitative findings regarding the significantly reduced use of the strategy of replacing the original message with another message because of students' feeling that they were incapable of executing their original intent. Students said that they had a tendency to replace the original message at the beginning of the semester and that this was due to their desire to avoid difficulties in delivering their messages in oral English.

- Interviewer : Sayang, now you tend to more rarely replace your original message when you cannot execute your original intent?
- Sayang (Hi) : Yes, Mam. Previously, (at the beginning of the semester) uhm... if I found problems in expressing myself, I replaced the original message. I tended to find easier ways (with no harder attempts). Just to make myself understood; that's all.

Reduced use of this negative strategy was believed to be the result of having more practice in using English which also increased their self-confidence in expressing themselves orally. In short, more frequent practice speaking English increased students' self-confidence, and this resulted in reduced attempts at replacing the original message with another message.

Yes, (now I seldom replace the original message). It's because now I practice speaking (English) more so that I'm not doubtful of what I'm saying. Therefore, now I put more efforts to deliver the original message. (Nuri, Low)

Reduced use of the strategy to replace the original message resulting from more practice in use of oral English in the classroom shows that implementation of TBL provided more opportunities for students to practice using oral English. This results in students' improved self-confidence with the reduced feelings of doubt. This has been discussed in Chapter 6, section 6.2 about student' linguistic problems and strategies, that reduced self-doubt means reduced anxiety (see Arnold, 1999; Scovel, 1978 for the components of anxiety) and is related to increased predictability of

successful outcome (read Beebe, 1983 for definition of risk-taking) which is the signpost of increased risk-taking behaviour. Both reduced anxiety and increased risk-taking behaviour encourage self-confidence, which in turn stimulates higher self-esteem.

The findings above regarding the reduced use of the negative strategies within the category of message reduction and alteration are important in several ways regarding the linguistic and non-linguistic progress of the students. First, students' improved vocabulary resulted in higher confidence in using spoken English. With their increased vocabulary, students were able to find synonyms or other expressions. This resulted in reduced use of the strategy of using familiar words and a higher tendency to be more courageous in use of newly learned words. Increased courage to use new words motivated students to produce longer sentences, and this decreased their use of the strategy of reducing the message and using simple expressions. Finally, combined with increased practice in using oral English, students' richer vocabulary and higher self-confidence or self-esteem meant that they made more attempts to deliver the intended communication and this resulted in reduced use of the strategy of replacing the original messages.

8.2.6 Non-verbal strategies in speaking.

As shown in Table 8.1, all students seemed to increase use of non-verbal strategies in speaking. This category was reported significantly increased ($t = -3.97, p = .001$). The middle achievers showed the highest and significant increase in using the strategies with a t-value of -4.129. The high achievers were positioned second

showing a t-value of -1.871 and the low achievers were ranked last showing a t-value of -.866.

Table 8.2 shows that students increased the use of strategies for trying to make eye-contact when talking and significantly increased using gestures and facial expressions if they cannot communicate well. They made a slight decrease in using the strategy of abandoning the execution of a verbal plan and just saying some words when they do not know what to say. Comparison among students of different proficiencies, as shown in Table 8.3, shows that all students showed a tendency to favour the use of the strategy of making eye-contact when talking, with the high achievers significantly increasing their use of this strategy. Both the high and the middle achievers increased their use of the strategy of using gestures and facial expressions if they cannot communicate well, with the middle achievers showing significant increase. In contrast, the low achievers reduced using this strategy.

That students increased trying to make eye-contact when talking and using gestures and facial expressions if unable to communicate well was also identified in the interviews. The increased use of the strategy of trying to make eye-contact when talking was because it was found useful in communication. This strategy helped students to understand both the listener's level of comprehension and expressions of feelings. By looking into the eyes of the listener, students were able to determine whether the listener could comprehend the spoken utterances being produced. Making eye-contact in this sense also included looking at the listener's facial expressions, which could reveal the listener's feelings, for example feelings of sadness, happiness, or others.

- Interviewer : Do you now make eye contact more often?
- Baskoro (Md) : Yes, Mam. It's because this really helps me to understand the intention of the other party. What I usually do is looking at the other party's facial expressions, which I think can reveal his/her expressions of happiness or sadness or other feelings.

Another student, a high achiever, also mentioned the advantages of making eye-contact when talking. For Mita, the importance of making eye-contact in communication was obvious. She made eye-contact not only when having the conversation in English but also in other languages such as Indonesian, Japanese, or other languages. The first benefit of making eye-contact was for the purpose of her comprehension of the other party's intention. When she could not really understand the other party's intention, she said she could read it from their eyes. With eye-contact, the flow of two-way communication could be maintained successfully. In this sense, eye-contact was an effective tool to maintain the comprehensibility of two-way communication. Furthermore, making eye-contact during communication was also regarded as one way of responding to the other party. This was one way to show attention and respect to the other party.

- Interviewer : Now, do you always or almost always making eye-contact when talking?
- Mita (Hi) : Yes, Mam, that's absolutely correct. I always try to make eye-contact when talking, not only in English but also in other languages like Indonesian language, Japanese, or in other languages. I do it so that I know ... uhm ... maybe when I do not really understand her/him, I may know her/his intention from his/her eyes. Also, making eye-contact is also our way of appreciating others in communication; we have to make direct eye-contact when communicating.

It is apparent that students benefitted from making eye-contact during communication. First, eye-contact helped them in maintaining the flow of communication, especially in helping to build understanding. Students were able to gauge the other party's comprehension of their utterances and also to understand the

other party's intention. Secondly, making eye-contact was considered to be one way to show respect to the other party during communication. In short, students were aware of the importance of making eye-contact since two-way communication was regarded as a mutual understanding between the speaker and the listener in delivering and decoding the messages. These findings show students' improved discourse and sociolinguistic competence, which are components of communicative competence (Canale & Swain, 1980).

The second non-verbal strategy in this category, using gestures and facial expressions if unable to communicate successfully, was also reported in the interviews as increasingly used. Using gestures was mentioned as a way to help students in delivering messages, especially when they found problems in finding appropriate expressions or words. Nuri, for example, used her hands to help her express her intention.

- Interviewer : Now, do you more often use gestures and facial expressions when you cannot express yourself?
Nuri (Lo) : So, when I cannot talk clearly to make my messages understood, I use my hands to make my intention clearer.

Students were concerned when listeners could not understand their intention. One of the ways identified to make the other party understand was using gestures and facial expressions. This was mentioned by Baskoro, a high achiever.

- Interviewer : Now, do you more often use gestures and facial expressions?
Baskoro (Hi) : Yes, that is to help listeners to understand my intention/messages.

Another reason for increasing the use of gestures and facial expressions was to compensate for anxiety when students could not communicate well. For some students who claimed to be shy people, using gestures and facial expressions was

helpful. *Maulana*, a middle achiever who described himself as a shy person, believed that using gestures and facial expressions helped him to cover his anxiety when talking in English. Thus, this non-verbal strategy helped him delivering messages orally. While anxiety is clearly an issue in language learning and has a debilitating effect on speaking English for some students (Woodrow, 2006), the use of non-verbal strategies by these students to conduct oral communication tasks assisted them to increase self-confidence and later improve their communication skills (Oxford, 1990).

- | | | |
|--------------|---|--|
| Interviewer | : | Do you think this [using gestures and facial expressions] help? |
| Maulana (Md) | : | That helps me to cover my nervousness, this use of gestures helps. |
| Interviewer | : | Are you a shy person? |
| Maulana (Md) | : | Yes, shy, a very shy person. |

Despite most students' tendency towards increasing use of gestures and facial expressions, there was also report of decreased use of this strategy. Using too many gestures and facial expressions was considered a distraction from appropriate understanding of the messages delivered by the speaker. *Mita*, a high achiever who said that she had previously used many gestures and facial expressions, was now concerned that the listener was more attracted to her gestures than to her spoken messages. She agreed that using gestures could cover her anxiety. However, she believed that using too many gestures would result in confusion on the listener's part so that the main objective of communication was not reached.

- | | | |
|-------------|---|--|
| Interviewer | : | Now, <i>Mita</i> , you more rarely use gestures and facial expressions when cannot express yourself? |
| Mita (Hi) | : | Yes, probably... So, I'm afraid if the listener would not pay attention to my utterances; they will pay more attention to my gestures. That's what I think. Therefore, reduce the use of gestures and facial expressions, when I think it's too many. Actually, I cover my worry [by using gestures and facial expressions]. |

In summary, there were several reasons given for students' increased use of the strategies of trying to make eye-contact when talking and using gestures and facial expressions when unable to express themselves. First, making eye-contact and using gestures and facial expressions were effective ways to increase comprehensibility of the spoken utterances. Comprehensibility concerns were not only to help the speakers to deliver their intended message, but also to assist the listeners to comprehend the delivered messages. Students were aware that the information they were exchanging during oral communication consisted of both explicit words and expressions and implicit and contextual intention. Therefore, they believed that the use of eye-contact, as well as gestures and facial expressions, would assist them in delivering and comprehending, as well as contextualizing the communication. Secondly, making eye-contact and using gestures and facial expressions were considered tools to cover anxiety. These strategies were believed to be more effective among shy students. However, the use of too many gestures and facial expressions was considered a distraction from the main intention of communication. Finally, making eye-contact during communication was believed to be one way to show appreciation and respect to the other party in order that the communication would flow effectively.

8.2.7 Message abandonment strategies.

In general, quantitative findings show reduced use of the message abandonment strategies which can be regarded as negative strategies. Table 8.1 shows that both middle and high achievers decreased use of message abandonment strategies. The high achievers showed a higher degree of reduction with a t-value of

.760 while the middle achievers made a reduction showing a t-value of .662. Only the low achievers did not show any change in the use of this strategy.

Regarding the shift in use of individual strategies as shown in Table 8.2, students made three decreases and one slight increase. They reduced the use of strategies of abandoning the execution of a verbal plan and say some words when do not know what to say, leaving a message unfinished due to some language difficulty and significantly reduced asking other people for help when they cannot communicate well. However they made a slight increase in using the strategy of giving up when they cannot make themselves understood.

The changes in the use of individual strategy within the category of message abandonment, as presented in Table 8.3, showed more decreases than increases. Both the high and low achievers increased using the strategy of abandoning the execution of a verbal plan and just saying some words when they do not know what to say. A different finding was found in the middle achievers who decreased using this strategy. While the high achievers reduced use of leaving a message unfinished due to language difficulty, the middle and the low achievers showed an increase. All the three groups reduced the use of the strategy of asking other people to help when they cannot communicate well. Both the high and low achievers decreased giving up when they cannot make themselves understood while the middle achievers increased using this strategy.

Qualitative findings regarding the shift in use of message abandonment strategies, namely leaving a message unfinished because of some language difficulty,

asking other people to help and giving up when students cannot make themselves understood support the quantitative findings.

The classroom activities revealed that students reduced leaving messages unfinished. The excerpt below was taken from students' conversation about 'love' at the beginning of the semester. It is obvious that most of them referred to friends when having problems finding correct English words or expressions. Rejeki, the only high achiever involved in the discussion, was happy to help her friends. This willingness to help may be one of the reasons for students favouring the strategy of asking for help from friends. These students sometimes used Indonesian or Javanese in asking friends for help. They even discussed the intended message of the question to be discussed in Indonesian in order to correctly understand the question. Leaving a message unfinished was done quite often.

- Rejeki : could you stay married to someone did not love? Explain. [*reading a question from the handbook*]
- May be no no no no, because err ... when err ... I don't have love with someone, maybe I will ... I will not get err ... happiness in my life, and I think err ...when when .. err... I married with someone err ... we must err ... give love each other. And you Merdu?
- Merdu : I think so, I ... I ...couldn't .. err ... *opo?* [*in Javanese, asking friend*] I don't married with someone err ... [*leave message unfinished*]
- Rejeki : when you don't have love
- Merdu : err ... what? When .. when I don't love. Because err .. err ... with didn't love we get understanding for.... for .. uhm .. err ... [*giving up when not being able to make herself understood*].
- Rejeki : enough?
- Merdu : I think enough .. he he he. What about you?
- Vera : I think no, err .. because I afraid .. I afraid uhm ...I afraid....if uhm *Nanti iku opo?* [*asking friend 'nanti iku opo?' which is 'what is later?'*]
- Rejeki : for the future
- Vera : for the future is not happy ending.
- Nuri : I agree you, because if err ... I am married but I don't love I think not I do not happy

... students were discussing the meaning of the question to be discussed in Indonesian language. It was about 'is it ok to date more than one person at the same time?'....

- Rejeki : Is it possible to love more than one person at the same time? [*reading a question from the handbook*]
- I think err for me impossible because when when err .. we love more than one person at the same time maybe this is err .. to ... not not not err... we can't to to say this is love. Err.. because I think err ... the really love .. the really really love is when we we feel a special feeling err... someone, I think, and this is not for everybody at the some time. So, err ... for the possible my opinion is err ... when we feel love for err ... one person at the same time.
- Merdu : I think impossible because err ... *mungkin iku opo?* [*Asking frinds 'what is maybe?'*]
- Rejeki : maybe
- Merdu : maybe err ... we get err ... love err ... from two persons or or more and we ... and I think err... he give me err... he give me understanding and belief ... belief, and I feel that two person or more at the same time err... feel love with them.
- Vera : I think possible, but I cannot really falling in love to different people. You understand?
- Rejeki : how about you, Nuri?
- Nuri : I think I can fall in love two a man at same time because I easy fall in love he he he

The strategies these students used in the above conversation were different to the strategies they used at the end of the semester. In the final test, these students seemed to reduce the use of the message abandonment strategies. As shown in the conversation below between Vera and Nuri at the end of the semester, they did not leave a message unfinished. Nor did they give up when not being able to make themselves understood. Asking for help from friends was not evident either. Instead, mutual understanding between the two was obvious. Though fillers were still frequently used, these students did not take much time to express their message.

- Vera : Are you happy today?
- Nuri : Yes, I'm very happy
- Nuri : Why are you happy?
- Vera : Uhm because, today is my birthday, and yesterday and yesterday my friend is celebrate my my birthday. And you?
- Nuri : Oh I'm very happy, because err because you err today your birthday err I I get free eat in SS, okay?

- Vera : Uhm who uhm ... who is people make your happy?
- Nuri : I have someone which make me happy. Which make me happy is my parents, err.. my mother because my mother err always err care to me and my mother always with me when I when everything everything happen in my live. And err I err and all other which make me happy err my friend. Because my friend err also with me when everything in my life. Err where you err where you place err which err you feel happy?
- Vera : Uhm .. usually I'm I'm very happy if I in nature of place, like like the beach, mountain and et cetera. Uhm... usually I go to there with my friend and my family. And you?
- Nuri : I I have place which make which always make me happy err the place is my home, because in my home I I can do everything I want and in my home I can block together with my family. Err ..when you when you feel err very very happy in your life?
- Vera : I feel very happy in uhm ... in high school because err in high school I will... I will .. I always together with my friend, absent with my friend, go to the beach and ... walking the way. And you?
- Nuri : Err if I err feel very happy when in my live is I can eh I I can get err I can get .. do err in the test and I can eh I get score high score and err so err if I can eh I get score high score, my parents is very happy and to proud of me.
- Vera : How about your boyfriend? He is can can make your happy?
- Nuri : Oh he he. Yes, my friend which make me happy is my friendship.
- Vera : Your boyfriend?
- Nuri : Oh...no! I don't have boyfriend, I I don't like have boyfriend because err boyfriend not err make me happy, boyfriend err make me sad and cry, he he. Err how err what about what about err what you do you think happy ?
- Vera : Uhm . happy, I think happy is uhm is very very awaiting for me, because not all people can grab it. Err and .. and I err not always get err happiness.
- Nuri : I don't same for you, I think .. I think happy is err when someone err not haven't eh not have not have a problem and so this someone always err smile without problem.

In the interviews, most students mentioned that they reduced the use of the strategy of asking other people to help when unable to communicate well. Despite the quantitative findings which suggested a significantly reduced use of this strategy, this strategy was still included in the high range of use at the end of the semester. One possible reason for students to reduce the use of the strategy of asking other people to help at the end of the semester was their being more accustomed to using the dictionary. By the end of the semester, use of a dictionary was preferred to asking for a friend's help. Sometimes friends could not help to solve problems in

comprehending written statements or finding appropriate expressions for use in spoken utterances. This was mentioned by Vera, a middle achiever. There were attempts to ask for friends' help, but this often did not work effectively. This might indicate that previously students were not able to use a dictionary appropriately and found a friend's help was more effective. By the end of the semester, students' independent learning to develop oral communication skills increased. They did not rely so much on asking for other people's help; instead, they improved their attempts to solve the problems by themselves, through consulting the dictionary.

- Interviewer : Vera, now you more rarely ask for other people to help when cannot communicate well?
 Vera (Md) : Yes, usually when I do not know the meaning of certain sentences, I more often refer to dictionary.
 Interviewer : So, now you refer to dictionary more frequently?
 Vera (Md) : Yes, because sometimes when I ask friends, they also do not know.

Certain patterns in asking other people to help when unable to communicate well were mentioned. First, for some students, asking for others' help was found to be more effective when directed to friends of equal level. *Maulana*, a middle achiever, said that he was more comfortable to communicate or ask for friends' help of his level, rather than friends of higher or lower level. Asking friends of higher level could result in unbalanced communication while asking friends of equal level might result in acts of sharing and covering each other's strength and weaknesses. In this sense, being together with someone of the same level seemed to increase the level of togetherness, and at the same time avoid the discomfort of competitiveness.

- Interviewer : Do you change the frequency of asking for other people to help? Do you find changes in using this strategy?
Maulana (Md) : I prefer asking friends of equal level so that we can cover each other's weaknesses. When I communicate with (ask) friends of higher level, they are more fluent while I am not that fluent, so this may cause unbalance. I

prefer those of the same level as me, we can cover each other. Then, when we are of the same level, we can search for the answers together.

However, a different pattern of the strategy of asking other people to help was voiced by a high achiever. Sayang felt that requests for help, as the first alternative to solve problems before consulting a dictionary, could be directed to friends of a lower level of English proficiency. She believed that someone's knowledge could not be judged only from her/his oral performance. Instead, someone's unspoken knowledge could be a resource to help her to solve problems. In this light, the value of trusting friends was noted.

Interviewer : What do you usually do to solve problems when cannot communicate well?

Sayang (Hi) : I usually ask friends, or I consult dictionary.

Interviewer : I think you are a smart student. Who do you usually ask, then?

Sayang (Hi) : Many friends. It's not a guarantee that those who seldom talk in English do not have good English proficiency.

Regarding the reduced frequency of giving up when unable to make themselves understood, students mentioned several points. First, the tendency not to give up easily was supported by the attempts to improve vocabulary, which, if limited, was believed to be the main source of difficulty in oral communication. *Maulana*, for example, mentioned that now he more rarely gave up when he could not make himself understood. He tried harder to find words or phrases to express himself in spoken English.

Interviewer : Maulana, now you more rarely give up when cannot make yourself understood by your friends?

Maulana (Md) : Yes, because [previously] it was difficult for me to express myself and my friends did not understand; it was also difficult to say what my friends wanted me to say because I did not know the words. So, I just changed the message. Now, I try harder to find the words or expressions that can make my sentences understood.

Second, more attempts to try using new words in spoken utterances were also mentioned. Sayang, for example, tried to use other words or synonyms in order that her utterances were understood by the listeners.

- Interviewer : now you more rarely give up when cannot make yourself understood by the listeners?
- Sayang (Hi) : Yes, I put more attempts. Or, I try to use other words in order that the listener understands me.

Third, attempts to have more practice speaking in English were supported by the use of gestures when it was difficult to express messages. Gestures acted as assistance in order to have mutual understanding during oral communication. This was mentioned by Vera, a middle achiever.

- Interviewer : now Vera more rarely give up when cannot make yourself understood by the listeners, from point 4 to point 2?
- Vera (Md) : Yes, usually when I speak in English and the listeners do not understand me, I use my hands [gestures].

Despite difficulties in delivering messages, students still made a great deal of effort to convey their intention with the assistance of gestures and facial expression. This shows students' higher motivation to maintain the flow and continuity of communication. Such a finding is consistent with Mochizuki (1999) that high motivation positively impacts on the use of strategies. This also confirms what Scarcella and Oxford (1992) claim, that "the degree of motivation is the most powerful influence on how and when students use language learning strategies" (p.52).

The interviews revealed that students reduced use of the strategies of asking other people to help and giving up when unable to make themselves understood for several reasons. First, reducing asking other people to help could be due to students'

greater use of the dictionary when they experienced problems in finding appropriate vocabulary or expressions for spoken English. This was because sometimes friends could not help to solve problems. This finding also shows students' being more independent in learning. This confirms a claim by Oxford and Nyikos (1989) that more effective use of strategies promotes autonomous learning. However, students' preference to ask other people to help was still high. Some preferred to ask friends of the same level for reasons of togetherness and avoidance of competition. Because of the trust placed in their friends, some other students believed that asking for help from friends can be directed to those of higher, the same, or lower levels of proficiency. Secondly, students' reduced use of the strategy of giving up when unable to make themselves understood was due to their increased attempts to find words, expressions or synonyms appropriate for their spoken utterances. Using gestures was also evident as compensation for the reduced level of message abandonment.

8.2.8 Attempt to think in English strategies.

As presented in Table 8.1, both the high and middle achievers increased the use of attempt to think in English strategies. The high achievers slightly increased using the strategy of attempting to think in English with a t-value of -.284 whereas the middle achievers significantly increased the use of this strategy with a t-value of -1.861. The low achievers did not change the frequency of use of this strategy.

Regarding the shift in use of individual strategies, Table 8.2 shows that students made increases in using the two individual strategies. First, they

increasingly used the strategy of thinking first of what to say in native language and then constructing the English sentence. Second, they significantly increased using the strategy of thinking first of a sentence students already know in English and then trying to change it to fit the situation.

Comparison of strategies use across students of different proficiencies, as presented in Table 8.3, shows that both the high and middle achievers significantly increased the use of the strategy of thinking first of a sentence they already know in English and then trying to change it to fit the situation. Differently, while the high achievers reduced using the strategy of thinking first of they want to say in native language and then constructing the English sentence, the middle achievers increased its use and the low achievers did not make any change.

The qualitative findings presented in this sub-section are, generally, in line with the main points described in the discussion of quantitative findings. It covers shifts in use of the strategies of thinking first in native language then constructing the English sentences and thinking first of a sentence already known in English then changing it to fit the situation.

The use of the strategy of thinking first in the native language was dominant in most of the students' conversation at the beginning of the semester. They frequently tried to translate utterances and questions from English into Indonesian as the first stage when they did not understand the utterances. This strategy was reduced in use by the end of the semester. Below is an excerpt when students were discussing mostly in Indonesian when they were asked to respond to some questions in English.

It was mostly the high achiever, Rejeki, who responded to the questions. Other students seemed to be passive in this part of the conversation.

Rejeki : can a parent with more than one child love all his/her children the same?

[students were discussing in Indonesian language their responses to this question]

Rejeki : I think yes, err ... every parents can err .. love all their children maybe, because err... when err ...the parents can't to give the same love, I think this is err ... will make a problem err ... for the err ... this family. And, what about you, Merdu?

Merdu : because the parents can err... must love err ... all of their children. I think.

[Students were asking the English sentence of to the teacher, who was approaching their group. They asked 'tidak pernah ada' which is 'they are never there', 'there are never around']

Vera : I think yes, because err never around the parents not loving not loving this child

[teacher corrected the sentence 'parent who is never around doesn't love his/her child']

Rejeki : what is the best way to meet someone new? Explain

[Students were discussing the meaning of the question in Indonesian language. They were also trying to compose their responses in English]

Rejeki : err ... maybe err ... for the best way to meet someone new err... like speaking uhm face to face and uhm ... acquaintance and always err ... give .. maybe ...and give a smile, maybe. So err when we give a smile, we can to a good err.. a good ... *[students were discussing in Indonesian language finding the appropriate English terms]*. Yes, I think when we give a smile with a new someone, we we get .. we will get err ...a good impression maybe, yes.

Rejeki : And how long should you date before you consider marriage?

[students were discussing in Indonesian language the meaning of this question. They tried to translate the question into Indonesian language]. Berapa lama kamu ngedate sebelum kamu mempertimbangkan untuk menikah.

Rejeki : eeuuhh maybe maybe this is err ... need err ... a long time because err ... not easy to consider to married for me. I need err many information about him like charateristic, like family, like err ... her job, like her habit.

The reduced use of the strategy of thinking first in native language then constructing the English sentences by some of the high achievers was thought to be because of more practice in the use of English. During the whole semester, TBL was implemented, and the focus was on the improvement of students' oral communication skills. The implementation of this approach provides more opportunities for students to practice using spoken English, and is also mentioned in

Chapter 6 about students' responses toward the implementation of TBL. As put in the following excerpt, Cantik, a high achiever, said that the increased practice she had within that semester made her more accustomed to using spoken English and this made her reduce the strategy of thinking first in Indonesian language before constructing the sentences in English. In this sense, it seemed that the more opportunity provided for students to speak in English, the more they became used to directly thinking of a sentence in English, not translating from Indonesian language.

Interviewer : now you more rarely think first of a sentence in Indonesian language before constructing the English sentence?

Cantik (Hi) : Yes, because in this semester, when we are taught by Mr. Hari, we have more practices. So, we are more used to using English.

Regarding the shift in use of the strategy of thinking first of a sentence in English then trying to change it to fit the situation, students gave several reasons. For Nuri, a low achiever, it depended on the situation. First she tried to directly make English sentences, but when she found it hard to directly use English, she tried to think in Indonesian language then translated the sentence into English. This shows that the first attempt she made was trying to make sentences in English; translating from Indonesian language was an alternative should problems appear.

Nuri (Lo) : For me, I see the situation first. If I understand the message delivered and I can directly respond in English, I will respond in English. But, if I find problems in saying my message, I still use Indonesian language first then translate it into English.

A different response came from a high achiever, Cantik, who said that she rarely needed to translate from Indonesian language into English. Rather, she needed time to think first before saying the sentence in English.

- Interviewer : Do you directly think of a sentence in English without translating from Indonesian language?
- Cantik (Hi) : I think, I do not need to translate. But, I need time to think first. I seldom translate [from Indonesian language]

It seems that different English speaking proficiencies may determine students' approaches to express themselves in oral English. Adequate English knowledge as possessed by the high achievers might help them to more easily think directly in English before saying the English utterances. This finding shows that as students improve their oral communication skills (read also section 6.3 about students' progress), they reduce the use of L1-based transfer strategies which are usually favoured by low achievers as also identified in several other studies (for example, Bialystok & Frohlich, 1980; Qingquan, Chatupote, & Teo, 2008). While high achievers started to use more L2-based strategies, students of low proficiency still relied on the use of L1-based strategies. For low achievers, their lower English knowledge sometimes inhibited them from directly thinking in English. However, such a situation may not be similarly found in a classroom in which students do not speak the same native language and English is the only shared media of communication. Findings may be different when students are forced to communicate only in English.

8.3 Summary

Analysis of the data in this chapter, regarding the shifts in oral communication strategies use for coping with speaking problems, reveals a number of interesting findings. These include changes of both increases and decreases in use of strategies, comparison of shift in use of negative versus positive strategies,

comparison of changes in strategies use by students of different proficiency levels, and possible reasons for these changes.

In general, findings show a more balanced use of strategies during oral communication tasks with an increased use of strategies for coping with speaking problems approaching the level of strategies for coping with listening problems. Without ignoring the existence of other influential factors, combined with the findings presented in Chapter 6 about students' progress in oral communication development, these findings confirm the effectiveness of TBL in improving students' oral communication skills as well as in making students more skilful in using oral communication strategies.

Regarding the shifts in the use of oral communication strategies for coping with speaking problems, some noteworthy findings are evident. First, after the implementation of TBL, students' use of positive strategies was increased while their use of negative strategies was reduced. This pattern of shift was experienced by the high achievers and the low achievers who increased the use of positive strategies, the only difference being the use of the social affective strategy by the high achievers and the use of the accuracy oriented strategy by the middle achievers. Both groups decreased the use of negative strategies. The low achievers did not fully follow this pattern of shifts. Instead, they increased using one negative strategy (message reduction and alteration) and two positive strategies (negotiation for meaning while speaking and non-verbal strategies in speaking) and reduced using three positive strategies (social affective, fluency-oriented, and accuracy-oriented). These findings suggest that, after the implementation of TBL, the higher the students' levels of oral

proficiency, the greater their likelihood of increasing the use of positive strategies and reducing the use of negative strategies.

Another noteworthy finding on the shift in use of oral communication strategies for coping with speaking problems shows that all students of different oral proficiency levels increased using both the strategy of negotiation for meaning while speaking and non-verbal strategies in speaking. Furthermore, findings revealed significant changes in the increased use of non-verbal strategies in speaking and reduced use of message reduction and alteration strategy. Among the three groups the middle achievers outnumbered other groups in making significant changes. The high achievers were positioned second while the low achievers did not make any significant changes. These findings suggest that TBL significantly affected the shifts of oral communication strategies for both the high and middle achievers but not for the low achievers.

In terms of shifts in the use of individual strategies for coping with speaking problems, some prominent findings are noted. First, findings suggest that in general students increased the use of positive individual strategies for coping with speaking problems and reduced the use of negative strategies. This can further be interpreted as indicating good progress in students' use of oral communication strategies. Secondly, there were eight significant changes in the use of individual strategies for coping with speaking problems. Three of these eight strategies were the reduced use of negative strategies and one reduced use of the strategy of taking time to express what students want to say. The other four significant changes were the increased use of positive strategies. Third, students' different levels of oral proficiencies shaped

different patterns of significant changes in using individual strategies for coping with speaking problems. Of all three groups, the middle achievers made the greatest number of significant changes while the low achievers did not make any significant changes. Finally, all three groups shared similarities in increasing the use of strategies of paying attention to rhythm and intonation, giving examples if the listeners do not understand what they are saying, trying to make eye-contact when talking, and thinking first of a sentence they already know in English and then trying to change it to fit the situation. They all also decreased the use of an individual strategy of asking other people to help when they cannot communicate well.

For most students, improving vocabulary was the first priority in the development of oral communication skills. Students' improved vocabulary positively impacted on their use of strategies as well as their progress with oral communication skills. Improved vocabulary combined with more practice in oral communication was also found to be an influential factor of the shift in use of oral communication strategies.

A number of factors were evident regarding the influence of students' affective factors in shifts in use of strategies. Toward the end of the semester, most students reported increased self-esteem, higher risk-taking behaviour, lower anxiety, and higher degree of motivation. Change in these affective factors was found to positively impact on their use of strategies, and in turn, improve their oral communication skills.

However, there were a number of issues regarding cultural issues within the implementation of TBL. Students' preference of being collectivist in their learning was dominant. Some examples were that they preferred working in groups instead of working individually, trusting friends, or referring to friends of higher proficiency as role models. Furthermore, a charismatic bond between students and teacher was also found dominant. The teacher relinquishing his power combined with students' high respect to teacher and regarding teacher as role model was a harmonious condition for effective learning to occur. Thus, allowing these cultural realities, rather than forcing the principle of learners' autonomy, was not problematic in the effective implementation of TBL and illustrates the importance of recognizing and accommodating cultural differences in curriculum change.

CHAPTER 9

SHIFTS IN ORAL COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES FOR COPING WITH LISTENING PROBLEMS

This chapter responds to the third research question, regarding the shift in use of oral communication strategies for coping with listening problems during the implementation of Task-based Learning (TBL). Findings and discussion of both quantitative and qualitative data are presented. Quantitative data were sourced from Oral Communication Strategy Inventory (OCSI) developed by Nakatani (2006) while qualitative data were gathered through in-depth interviews, speaking test, and stimulated recalls. In order to trace the shifts in strategy use, OCSI was administered at the beginning of semester when TBL had not been implemented and at the end of semester after TBL had been implemented for one semester. All of these methods were the same as administered in gathering data as presented in Chapter 8.

The listening activities conducted by students in this study refers to interactional listening that is different from the common listening comprehension activities usually conducted in listening activities. While most listening comprehension in second/foreign language (L2) classroom tends to focus on transactional listening, interactive listening “requires listeners to take a more active role by interacting with interlocutor, requesting clarification or providing feedback in order to ensure successful communication” (Vandergrift, 1997a, p. 494). This interactive listening activity as a part of communication activity was the second concern of this study after speaking activity.

This chapter is divided into three sections, namely shifts in use of listening strategies across students of different proficiencies, shifts in use of listening strategies, and summary. Detailed description and discussion about the shift in use of listening strategies both in categorical and individual categories is included in section 9.2.

9.1 Shifts in Use of Listening Strategies across Students of Different Proficiencies

This section presents the findings on shifts in use of oral communication strategies for coping with listening problems, presented in categories. It includes the presentation of the increased and decreased use of strategies within each category, the significant changes, the comparison of positive and negative strategies, and the comparison of shifts as experienced by students of different levels of oral communication strategies. Table 9.1 shows the tabulation of the shifts.

In categories, there were two increased use of positive strategies, one significant reduced use of negative strategy, one unchanged positive strategy, and three reduced positive strategies. Two increased positive strategies were negotiation for meaning and non-verbal strategies. The significantly reduced strategy was the negative strategy of being less-active listener. The other three slightly increased strategies include fluency maintaining, scanning, and word-oriented strategies.

Table 9.1

Shifts in Use of Oral Communication Strategies for Coping with Listening Problems (in Categories)

No	Categories	High Achievers				Middle Achievers				Low Achievers				Average All Groups			
		Means		t-value	Sig. (2-tailed)	Means		t-value	Sig. (2-tailed)	Means		t-value	Sig. (2-tailed)	Means		t-value	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Begin	End			Begin	End			Begin	End			Begin	End		
1	Negotiation for Meaning while Listening	3.525	3.950	-2.072	.077	3.556	3.622	-.201	.846	3.267	3.333	-.2000	.860	3.500	3.710	-1.204	.243
2	Fluency Maintaining	3.775	3.675	.540	.606	3.420	3.380	.156	.879	3.333	3.133	1.000	.423	3.543	3.457	.616	.545
3	Scanning	4.250	4.250	.000	1.000	4.300	4.300	.000	1.000	4.083	3.667	.762	.525	4.250	4.191	.488	.631
4	Getting the Gist	3.594	3.625	-.126	.903	3.472	3.472	.000	1.000	3.167	3.083	.180	.874	3.475	3.475	.000	1.000
5	Non-Verbal Strategies in Listening	4.313	4.438	-.552	.598	3.700	4.100	-1.238	.247	3.333	3.833	-.866	.478	3.881	4.191	-1.652	.114
6	Less-Active Listener	3.875	3.625	1.000	.351	4.350	3.950	1.238	.247	4.167	3.333	2.500	.130	4.143	3.738	2.193	.040
7	Word Oriented	4.313	4.375	-.333	.749	4.528	4.500	.244	.813	4.333	3.750	1.750	.222	4.413	4.338	.688	.500

Disregarding the different oral proficiency levels, on average, there were two increased use, one unchanged use, and four decreased use of oral communication strategies for coping with listening problems. Students increased their use of negotiation for meaning while listening and non-verbal strategies in listening. They did not change the rate of using the strategy of getting the gist. They decreased the use of strategies for fluency maintaining, scanning, being less-active listener, and being word-oriented. These findings suggest that the implementation of TBL for one semester impacted on the students' use of oral communication strategies for coping with listening problems in that students tended to reduce their use of the strategies.

Interestingly, the high achievers showed a different pattern of strategies shift when compared to the general findings. The high achievers increased their use of four strategies, namely negotiation for meaning while listening, getting the gist, non-verbal strategies in listening, and being word-oriented. They did not change their rate of using the scanning strategy. However, they reduced the use of strategies for fluency maintaining and being less-active listener; the latter is a negative strategy. These findings suggest that, among other possible factors, the implementation of TBL for one semester might impact on the shifts of oral communication strategies use by the high achievers in the sense that they tended to increase the use of positive strategies and to reduce the use of negative strategies.

A different pattern of shift was found in the use of oral communication strategies by the middle achievers. This group of students increased the use of two strategies which were negotiation for meaning while listening, and non-verbal strategies in listening. The middle achievers did not change the rate of using the

strategies of scanning and getting the gist. However, they reduced the use of strategies for fluency maintaining, being less-active listeners, and being word-oriented. In short, the implementation of TBL, among some other possible factors, may result in reduced use of most oral communication strategies for coping with listening problems by the middle achievers.

The shifts of oral communication strategies use by the low achievers revealed more decreases than increases. In common with the middle achievers, the low achievers only increased the use of two strategies while other strategies use was decreased. The two increased strategies were the strategies of negotiation for meaning while listening and non-verbal strategies in listening. They did not change the rate of using the strategy of getting the gist.

In relation to significant changes in the use of oral communication strategies for coping with listening problems, some patterns were revealed. Of all the students, there was one significant change. This significant change was on the reduced use of being less-active listener strategy ($p = .040$). Among the high achievers only, there was one significant change which was on the increased use of the strategy of negotiation for meaning while listening, showing a significant level at .077. However, there was no significant change in the use of strategies by both the middle and low achievers.

In summary, the abovementioned findings suggest that, among other possible factors, the implementation of TBL over one semester affected students' use of oral communication strategies for coping with listening problems. On average, there two

increases, four decreases, and one unchanged use of strategies. All student groups showed decreased use of this negative strategy, that of being less active listeners. Findings on the high achievers suggested increased use of positive strategies and decreased use of negative strategies. Thus, a further conclusion can be drawn which suggests that the higher the levels of students' oral proficiency the more their tendency to favour increased use of positive strategies and reduced use of negative strategies.

9.2 Shifts in Use of Listening Strategies

This section presents the findings of shifts in use of individual oral communication strategies use. It consists of general discussion of the findings, followed by seven subsections discussing each category of listening strategies. These eight subsections discuss the shift in use of 26 individual strategies. Discussion includes increased and decreased use of individual strategies, the significant changes, the comparison of positive and negative strategies, and the comparison of the shifts between student groups. Table 9.2 summarizes this information.

Irrespective of the students' different levels of oral proficiencies, there were 13 increased, 12 decreased, and one unchanged use of individual strategies for coping with listening problems. Both the two individual negative strategies were reduced in use. Other changes of strategies use belong to positive strategies. The unchanged use of strategy was that of paying attention to the first word to judge whether it is an interrogative sentence or not. In general, the shifts show decreased

Table 9.2

Shifts in Use of Individual Oral Communication Strategies for Coping with Listening Problems

Factors	Item No.	Questionnaire Items	Beginning of Semester		End of Semester		Changes in the Use of Strategies		
			Mean	SD	Mean	SD	t-value	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Category 1 Negotiation for Meaning while Listening	1	I ask the speaker to slow down when I can't understand what the speaker has said.	3.381	0.805	3.762	0.831	-2.019	20	0.057
	2	I ask the speaker to use easy words when I have difficulties in comprehension.	3.857	0.793	3.905	0.889	-0.149	20	0.883
	3	I make a clarification request when I am not sure what the speaker has said.	3.100	0.788	3.450	0.945	-1.234	19	0.232
	4	I ask for repetition when I can't understand what the speaker has said.	4.000	0.775	3.952	0.74	0.295	20	0.771
	5	I make clear to the speaker what I haven't been able to understand.	3.143	0.793	3.476	0.814	-1.919	20	0.069
Category 2 Fluency Maintaining	6	I ask the speaker to give an example when I am not sure what he/she said.	3.762	1.044	3.667	0.913	0.384	20	0.705
	7	I pay attention to the speaker's rhythm and intonation.	3.714	1.007	3.762	0.995	-0.17	20	0.867
	8	I send continuation signals to show my understanding in order to avoid communication gaps.	3.238	0.995	3.476	0.814	-0.815	20	0.424
	9	I use circumlocution to react the speaker's utterance when I don't understand his/her intention well.	3.286	0.956	2.810	0.928	2.225	20	0.038
	10	I pay attention to the speaker's pronunciation.	3.714	1.146	3.571	1.076	0.679	20	0.505
Category 3 Scanning	11	I pay attention to the first part of the sentence and guess the speaker's intention.	4.095	0.831	4.191	0.814	-0.4	20	0.693
	12	I try to catch the speaker's main point.	4.571	0.507	4.524	0.512	0.568	20	0.576
	13	I especially pay attention to the interrogative when I listen to WH-questions.	4.476	0.680	4.191	0.814	1.826	20	0.083
	14	I pay attention to the subject and verb of the sentence when I listen.	3.857	1.062	3.857	0.964	-0.336	20	0.741

Category 4 Getting the Gist	15	I try to respond to the speaker even when I don't understand him/her perfectly.	3.571	0.978	3.857	0.727	-1.142	20	0.267
	16	I guess the speaker's intention based on what he/she has said so far.	3.619	0.921	3.762	1.044	-0.616	20	0.545
	17	I don't mind if I can't understand every single detail.	3.571	0.811	3.476	1.03	0.346	20	0.733
	18	I anticipate what the speaker is going to say based on the context.	3.200	0.768	2.900	0.912	1.031	19	0.316
Category 5 Non-Verbal Strategies in Listening	19	I use gestures when I have difficulties in understanding.	3.667	0.966	4.095	0.889	-1.686	20	0.107
	20	I pay attention to the speaker's eye contact, facial expression and gestures.	4.095	1.044	4.286	0.902	-1	20	0.329
Category 6 Less-Active Listener	21	I try to translate into native language little by little to understand what the speaker has said.	4.191	0.873	3.857	0.793	1.435	20	0.167
	22	I only focus on familiar expressions.	4.095	0.944	3.619	0.74	1.693	20	0.106
Category 7 Word- Oriented	23	I pay attention to the first word to judge whether it is an interrogative sentence or not.	4.286	0.717	4.286	0.784	0	20	1
	24	I try to catch every word that the speaker use.	4.650	0.489	4.250	0.786	2.629	19	0.017
	25	I guess the speaker's intention by picking up familiar words.	4.619	0.498	4.571	0.507	0.37	20	0.715
	26	I pay attention to the words which the speaker slows down or emphasizes.	4.150	0.813	4.300	0.657	-0.719	19	0.481

use of negative individual strategies and increased use of most positive individual strategies.

Of all the strategies, there were five significant changes in the use of individual strategies for coping with listening problems. The most significant change was that of the reduced use of trying to catch every word the speaker uses ($p = .017$). The second most significant change was the reduced use of the strategy of using circumlocution to react to the speaker's utterance when unable to understand the intention well ($p = .038$). Next was the increased use of the strategy of asking the speaker to slow down when students cannot understand what the speaker has said (p

= .057). The next significant change was the increased use of the strategy of making clear to the speaker what students have not been able to understand with the significant level of .069. Finally, students made significant change in reducing the use of strategy of paying attention to the interrogative when listening to WH-questions with the significant level of .083. All of these significant changes were in the use of positive strategies.

With respect to students' different levels of oral communication proficiencies, Table 9.3 presents the comparison of shifts in using individual strategies for coping with listening problems as made by high, middle, and low achievers. This table shows similarities and differences among different groups of students in terms of significant changes in using individual strategies as well as the increases and decreases.

In terms of the number of significant changes in the use of individual strategies, findings show that the high achievers' changes outnumbered those of the other two groups. There were three significant changes made by the high achievers while the middle and the low achievers each made two significant changes. The high achievers made significant increased use of the strategy of asking the speaker to slow down when they cannot understand what the speaker has said ($p = .020$) and in making a clarification request when they are not sure what the speaker has said ($p = .020$). They also made significant reduced use of the strategy of only focusing on familiar expressions ($p = .095$). In contrast, the middle achievers made significantly increased use of the strategy of making clear to the speaker what they have not been able to understand ($p = .051$) and another significantly reduced use of the strategy of

Table 9.3

Shifts in Use of Individual Oral Communication Strategies for Coping with Listening Problems across Different Groups

Factors	Item No.	Questionnaire Items	High Achievers		Middle Achievers		Low Achievers	
			t-value	Sig. (2-tailed)	t-value	Sig. (2-tailed)	t-value	Sig. (2-tailed)
Category 1 Negotiation for Meaning while Listening	1	I ask the speaker to slow down when I can't understand what the speaker has said.	-3.000	.020	-.361	.726	-.500	.667
	2	I ask the speaker to use easy words when I have difficulties in comprehension.	-1.528	.170	.502	.627	.000	1.000
	3	I make a clarification request when I am not sure what the speaker has said.	-3.000	.020	.000	1.000	-1.000	.423
	4	I ask for repetition when I can't understand what the speaker has said.	.552	.598	.000	1.000	.000	1.000
	5	I make clear to the speaker what I haven't been able to understand.	-1.000	.351	-2.250	.051	1.000	.423
Category 2 Fluency Maintaining	6	I ask the speaker to give an example when I am not sure what he/she said.	1.000	.351	.208	.840	-1.000	.423
	7	I pay attention to the speaker's rhythm and intonation.	.000	1.000	-.361	.726	1.000	.423
	8	I send continuation signals to show my understanding in order to avoid communication gaps.	.357	.732	-.580	.576	-1.732	.225
	9	I use circumlocution to react the speaker's utterance when I don't understand his/her intention well.	.000	1.000	1.765	.111	4.000	.057
	10	I pay attention to the speaker's pronunciation.	.314	.763	.000	1.000	2.000	.184
Category 3 Scanning	11	I pay attention to the first part of the sentence and guess the speaker's intention.	-1.426	.197	-.318	.758	.555	.635
	12	I try to catch the speaker's main point.	.000	1.000	1.000	.343	.000	1.000
	13	I especially pay attention to the interrogative when I listen to WH-questions.	.552	.598	1.000	.343	1.732	.225
	14	I pay attention to the subject and verb of the sentence when I listen.	.798	.451	-.391	.705	.000	1.000

Category 4 Getting the Gist	15	I try to respond to the speaker even when I don't understand him/her perfectly.	.000	1.000	-1.655	.132	1.000	.423
	16	I guess the speaker's intention based on what he/she has said so far.	-.683	.516	-1.406	.193	.555	.635
	17	I don't mind if I can't understand every single detail.	.180	.862	.429	.678	.000	1.000
	18	I anticipate what the speaker is going to say based on the context.	.000	1.000	1.835	.104	-2.000	.184
Category 5 Non- Verbal Strategies in Listening	19	I use gestures when I have difficulties in understanding.	-.893	.402	-1.246	.244	-.500	.667
	20	I pay attention to the speaker's eye contact, facial expression and gestures.	1.000	.351	-.896	.394	-1.000	.423
Category 6 Less-Active Listener	21	I try to translate into native language little by little to understand what the speaker has said.	-.261	.802	2.250	.051	2.000	.184
	22	I only focus on familiar expressions.	1.930	.095	.391	.705	1.732	.225
Category 7 Word- Oriented	23	I pay attention to the first word to judge whether it is an interrogative sentence or not.	-.424	.685	.000	1.000	1.000	.423
	24	I try to catch every word that the speaker use.	1.000	.351	1.512	.169	4.000	.057
	25	I guess the speaker's intention by picking up familiar words.	.000	1.000	.429	.678	.000	1.000
	26	I pay attention to the words which the speaker slows down or emphasizes.	-1.158	.285	-.800	.447	1.000	.423

trying to translate into native language little by little to understand what the speaker has said ($p = .051$). Finally, the low achievers made significantly reduced use of the strategies of using circumlocution to react the speaker's utterance when they do not understand his/her intention well ($p = .057$) and trying to catch every word that the speaker use ($p = .057$).

A closer analysis of these significant changes made by the three groups suggests another pattern in terms of the types of categories to which these individual

strategies belong. All of the three groups made no significant changes within the categories of scanning, getting the gist, and nonverbal strategies in listening.

9.2.1 Strategies of negotiation for meaning while listening.

As presented in Table 9.1, the increased use of the strategy of negotiation for meaning while listening by the high achievers was similar to the change by the low achievers, both showing the t-value of around -2.000. However, the increased use of this strategy by the middle achievers was much lower, showing a t-value of -.201. However, toward the end of the semester, general tendency shows the high achievers used this strategy the most and the low achievers the least.

As shown in Table 9.2, within the strategies of negotiation for meaning, four out of five individual strategies were increasingly used, with two of them significantly increased. There was only one decreased use of the strategy of asking for repetition when cannot understand what the speaker has said.

Regarding the comparison of shifts in use of individual strategies by students of different groups of oral proficiency, as presented in Table 9.3, there were some patterns of similarities and differences. All students increased the use of the strategy of asking the speaker to slow down when they cannot understand what the speaker has said. In using the strategy of asking the speaker to use easy words when students have difficulties in comprehension, the high achievers increased use of this strategy while the middle achievers reduced use and the low achievers did not change the frequency of use. While both the high and low achievers increased using the strategy of making a clarification request when they are not sure what the speaker has said,

the middle achievers did not change in frequency of use. The high achievers reduced the use of the strategy of asking for repetition when they cannot understand what the speaker has said while both the middle and low achievers did not change the frequency of use. Finally, while both the high and middle achievers increasingly used the strategy of making clear to the speaker what they have not been able to understand, the low achievers reduced the use of this strategy.

For presentation of qualitative findings, there are three individual strategies to be discussed: asking the speaker to slow down when the listeners cannot understand what the speaker has said, asking the speaker to use easy words when the listeners have difficulties in comprehension, and making clarification requests when the listeners are not sure what the speaker has said.

In regard to increased use of the strategy of asking the speaker to slow down when the listeners cannot understand what the speaker has said, quantitative findings reveal significantly increased use of this strategy, especially among high achievers. Nuri, a low achiever, said that her increased use of this strategy was because she was now more concerned with English lessons. At the beginning of the semester she did not really care about her English progress, and she did not mind not really understanding what the speaker said. Now, her interest in English had increased and she had the motivation to try to understand what the speaker said.

- | | |
|-------------|--|
| Interviewer | : Now you more frequently ask the speaker to slow down so that you can understand what the speaker has said? This is from point 3, in the middle, to point 4, more frequent. |
| Nuri (Lo) | : Yes, this is because now I want to know the intention of the speaker. In the past, I tended to be less concerned to know what the speaker said. |

This finding shows students' more active participation in maintaining the flow of two-way communication. They have higher motivation to be more engaged in the conversation as well as higher use of communication strategies. This is consistent with Mochizuki's (1999) finding about positive impact of high motivation on students' use of strategies. This finding also shows positive correlation between students' language learning motivation and L2 listening strategies, as found by Vandergrift (2005) in his study about the relationship between French learners' motivation orientations, metacognitive awareness and proficiency in L2 Listening. Further, the higher the students' oral communication skills, the higher their motivation to learn the language and the more they use listening strategies.

Higher motivation was also found to be the main reason for students to increase the use of the strategy of asking the speaker to use easy words. There were different responses regarding shift in use of the strategy of asking the speaker to use easy words when listeners have difficulties in comprehension. Several students increased using this strategy. Nuri, a low achiever, for example, said that her increased desire to be able to understand and speak English motivated her to really understand what the speaker said, and, therefore, she was not reluctant to ask the speaker to use easy words. She said:

Yes, now I more frequently ask the speaker to use more easy language [words] because now I really want to be able to use English appropriately, so I have to understand the utterances.
(Nuri, Lo)

In this light, Nuri's motivation to be able to communicate in English was increased. With her higher motivation to learn English, she did not feel reluctant to use the strategy of asking the speaker to use easy words in order to have successful mutual communication. This, again, supports the claim that "the degree of

motivation is the most powerful influence on how and when students use language learning strategies” (Scarcella & Oxford, 1992, p. 52) in the sense that students’ high motivation impacts on their higher use of strategies. Regarding students of lower achievement using this strategy more frequently, this can be explained by Vandergrift (1997b) “because of their limited linguistic knowledge, they recognize very few words” (p. 400), and this “forces them to rely more on cognates as a basis for inferencing” (p. 399).

However, several other students like Sayang, a high achiever, reduced their use of the strategy of asking the speaker to use easy words. Sayang’s reduced use of this strategy was due to her improved vocabulary.

Yes, a little (reduced use of the strategy of asking the speaker to use easy words)... uhm, I think this is because I have improved ... uhm ... my vocabulary. (Sayang, Hi)

That limited language knowledge may be the underlying reason for differences in listening strategy use (Macaro, Graham, & Vanderplank, 2007) is shown here. This finding suggests that students’ good linguistic knowledge or good proficiency negatively predicts their use of communication strategies. This is consistent with what is claimed by Bialystok and Frohlich (1980) and Poulishse (1997) that students of high proficiency use communication strategies more efficiently following the principle of “economy” in which students attempt to use the least expenditure of efforts in using strategies. Fewer uses of strategies may be due to fewer problems encountered. However, should problems occur, students use strategies which may be influenced by several factors, one of which is motivation.

The increased use of the strategy of making a clarification request could be due to students' increased confidence to talk to their friends. This was mentioned by a middle achiever, *Maulana*. He believed that his willingness to make a clarification request to the speaker was because he now had closer relationships with his friends and he was not too shy to ask his friends to clarify what they were saying. It seemed that togetherness and closeness among classmates needed to be established to minimize the gap between them, to reduce the feeling of being 'strangers', and to reduce the feeling of being ashamed of making mistakes when communicating in English. Being not afraid of making mistakes would later encourage students to be more strategic in accomplishing oral communication tasks and this finally would help them to develop their English skills.

- Interviewer : Maulana, now you more frequently make clarification to the speaker what you are not sure. It was point 1 [at the beginning of the semester]. Now you are more courageous to ask, more honest to tell that 'I don't really understand this' or 'What did you mean by this?'
- Maulana (Md) : yes, Mam. Now I have more courage.
- Interviewer : why were you not courageous?
- Maulana (Md) : I was a very shy person
- Interviewer : now you are not that shy? Why do you think you were so shy?
- Maulana (Md) : I was afraid my friends would laugh at me
- Interviewer : were you not close to your friends? Now you are close enough to them?
- Maulana : yes, I think because we started the lesson at the beginning of the semester. Now not [I'm close to them]
- Interviewer : is it because now you feel at ease with your friends?
- Maulana (Md) : not necessarily at ease Mam, now I know my friends, I'm closer to them.

From the above excerpt, it is clear that students' closeness with friends stimulates their high risk-taking behaviour; being close to friends increases the courage to lose face and to take risks. This finding is a resonance to a study by Gardner and Steinberg (2005) and by Kurihara (2006) that found the positive effect of peer relationship in increasing learners' courage to take risks.

The abovementioned description of the findings regarding the shift in use of the negotiation for meaning strategies raises several noteworthy points. First, by the end of the semester, students' motivation to learn English was improved, and their desire to understand what the speaker said, in order to have mutual understanding during communication, also increased. This progress affected students' increased use of the strategies of asking the speaker to slow down as well as their increased use of the strategy of asking the speaker to use easy words, especially by those of lower oral communication skills. Second, by the end of the semester, students felt more close to their classmates. This increased their courage to take risk since they were not afraid of losing face when they made mistakes. In turn, this improved their linguistic self-confidence so that they were more courageous to speak in English. Thus, the use of the strategy of making clarification requests when not sure of what the speaker has said was also increased.

9.2.2 Fluency maintaining strategies.

All students revealed the same shifts in decreased use of the fluency maintaining strategies. The low achievers showed the greatest shift with a t-value of 1.000. The high achievers showed a t-value of .540 and the middle achievers .156.

For the shift in use of individual strategies within the fluency maintaining category, as presented in Table 9.2, there were two increasingly and three decreasingly used strategies. Students increased the use of strategies of paying attention to speaker's rhythm and intonation as well as sending continuation signals to show their understanding in order to avoid communication gap. However they

reduced the use of the strategies of asking the speaker to give examples, using circumlocution to react the speaker's utterance when cannot understand the intention, and paying attention to the speaker's pronunciation. Using circumlocution, which is considered as a negative strategy, was significantly reduced.

In comparison of shifts in use of strategies among three groups, as shown in Table 9.3, all groups tended to make more decreases than increases. While both the high and middle achievers reduced the use of the strategy of asking the speaker to give an example when they are not sure what he/she has said, the low achievers increased using this strategy. All the three groups increasingly used the strategy of sending continuation signals to show their understanding in order to avoid communication gaps. Both the middle and low achievers reduced the use of the negative strategy of using circumlocution to react to the speaker's utterance when they do not understand his/her intention well whereas the high achievers did not change the frequency of use of this strategy. Finally, both the high and low achievers reduced the use of the strategy of paying attention to the speaker's pronunciation whereas the middle achievers did not change the frequency of use.

The qualitative findings, presented as follows, are concerned with shift in use of four fluency maintaining strategies, namely asking the speaker to give an example, paying attention to the speaker's rhythm and intonation, using circumlocution to react to the speaker's utterances, and paying attention to the speaker's pronunciation.

By the end of the semester, findings from the interviews supported students' increased use of the strategy of asking the speaker to give an example when not sure

of what she/he said. For Maulana, for example, being given examples helped him to understand. Responding to the question of why he more frequently asked the speaker to give examples, Maulana said that “*with examples, I can understand better*”.

Furthermore, confirming that examples helped her to better understand the utterances made by the speaker, Cantik, a high achiever, referred to the lecturers who were asked to give examples. Her friends seldom gave examples during communication. This finding may suggest that, as a high achiever, Cantik found her friends could not satisfy her in responding to her questions; they rarely gave examples. Instead, she found the lecturer’s examples function as a good resource for learning.

- | | |
|-------------|--|
| Interviewer | : Now you more frequently ask the speaker to give examples when you are not sure of what they said. It was from point 3 to point 4. |
| Cantik (Hi) | : yes, because with the examples, it is easier for me to understand the message sent by the speaker |
| Interviewer | : Is it because now your friends have better English skills? Is it because your friends have more capability to give examples so that you are willing to ask them to give examples? |
| Cantik (Hi) | : I ask the speaker, in this case the lecturers, to give examples. I ask for the lecturers’ explanation. It’s not during the communication with friends. It is more for the lecturers. Friends seldom give examples. |

The above excerpt shows Cantik’s use of the strategy to ask the speaker to give examples only applied to lecturers. This confirms previous findings of this study regarding students’ increased engagement in the classroom activities. Their reduced reluctance to ask the teacher to give examples also shows their closer relationship with the teacher. This supports the idea of ‘charismatic-bond’ between students and teacher as mentioned in sections 6.2 and 6.3 about their positive comments regarding their progress in learning English, one of which was due to their better communication with the teacher. On the one hand, the implementation of TBL for one semester in this class created a situation of lower power distance between

students and teacher, which is generally not expected to occur within a collectivist society like Indonesia (Hofstede et al., 2010). On the other hand, students' dependency on the teacher as the role model and learning resource is also prominent, showing their being less autonomous language learners. However, when this is what the students prefer for their learning to be more comfortable and to promote learning progress, such a situation should be accepted as effective. Reliance on teachers as mediating agents in learning shown by students in this study is consistent with Gao's (2006) finding about Chinese students' maintaining preference for this strategy after moving to Britain. When the main concern is learners' progress and success in language learning, forcing them to be totally autonomous is not desirable. Instead, translating the concept of learners' autonomy by allowing cultural realities provides a better solution. This is mentioned by Dardjowidjojo's (2001) in his suggestion to solve the problems of Indonesian cultural constraints in the implementation of learner autonomy.

Regarding the shift in use of the strategy of paying attention to the speaker's rhythm and intonation, quantitative findings showed a slight increase in use of this strategy. One point reported by a middle achiever, *Maulana*, regarding his increased use of this strategy, was that he paid attention to the rhythm and intonation of the high achievers and lecturers. It was not directed to friends of the same or lower level of English proficiency. Again, in this case, lecturers were regarded as good learning resources and examples. Maulana was aware that English rhythm and intonation is different from Indonesian language. Unlike Indonesian language, English words and statements have regular patterns of stresses and intonation as well as rhythm.

I think friends of the same or lower level do not have proper intonation; they have flat intonation. Maybe, their positive statement or order and questions are the same [the intonation]. However, lecturers have different intonation [for the two types of statements]. (Maulana, Md.)

Supporting Maulana's response, Sayang, a high achiever, also mentioned that paying attention to the speaker's rhythm and intonation was a good way of finding examples of good English rhythm and intonation. She referred to paying attention to the lecturers and the higher achievers' rhythm and intonation since her purpose was to improve her own English rhythm and intonation.

- | | |
|-------------|---|
| Interviewer | : Now you pay more attention to the speakers' rhythm and intonation? |
| Sayang (Hi) | : yes, I can take as examples. So, I can differentiate how to make interrogative statements or orders or other patterns. I think these have different intonation. |
| Interviewer | : So, do you take examples from any speakers no matter they are of higher or lower English proficiency? |
| Sayang (Hi) | : No. I pay attention to those of higher proficiency, and also the lecturers. We listen to the lecturers' spoken utterances. |

The above-mentioned findings are dominant in an English as a Foreign Language (EFL) setting, like in Indonesia, where the target language input is very limited (Chaudron, 1988) and exposure to the target language interaction is restricted to the classroom activities (Hall, 2002). In such a situation, teachers are an essential source of linguistic input (Tulung, 2004) and teacher-talk may serve as important input (Kennedy, 1996). Students of higher proficiency may also function as role model for the class. This finding supports the condition of students' being less autonomous in finding learning resources, as discussed in Chapter 6.

Although the low achievers did not show an increased use of this strategy, still, general tendency reveals students' higher use of this strategy. Students' increased attention to interlocutors' rhythm and intonation may also show their higher motivation to learn English. With limited exposure outside the classroom,

students were highly motivated to develop their English through learning from friends and teacher.

Quantitative findings show a significantly reduced use of the strategy of using circumlocution to react to the speaker's utterance when unable to understand his/her intention well. This significant reduction was apparent among the low achievers. Interviews with students supported the quantitative findings. When asked the reason for more frequently using circumlocution at the beginning of the semester, Mita, a high achiever, said that previously she more frequently used circumlocution because she did not have adequate vocabulary. Limited vocabulary made her lack self-confidence, and to cover this, she used circumlocution more frequently. Now, she tried not to use circumlocution, possibly due to her improved vocabulary and her higher self-confidence in speaking in English.

- | | |
|-------------|--|
| Interviewer | : Now you less frequently use circumlocution to react to the speaker when do not understand his/her intention well. Do you know why you used circumlocution? |
| Mita (Hi) | : yes, maybe because I had limited vocabulary, then this made me lack of confidence. |
| Interviewer | : So, because you had limited vocabulary, you were lack of confidence. Then, in order to cover your not understanding the speaker's utterances, you used circumlocution? |
| Mita (Hi) | : yes. Now I try not to use circumlocution although sometimes I still do it. But, it is not as frequent as I used to. |

Another response was given by Nuri, a low achiever, who said that she reduced using circumlocution due to her improved speaking skill. With her better speaking skill, she did not need to use circumlocution; instead, she tried to speak to the point and make listeners understand her utterances. This was also driven by her increased desire to have better mutual understanding during communication. This finding suggests that higher motivation to learn English and improved English skills

drove her to reduce using the negative strategy of using circumlocution to react to the speaker when unable to understand his/her utterances. By the end of the semester, Nuri gained not only linguistic but also motivational improvement.

Now, I have to understand the intention of the messages better. And because now I can speak English better, I'd rather focus on saying not too many words but making the listeners understand my intention. So, I don't use circumlocution, I prefer talking to the point. (Nuri, Lo)

It is evident that students' reduced use of circumlocution is due to their improved linguistic knowledge, especially their improved vocabulary and self-confidence. With the belief of improved vocabulary, which students consider as the main hindrance to the development of oral communication skills, students' gain higher self-esteem. Higher self-esteem boosts higher confidence level; this is consistent with what Lai (1994) identified in her study with English learners in Hong Kong about how self-esteem and confidence level are significantly correlated. Reduced use of negative strategies also shows students' more effective use of strategies, which may later result in better proficiency.

The reduced use of the strategy of paying attention to the speaker's pronunciation as found in the quantitative findings was supported by the findings from the interviews. This strategy was decreased at least by low achievers. Nuri, a low achiever, said that her main focus in learning English was on fluency and vocabulary improvement while pronunciation would come later. She claimed that, with her limited English skills, she would not be able to simultaneously focus on other major aspects of English learning. Therefore, she decided to focus on developing and improving fluency and vocabulary first. Her main intention at that stage was improving her fluency in oral communication in English. She said

Basically, first, I have to focus on having fluent English conversation in English. I need to memorize vocabulary and fluent in speaking. Pronunciation is still far because of my limited English skills. So, the main is I am fluent in speaking English. (Nuri, Lo)

The above findings show students' priority in learning English. For these students, especially the low achievers, improving oral communication skills starts from vocabulary enrichment. This is consistent with findings of a number of studies summarized by Scarcella and Oxford (1992). As also found by Hilton (2008), lexical competence is fundamental in second language spoken fluency, and, moreover, it is more useful than reliance on strategic training. Maintaining fluency for these students is more concerned with availability of sufficient lexicon, rather than focus on pronunciation. When viewed from the point of Levelt's (1989) speech production process, these students were at the formulation stage. To be more specific, they were at the stage of grammatical encoding to produce surface structure. They could not simultaneously pay attention to their pronunciation, which is at the stage of phonological encoding, which comes after the grammatical encoding stage.

In short, the above description of the findings regarding the shift in use of the fluency maintaining strategies can be narrowed into several noteworthy points. First, students' increased use of the strategy of asking the speaker to give examples when they were not sure of what he/she said and paying attention to the speaker's rhythm and intonation was due to the benefit of these two strategies. They applied these strategies in interaction with students of higher achievers and the lecturers. More specifically, students regarded the lecturer as a good resource of English learning. This reasoning might be commonly found in the context of English used as a foreign language where exposure to English is limited. Thus, lecturers are considered appropriate models. However, reduced use of the strategy of paying attention to the

speaker's pronunciation might be due to students' greater focus on oral fluency and vocabulary improvement. It was believed that pronunciation could come later after fluency. Finally, the significant reduced use of the strategy of using circumlocation was due to students' improved vocabulary, better speaking skills, and higher self-confidence. Their main reason for using circumlocation at the beginning of the semester might be because of their lower vocabulary that made them less-confident and, therefore, they tried to cover their limitations by using circumlocation.

9.2.3 Scanning strategies.

As presented in table 9.1, both the high and middle achievers did not change the frequency of using the strategy of scanning. However, the low achievers reduced using this strategy, using this strategy with a t-value of .762.

With the changes in the use of individual strategies within the category of scanning, as shown in Table 9.2, there were two increased and two reduced use of strategies. The increased use of strategies was that of paying attention to the first part of the sentence and guessing the speaker's intention and that of paying attention to the subject and verb of the sentence when listening. The reduced strategies were those of trying to catch the speaker's main point and paying attention to the interrogative when listening to WH-questions. The latter was significantly reduced.

Furthermore, as seen in Table 9.3, students made more increases than decreases. All of the three groups increasingly used the strategy of paying attention to the first part of the sentence and guessing the speaker's intention. Only the middle achievers reduced the use of the strategy of trying to catch the speaker's main point

while both the high and low achievers did not change the frequency of use. Next, all three groups reduced use of the strategy of paying attention to the interrogative when they listen to WH-questions. Finally, different shifts were found in the use of the strategy of paying attention to the subject and verb of the sentence when listening; the high achievers reduced the use while the middle achievers increased use and the low achievers did not change the frequency of use.

The qualitative findings presented in this subsection cover students' reasoning behind their reduced use of the strategy of paying attention to the interrogative when listening to WH-question and increased use of the strategy of paying attention to the subject and verb of the sentence when listening.

The significantly reduced use of the strategy of paying attention to the interrogative when listening to WH-question was discussed in the interviews with the students. Nuri, for example, said that this was due to her improved knowledge and skills. She was now more familiar with WH-questions and thus she did not need to pay special attention to this.

- | | |
|-------------|---|
| Interviewer | : Now you pay less attention to the use of WH-questions. Previously your point was 5. This refer to the use of what, who, where, why, who, how. Is it true? |
| Nuri (Lo) | : yes, this is because now I am familiar with it, so I don't really need to pay attention to it. |
| Interviewer | : So, you don't really pay attention to it because now you understand more? |
| Nuri (Lo) | : yes. |

In relation to the higher use of the strategy of paying attention to the subject and verb of the sentence when listening, *Maulana*, a middle achiever, said that by paying attention to the subject and verb of the sentence he was able to know the intention of the speaker as well as what he/she was talking about and why he/she was

talking about it. In his view, paying attention to the subject and verb of the sentence meant that he was paying attention to the whole sentences uttered by the speaker.

When the speaker is talking, I pay attention to his utterances. I pay attention to what he/she is going to say, what he/she is talking about, and why he/she is talking about it. In this way, I can understand what is being talked about. (*Maulana, Md*)

The shift in use of the strategies within the category of scanning strategies suggest that less attention paid to the use of WH-questions might be due to students' increased familiarity with the pattern so that their attention could be given to other aspects of the sentences. This finding supports Bialystok and Frohlich's (1980) finding that the higher the students' level of proficiency, the fewer problems they encounter and the fewer strategies they use. Poullisse's (1997) principle of clarity and economy during communication is also supported, requiring students to be clear and efficient. When clarity of the message is reached, then, minimum efforts are spent, in this case minimum effort in using the strategy. However, more attention was given to the use of subject and verb of the sentences because this would help students to really understand the intention of the speaker. Again, increased use of this strategy is consistent with Poullisse's (1997) principle of clarity and economy, stating that when students are to choose between being clear and saving effort, they prefer to put clarity first.

9.2.4 Getting the gist strategies.

Regarding the shift in use of the strategy of getting the gist, as shown in Table 9.1, the high achievers increased using this strategy while the middle achievers did not change the frequency and the low achievers slightly decreased using this strategy. The high achievers showed a t-value of -.126 whereas the low achievers showed a t-

value of .180. This finding suggests that the higher the students' levels of oral proficiency, the greater the use of the strategy of getting the gist.

Table 9.2 shows that the shift in use of individual strategies within the category of getting the gist was of two increases and two decreases. Students increased the use of strategies in trying to respond to the speaker even when they do not understand perfectly and in guessing the speaker's intention based on what he/she has said. However, students reduced the use of the strategy of not minding when they cannot understand every single detail and the strategy of anticipating what the speaker is going to say based on the context.

In using individual strategies within the strategy of getting the gist, as presented in table 9.3, the three groups show different patterns of shifts. While the high achievers did not change the frequency of using the strategy of trying to respond to the speaker even when they do not understand him/her perfectly, the middle achievers increased and the low achievers decreased their use of this strategy. Both the high and the middle achievers increased using the strategy of guessing the speaker's intention based on what she/he has said so far while the low achievers reduced the use of this strategy. While the low achievers did not change their use of the strategy of not minding if they cannot understand every single detail, the high and middle achievers decreased using this strategy. Finally, the high achievers did not change their use of anticipating what the speaker is going to say based on the context whereas the middle achievers decreased and the low achievers increased using this strategy.

Regarding students' shift in use of the strategy of trying to respond to the speaker even when unable to understand him/her perfectly, qualitative findings showed some increased as well as some reduced use of the strategy. Mita, a high achiever, described her increased use of this strategy. She applied this strategy to both lecturers and friends.

- Interviewer : Mita, now you more often try to respond to the speakers even though you do not really understand the speaker's utterances? It's from point 3 to point 4.
- Mita : Yes. I mean, the speakers here are not the lecturer; it also applies to friends.

Sayang, another high achiever, gave her reason for increasing use of this strategy. She said that the way she responded was by questioning the speaker about points of the messages of which she was unsure. This strategy was termed as "specific reprise" or "hypothesis testing" by Rost and Ross (1991) which Vandergrift (1997a) found to be more highly used by non-novice students. Further, Vandergrift (2003) also identified that more skilled listeners engage in more questioning elaboration, continuing asking questions about what they are hearing. Employment of these strategies allowed these students to be more involved in interactional listening activities, especially when they asked the clarification in the target language that can promote their conversational skills in the target language.

I respond by uhm... I respond by asking 'what do you mean?' That's what I mean. I respond by asking him/her back. (Sayang, Hi)

Responding to speakers also indicates students' higher motivation to be more actively engaged in a two-way communication, in which a response from the listener will create a link to a further phase of the communication. Perhaps increased use of this strategy, mostly by high and middle achievers, was due to students' improved

intimacy with friends and teacher, discussion of which is presented in section 6.1 and 6.2. That TBL was implemented in a situation where students' preference for being collectivist in their learning, teacher relinquishing his power, and students' high respect to teacher created a favourable classroom situation. In such a situation, when learning is tailored to suit students' affective needs, positive impact is revealed such as students' lower anxiety yet higher self-esteem, risk-taking behaviour and motivation, all of which affect progress in oral communication development (as also claimed by Brown, 2007; Oxford, 1990; Yule, 2010).

In contrast, some students reduced using the strategy of trying to respond to the speaker when unable to understand him/her perfectly. Not responding to the speaker, in this sense, did not necessarily mean being passive and inhibiting the flow of the communication. That they did not respond may mean they did not ask to the speaker to clarify or attempt to confirm the message conveyed by the speaker. Cantik, for example, a high achiever who reduced use of this strategy, mentioned that her main concern was to be able to grasp the intention of the speaker. Thus, when she did not really understand what the speaker has said but she could grasp the intention of the speaker, she would not respond or ask for a clarification. She said

Now if for example I don't really understand [the words] what the speaker has said , but I can catch his/her ..uhm... intention, I consider I understand. And that's alright for me. (Cantik, Hi)

A different response was raised by Baskoro, another high achiever. He said his reduced use of this strategy might be due to his limited listening skill. However this limitation was covered by his use of eye-contact to understand the speaker. In this light, he did not need to respond to the speaker when he did not really understand

the speaker perfectly because he believed he was already helped by the use of eye-contact. This finding shows the necessity of using gestures and eye-contact in communication.

- Interviewer : Now you don't really try to respond to the speaker when you do not understand him/her perfectly?
 Baskoro (Hi) : yes, this might be because of my poor listening skill, and I am helped already by the use of eye-contact.

However, in the case of students' reduced use of the strategy of trying to respond to the speaker due to students' linguistic limitation, preference to use non-verbal strategies was identified. This strategy is similar to what Vandergrift (1997a) terms "kinesics" strategies, in which listeners indicates their need for clarification by means of kinesics and paralinguistics. Use of this strategy most by middle and low achievers corroborates Vandergrift's (1997a) finding of novice level students' greater use of kinesics. This finding also shows students' improved strategic competence as a part of their communication competence (see Canale & Swain, 1980 for components of communication competence); non-verbal strategies are used to compensate for breakdown in communication due to insufficient competence. Such a finding of students' use of compensatory strategies also confirms their higher motivation to have oral communication which, in turn, functions as a way to improve their oral communication skills.

With regard to the use of the strategy of not minding if students did not understand every single detail of what the speaker has said, it was found that students increased using this strategy. One common response regarding the increased use of this strategy was that students were more concerned with the flow of the conversation and main idea delivered by the speaker. As long as the conversation

was not blocked and the main message was understood, not understanding every detail of the sentence was not a serious issue. Maulana, a middle achiever, put higher priority on the fluent flow of the conversation rather than understanding every detail of the conversation.

- Interviewer : Now you don't really mind if you don't really understand every detail?
So, it does not have to be the detail that you need to grasp?
- Maulana (Md) : yes, Mam, as long as I understand what the speaker has said. The main thing is the fluency of the conversation. It is essential that the conversation is fluent.

This reasoning was in line with Baskoro, a high achiever, who said that

the more important point is that I can grasp some of the message and from this part of the message I can understand the intention of the speaker.

This suggests that when students did not understand every detail of the conversation, this did not necessarily mean they did not understand the whole message. Students were able to grasp the main ideas without necessarily understanding every detail of the message. Perhaps, intention to know every single word heard may inhibit their listening comprehension, especially for those of lower achievement. This may corroborate with Chien and Li Wei's (1998) finding that EFL learners in Taiwan found a word-bound habit such as listening to each single word was inhibiting learners' understanding of the whole message. Focusing on single words during listening interaction has been found to be a strategy more favoured by less effective listeners (for example, O'Malley, Chamot, & Kupper, 1989; Vandergrift, 1997a). Thus, students' increased use of the strategy of not minding if they do not understand every single word shows progress in strategic competence, especially listening strategies.

Regarding the shift in use of the strategy of anticipating what the speaker was going to say based on the context, quantitative findings showed a lower use by the high and middle achievers but a higher use by the low achievers making a lower use in average. High and middle achievers' lower use of this strategy may be due to their improved linguistic knowledge which was discussed in Chapter 6, section 6.3. With better skills, they did not need to rely on anticipating what the speaker was going to say. This also shows that, toward the end of the semester, these students did not encounter as many problems as at the beginning of the semester; this confirms that encountering fewer problems means using fewer communication strategies (Bialystok & Frohlich, 1980).

In response to the question of how increased use of the strategy in anticipating what the speaker was going to say based on the context occurred, Nuri, a low achiever, said that she started with guessing the intention of the speaker and then confirmed her understanding of the message to the speaker. She now made more attempts to be able to guess what the speaker said based on the context, and she had more courage to confirm her understandings with the speaker.

Now, I do more guessing. Then, after that, I will ask back to the speaker whether my understanding of the message based on the context is correct. (Nuri, Lo)

Nuri's improved courage to confirm her understanding of the message with the speaker shows her improved courage in communication. This also reveals lower anxiety, higher risk-taking behaviour, and higher motivation to be engaged in the communication. She was not afraid of losing face. Such a situation may result from the implementation of TBL throughout the semester.

However, the raw score of students' use of the strategy of anticipating what the speaker is going to say based on the context, both at the beginning and end of semester (see Tables 7.8 and 7.10), shows high achiever's highest use of this strategy followed by the middle achievers and the low achievers positioned last. This finding may support O'Malley et al. (1989) with their finding that more effective listeners inferred the meanings of new words that were important for comprehension by using the context of the sentence or paragraph in which the unfamiliar word appeared. This is also similar to Goh's (2002) finding, suggesting students of high ability used the strategy of using contextual information more than those of lower ability. The low achievers' improved use of this strategy by the end of semester, then, shows their progress in listening strategy use, on the path of becoming more effective listeners. Reduced use of this strategy by the middle achievers may be due to their improved linguistic knowledge, suggesting that they did not anticipate the intention of the speaker based on the context as much as at the beginning of semester. However, findings still highlighted the higher the students' level of oral communication skills the higher their use of this strategy.

In summary, the shift in use of the strategies within the category of getting the gist may be explained in several ways. Students increased not minding if they could not understand every detail of what the speaker was saying because they could grasp the speaker's main intention. Their main concern was with the fluency of the conversation flow rather than on every single detail of the sentences, and students found grasping the main message was enough to maintain the flow of the communication. Furthermore, when students did not understand the speaker perfectly, some of them increased their attempt to respond to the speaker by asking

him/her for clarification. Other students reduced using the strategy of responding to the speaker when they did not understand him/her perfectly because they believed that if they were grasping the main message the communication could flow well. The use of eye-contact was found to be an effective assistance for students so that they did not need to ask the speaker for clarification. Finally, the increased use of the strategy of anticipating what the speaker was going to say might be done by guessing the message, then confirming it to the speaker. Increased use of the strategy of getting the gist shows improved strategic competence, which may result from the implementation of TBL throughout the semester.

9.2.5 Non-verbal strategies in listening.

As shown in Table 9.1, on average students increased using non-verbal strategies in listening. The increased use of non-verbal strategies in listening by the middle achievers was the highest, showing a t-value of -1.238. The low achievers showed an increase with a t-value of -.866 and the high achievers showed a t-value of -.552.

Table 9.2 shows students' increased use of two individual strategies belonging to the category of non-verbal strategies in listening. All groups of students (as shown in Table 9.3) increased the use of strategies of using gestures when having difficulties in understanding. Students also increased paying attention to the speaker's eye contact, facial expression and gestures. Table 9.3 shows that both the middle and low achievers increased using this strategy, but the high achievers reduced their use.

As reported during interviews, the use of gestures when having difficulties in understanding the speaker was found to be effective in helping students express themselves in oral English, therefore some students increased using this strategy. This was confirmed by Sayang, a high achiever, and Vera, a middle achiever, who said that by moving their hands, the speaker would understand when they had difficulties and this could bridge the gaps during oral communication.

This finding of increased use of gestures by all three groups of students may be contradictory to Vandergrift's (1997a) suggestions that kinesics were preferred by novice-level listeners. It could be that the majority of the students in the present study were within the novice-level proficiency. This is possible because determination of students' level of oral communication skills in this study was focused more on measuring their speaking skill rather than listening skills. Determination of students' oral communication skills was also based on an oral test conducted at the beginning of semester and on teacher-designated scoring from the previous semester. Another reason for increased use of this strategy may be related to students' learning style, task type, and task setting. As Rost and Ross (1991) suggest, listening strategy selection may be influenced by cognitive constraints, students' proficiency or linguistic knowledge, and social constraints, such as task type, text type, setting, and personal style. The use of gestures in communication is also believed to be culturally bound (see, for example, Graham & Argyle, 1975; Kellerman, 1992), suggesting individual differences in using gestures.

In contrast, one low achiever, Nuri, said that she reduced using gestures when having difficulties in understanding the speaker. This finding is contradicted by other

low achievers' increased use of this strategy. Previously, Nuri tended to use more gestures and made a balance between use of both spoken language and gestures. Now she preferred reducing her use of gestures because of her increased motivation to produce more utterances orally. Instead of using more gestures, Nuri wanted to focus more on producing oral English.

- Interviewer : Now you more rarely use gestures when you have difficulties understanding the speaker?
- Nuri (Lo) : Yes, this is because previously I used gestures and spoken language with the similar composition. Now, I want to emphasize on having more oral language rather than using gestures.

As can be seen in Chapter 6, students felt that they had increased communication skills. Nuri mentioned her improved oral communication skills as well as her vocabulary. Her belief in her improved oral communication skills and vocabulary may be the main factor that influences her selection of strategy, in this case to reduce using gestures. This was driven by her higher motivation to more actively participate in oral communication. In this sense, positive correlation between students' motivation and use of effective strategies was evident, providing further support for Vandergrift's (2005) finding, suggesting students with higher motivation use more metacognitive listening strategies. .

Quantitative findings revealed students' increased use of the strategy of paying attention to the speaker's eye contact, facial expression and gestures. One reason given from an interview in relation to the increased use of this strategy was that understanding the speaker's utterances was assisted by paying attention to the speaker's eye contact and looking at the speaker's facial expressions and gestures. In this way, it was easier to understand the speaker's intention while also paying attention to the speaker's eye contact, facial expression and gestures.

Interviewer : Do you now pay more attention to the speaker's eye contact, facial expression and gestures?

Maulana (Md) : Yes,

Interviewer : How important is it to pay attention to the speaker's eye contact, facial expression and gestures?

Maulana (Md) : Yes, I think, when the speaker talk and he can express [with eye contact, facial expression and gestures], it will be easier for us to understand what he/she is talking about.

Increased use of the strategy of paying attention to the speaker's eye contact shows students' better understanding of oral communication. That communication includes both verbal and non-verbal messages implies that students' increased attention to the speakers' eye contact shows their improved awareness of the importance of kinesics behaviour in real communication, as has been suggested by Kellerman (1992). The use of this strategy was found an assistance for students to complement the verbal communication, as also suggested by Gullberg (1998) who further mentioned the function of non-verbal strategies as a global communication enhancement for both speakers and listeners.

The findings regarding the shift in use of the non-verbal strategies discussed above suggest that students were now more aware of how oral communication could be conducted effectively. They increasingly used gestures when having difficulties understanding the speaker and paid more attention to the speaker's eye contact, facial expression and gestures in order that they could more easily understand the intention of the speaker. Students found that oral communication was not only an issue of understanding words spoken by the speaker. They were aware that there were verbal and non-verbal factors within the communication. Attempts to employ strategies related to both verbal and non-verbal factors improved their oral communication skills.

9.2.6 Less-active listener strategies.

All students revealed the same shifts in decreased use of being less-active listener strategies. This category was found significantly reduced. As shown in Table 9.1, findings suggested that the higher the students' level of oral proficiency the greater their shift in decreased use of this strategy.

Table 9.2 shows that most of the shifts in use of individual strategies within the category of less-active listener were decreases. Only the high achievers increased the use of the strategy of trying to translate into native language little by little to understand what the speaker has said; both the middle and low achievers decreased use of this strategy. All the three groups decreased using the strategy of only focusing on familiar expressions. In general, these shifts suggest decreased use of strategies within this negative strategy.

As shown in Table 9.3, most students of different groups show reduced use of the strategy of trying to translate into native language little by little to understand what the speaker has said and only focusing on familiar expressions. The middle achievers significantly reduced using the strategy of trying to translate into native language little by little while the high achievers significantly reduced using the strategy of only focusing on familiar expressions. However, one different finding was found regarding the high achievers' slight increased use of the translating little by little into native language. When viewed in Table 7.8 and 7.10 presenting the raw score of the use of individual listening strategies at the beginning and end of semester, a reduced value is noticed. Unpaired values were excluded, making an

increase in the difference (t-score). This unusual situation could be due to the fewer number of paired samples calculated during the quantitative analysis. Thus, discussion of the qualitative findings in the following presents reasons for reduced use of this strategy.

Qualitative findings regarding the shift in use of the strategies of being less-active listeners are presented. These qualitative findings support the quantitative findings, suggesting reduced use of the strategies.

The reduced use of the strategy of trying to translate into native language little by little in order to understand what the speaker has said as found in the interviews was in line with the quantitative findings. This strategy was found to be significantly reduced in use by the middle achievers. Findings from the interviews revealed students' reasons for the reduced use of this strategy. First, students believed they were more prepared to conduct the oral communication tasks in class because they were prepared with the vocabulary for the topics to be discussed. With the vocabulary prepared from home, they could more easily understand utterances of the speaker.

- | | |
|-------------|---|
| Interviewer | : Do you now more rarely try to translate into Indonesian language little by little what has been said by the speaker? Previously [at the beginning of the semester] you put point 5. |
| Sayang (Hi) | : Not word by word |
| Interviewer | : Okay ... |
| Sayang (Hi) | : I mean, I can try to ask others [friends]. |
| Interviewer | : Now you more seldom translate [into Indonesian language]? When you understand, then you do not need to translate? |
| Sayang (Hi) | : Yes, I think now I seldom translate into Indonesian language because I can understand better. |
| Interviewer | : Okay ... |

Sayang (Hi) : So, before I talk [doing the oral communication tasks in class], we know the topic to be discussed. So, at home I can prepare the vocabulary items for that topic.

Another reason was given by Nuri, a low achiever, who claimed that her reduced translation into Indonesian language was because of both the increased conversation practice she had in the class and her improved vocabulary. She admitted that, at the beginning of the semester, she translated into Indonesian language little by little when she did not really understand what the speaker had said. Now, at the end of the semester, more practice made her accustomed to having conversation in English. She became more aware of how to express herself in spoken English, especially in regard to what vocabulary items she needed to use to convey certain expressions. In this way, her vocabulary improved.

Interviewer : Do you now more rarely translate into Indonesian language little by little in understanding what has been said by the speaker? Previously [at the beginning of the semester] you put point 5 and now you put point 3.

Nuri (Lo) : Yes. This is because now in class we use more English so that I improve my vocabulary and I know better how to say it in English. So, speaking in English is a matter of habit. It is not like I used to be; I used to think longer in Indonesian language before I said it in English. In short, now I reduce translating from English into Indonesian language.

The above finding regarding reduced use of translating into native language shows students' improved strategic competence since translation has been identified as a less effective listening strategy during communication that is usually favoured by less successful listeners (see, for example, Vandergrift, 1997a; Vandergrift, 2003). This may imply that after the implementation of TBL throughout one semester, students reduced using translation strategy, having more effective strategic behaviour and becoming more skilful listeners in conducting oral communication.

The shift in use of the second individual strategy within the category of less-active listener, which is focusing on familiar expressions, was found to be reduced at the end of the semester. Qualitative findings from interviews revealed the reasons behind this reduction. First, students reduced focusing only on familiar expressions in order to improve their vocabulary. Paying attention to new expressions or words used by the speakers, who could be either friends or the teacher, was one way to improve students' vocabulary. The teacher's use of new expressions in his/her spoken English was considered a good resource for student learning.

- Interviewer : Cantik, now you more rarely focus on the expressions you often hear? It was point 3 and now point 2. Are paying more attention to expressions you never heard before?
- Cantik (Hi) : I think I frequently pay attention to expressions I seldom heard.
- Interviewer : So, now you pay more attention to expressions you seldom heard. Is it with your friends or the teacher?
- Cantik (Hi) : I think both. Maybe I pay more attention to the teacher because usually my friends use common words while teacher use different [new] words.
- Interviewer : uhm ... okay. Do you expect to improve your vocabulary?
- Cantik (Hi) : yes.

Paying attention to new words or expressions was considered one way to upgrade the level of vocabulary mastery. Dictionaries and friends were resources used in order to determine the meaning of new expressions found in the speaker's utterances. With these newly learned words or expressions, new patterns or combinations of sentences were constructed. This was said by Mita, a high achiever. She further added that consulting a dictionary was more helpful than asking friends when she needed to find the meaning of new words or expressions.

- Interviewer : Why do you now not really focus on the familiar expressions you usually hear?
- Mita (Hi) : Words or expressions I usually hear is, in my opinion, are of lower level of vocabulary.
- Interviewer : So, now you also focus on expressions not familiar to you?

- Mita (Hi) : Yes, this is what I do now. The sentences [spoken by the speaker] could be those with new expressions, and how I try to understand it, is by checking with the dictionary. I bring the dictionary with me. This is how I try [learn]. This is in order that my sentences are not those very common; therefore, I check with dictionary.
- Interviewer : So, does it help to improve your vocabulary?
- Mita (Hi) : yes, yes. Sometimes I also ask friends. But, friends usually also don't understand. Therefore, I prefer checking with dictionary.

Paying attention to new words or expressions used by the speaker and repeatedly doing this to find the same new words or expressions helped Maulana, a middle achiever, to improve his vocabulary and retain it longer in his memory. He believed that frequent practice in paying attention to the use of new words and expressions by confirming the meaning of these new words with other people would help him improve his vocabulary and later improve his English oral communication skills. He said he could use the newly learned expressions in his own spoken utterances. In short, he found an advantage in reducing the use of the strategy of only focusing on familiar expressions and paying more attention to new words or expressions.

- Interviewer : *Maulana*, now you more rarely focus on the familiar expressions you usually hear? So, now you start focusing on expressions you rarely heard?
- Maulana* (Md) : Yes, Mam. When I find sentences [expressions] I do not really understand, the new ones, the ones I never knew before, I will ask.
- Interviewer : Do you find it advantageous to pay attention to new expressions?
- Maulana* (Md) : Yes, it can improve my vocabulary. Then, when I find a new expression used by a speaker in a conversation and it is used again in another conversation, this will be a reminder for me and I will be easily identify the new expression. Also, I can use it in my own utterances.

Reduced use of the strategy of focusing only on familiar expressions shows students' higher motivation to improve oral communication skills, including linguistic knowledge and strategic competence. This is consistent with previous studies showing the relationship between high motivation and effective strategic

behaviour (for example, Ghavamnia et al., 2011; Mochizuki, 1999; Vandergrift, 2005).

In summary, reduced use of the strategies within the category of being less-active listener was confirmed for a number of reasons. First, students reduced focusing only on familiar expressions in order to improve their vocabulary. They paid more attention to the use of new words or expressions by the speaker. Finding new expressions, students asked their friends or teacher or used a dictionary to confirm the meaning. Paying attention to the use of new expressions more frequently also helped students identify the use of the expressions in utterances and later use these expressions in their own utterances. Second, students reduced using the strategy of trying to translate into native language little by little because of their improved vocabulary and more speaking practice during the classroom activities. At the beginning of the semester, students taking longer in understanding the speaker's utterances was thought to be the result of the process of translating into Indonesian language. Now, with more practice in conversation in the classroom, students' improved vocabulary and their increased efforts at equipping themselves with vocabulary to be discussed in the classroom, the process of translating into native language was reduced.

9.2.7 Word-oriented strategies.

As presented in Table 9.1, both the middle and the low achievers showed decreased use of the word-oriented strategy while only the high achievers increased the use of this strategy. The low achievers showed a very large decrease in using this

strategy with a t-value of 1.750 while the middle achievers showed a decrease with a t-value of .244.

Regarding the shift in use of individual strategies within the category of word-oriented, as presented in Table 9.2, there was one unchanged, one increased, and two decreased use of individual strategies. Students did not change their frequency in using the strategy of paying attention to the first word to judge whether it is an interrogative sentence. They increased the use of the strategy of paying attention to the words which the speaker slows down or emphasizes, but they reduced the use of the strategies of trying to catch every word that the speaker use and guessing the speaker's intention by picking up familiar words.

As shown in Table 9.3 presenting comparison of shifts in use of individual strategies within the category of word-oriented between students of different achievements, decreases outnumbered increases. While the high achievers increased paying attention to the first word to judge whether a sentence is an interrogative, the middle achievers did not change the frequency and the low achievers decreased using this strategy. All three groups reduced using the strategy of trying to catch every word the speaker used with the low achievers showing the largest decrease. Only the middle achievers decreased guessing the speaker's intention by picking up familiar words whereas both the high and low achievers did not change the frequency of using this strategy. Finally, both the high and middle achievers increased paying attention to the words which the speaker slows down or emphasizes while the low achievers decreased using this strategy.

Qualitative findings presented in this subsection describe the shift in use of two individual strategies, namely trying to catch every word that the speaker uses and paying attention to words which the speaker slows down or emphasizes.

Regarding the shift in use of the strategy of trying to catch every word that the speaker used, quantitative findings revealed significantly reduced use of this strategy for all students. From the interviews, one middle achiever, *Maulana*, said that with the purpose of getting the main intention of the speaker, he did not need to attempt to catch every word the speaker said. Thus, he reduced using this strategy. Responding to the question of why he reduced using this strategy, *Maulana* said:

This is because I prefer to get to the point of the conversation, what is the main intention of the conversation. So, I tend to get the main point. (*Maulana*, Md)

This finding was in line with the qualitative findings of the reduced use of the strategy of not minding if unable to understand every single detail the speaker had said, which falls within the category of getting the gist. Findings regarding the reduced use of both strategies confirmed that students were more concerned with getting the main point of the conversation without necessarily paying attention to every single detail and word the speaker had said. This may show students' more effective use of listening strategies since previous studies reveal that less successful listeners rely much on word-by-word basis (for example, Murphy, April, 1985; O'Malley et al., 1989; Young, 1996, 1997). Further, Goh (1998) found possible reason for less use of this strategy by successful listeners was that they have high willingness to keep on listening and are not distracted by unfamiliar words.

The second individual strategy which is paying attention to words which the speaker slowed down or emphasized was shown as increased in the quantitative findings. From the interviews, it was found that students' increased use of this strategy was because they believed that slowed down or emphasized words were prominent parts of the utterance conveying the main message. These words were the essentials without which students would not be able to understand the message delivered by the speaker.

Usually words that are slowed down or emphasized are important words. Therefore, I have to pay attention to these words. (Cantik, Hi)

Usually, words that are emphasized, letters that are emphasized, are the main points; they are usually the essentials. (Maulana, Md)

This finding revealed that students were now aware of the clues to understand utterances spoken by the speaker, one of which was paying attention to the slowed down or emphasized words. This shows students' progress in their strategic competence in interactive listening. Students' higher awareness of being more selective in listening suggests evidence in support of previous studies (Chamot & Kupper, 1989; Vandergrift, 1997b) that having selective attention is one significant factor distinguishing successful from less successful listeners.

The qualitative findings related to the shift in use of strategies within the word-oriented category as stated above show how students determined their understanding of the importance of the words used by the speaker. First, in understanding spoken utterances, students did not try to catch every word the speaker had said. This was because they felt that not every single word was needed in order to understand the main message the speaker was trying to deliver. Attempts to catch the main intention of the speaker could be efficiently done without necessarily

catching every single word the speaker used. However, students found that they needed to pay more attention to slowed down or emphasized words. These words were considered to be essentials in delivering the speaker's main intention. Missing these words would mean missing the main message the speaker was trying to deliver. These findings basically show students' improved strategic behaviour in interactive listening, being more selective in giving attention to oral speech and showing higher use of metacognitive strategies which are believed to be effectively employed by successful listeners.

9.3 Summary

Analysis of the data and discussion in this chapter reveals some interesting findings regarding the shift in use of oral communication strategies for coping with listening problems. First, students across different levels of oral proficiency reduced the use of these strategies. However, deeper analysis of data for each group reveals that the high achievers tended to increase the use of positive strategies and reduce the use of negative strategies whereas the middle and low achievers showed more decreases in the use of both positive and negative strategies. Furthermore, all students shared the same experience in increasing the use of strategies for negotiation for meaning while listening and non-verbal strategies in listening but reduced the use of strategies of fluency maintaining and being less-active listener. Finally, there was one significant change in the reduced use of being less-active listener which belongs to the category of negative strategy.

Concerning the shift in use of individual strategies for coping with listening problems, different patterns of findings were shown by the three groups of students.

First, in general, the shifts showed decreased use of negative individual strategies as well as both increased and decreased use of positive strategies. Second, there were five significant changes in the use of individual strategies for coping with listening problems. All of these significant changes were in the use of positive strategies.

Third, in terms of the number of significant changes in the use of individual strategies, findings show that the high achievers' significant changes outnumbered those of the other two groups. Finally, the category with the largest number of significant changes was that of negotiation for meaning while listening in which the high achievers made two significant changes and the middle achievers made one significant change.

Deeper analysis of the findings suggests that, toward the end of semester, after the implementation of TBL throughout the semester, students improved their strategic behaviour in interactive listening. First, students' increased use of the strategies of negotiation for meaning may mainly result from their higher motivation to be more engaged in oral communication and to improve English skills. As students feel a closer relationship with their friends, they are not reluctant to ask the speakers to use easier words, to ask for repetition, or to ask for clarification. The first strategy is more commonly used by students of lower oral communication skills. Second, in using fluency oriented strategies, students' increased use of the strategies of paying attention to speakers' intonation and rhythm as well as pronunciation of the teacher or friends of higher level of oral communication skills shows their higher motivation to improve English skills and learn from others. Reduced use of circumlocution results from improved linguistic competence and increased self-esteem. Reduced use of the strategy of paying attention to speakers' pronunciation

may be due to the trade-off between attention given to vocabulary and pronunciation while priority is given to vocabulary. Limited linguistic knowledge determines students' selection of strategies. Third, with regard to the shift in use of scanning strategies, students' increased use of strategies to get the main point of the message shows improved strategic behaviour since this strategy is believed to be employed effectively by successful listeners. Students' reduced attention to interrogatives shows their improved linguistic knowledge as well as selective attention in listening. Again, linguistic knowledge is evident as the underlying reason for selection of strategies. Students' increased use of strategies of paying attention to the subject and verb of the sentence is important to grasp the main idea of the sentence. Fourth, dealing with the shift in use of getting the gist strategies, linguistic knowledge and higher motivation reasons were evident. Improved linguistic knowledge results in reduced attempts to respond to the speaker when unable to understand the speakers' utterances while higher motivation to maintain two-way communication results in increased use of this strategy. Reduced use of this strategy due to limited linguistic knowledge results in students' use of non-verbal strategies. Students' increased not minding if they do not understand every single detail of what the speaker says shows their being more selective in selecting strategies, a strategy favoured by more successful listeners. Fifth, students' increased use of non-verbal strategies in paying attention to gestures and eye-contact while listening indicates higher awareness of mutual understanding in oral communication, which consists of not only verbal but also non-verbal messages. Sixth, significant reduced use of less-active listeners strategies suggest students' improved strategic behaviour. Reduced use of strategies of both trying to translate into native language and focusing only on familiar

expressions is due to students' improved linguistic knowledge and higher motivation in conducting oral communication. Finally, with regard to the shift in use of word-oriented strategies, students have better understanding of the importance of words used by the speakers, being more selective in determining when to focus on words. Not necessarily catching every word the speaker says, paying more attention to words slowed down by the speaker, and increasingly guessing the speaker's intention by picking up familiar words are approaches commonly believed to be favoured by successful listeners.

In summary, toward the end of semester, after the implementation of TBL throughout the semester, students' use of listening strategies in oral communication activities were found more effective. They were more selective in using the strategies, using more cognitive and metacognitive strategies as well as reducing negative strategies commonly favoured by less effective listeners.

CHAPTER 10

THE CONCLUSION

I present this chapter to respond to my initial interest in how communication strategies were interconnected with, and influenced by, TBL. This is concerned with the main purpose of the study which was to analyse non-English department students' use of oral communication strategies in a Task-Based Learning (TBL) program. A summary of findings is presented, followed by the implications of the study and ends with recommendations and suggestions for further research.

10.1 Summary of Findings

A summary of findings is presented to respond to research questions (RQ); therefore, this section summarizes the points in the order of research questions.

To respond to RQ-1, I presented Chapter Six about students' responses toward the implementation of TBL. In general, students were happy with the implementation of TBL throughout the semester. They felt they had more courage to use English, and this was due to several factors. First, students were happy to be provided with more opportunities to use English for oral communication in class. Moreover, students mentioned they liked the teaching materials which they found to be interesting and challenging. Second, the more relaxed nature of the classroom enabled students to have a closer relationship with friends so that they did not feel tense about producing oral English, lowering their level of anxiety and inhibition toward using English. The teacher relinquishing his power also created a more

harmonious relationship with the students. Combined with students regarding the teacher as a role model and giving high respect to the teacher, these positive behaviours from both students and teacher created a charismatic-bond between them. This situation was found to be supportive for students in increasing their courage and willingness to use English and improve their oral communication skills.

Students mentioned several linguistic and non-linguistic problems encountered during the implementation of TBL. Linguistic problems reported by students resulted from their limited vocabulary, which later caused difficulty in arranging words into correct sentences and their inability to express themselves in English. These problems were reported frequently at the beginning of the semester and reported as being greatly reduced by the end of semester, especially by high and middle achievers. To cope with these problems, students reported using several strategies, namely reading English texts, improving vocabulary, translating from Bahasa Indonesia to English or vice versa, writing sentences before oral communication practice, practicing more, and improving grammar mastery.

Non-linguistic problems students encountered during the semester included their belief that their English skills were poor and their low self-confidence in speaking English, which may be due to their low self-esteem. Students reported employing several strategies to solve these problems, namely improving self-confidence in performing oral communication tasks and asking for help from a friend or the teacher. Students found their tendency to be collectivist in learning, in which group work was preferred to individual work and appealing for assistance to friend and teacher, was preferred to being independent in solving problems. These less

autonomous strategies helped students improve their self-confidence enabling them to be involved in oral communication activities.

By the end of the semester, students reported, in general, their oral communication skills had improved. This improvement covered both linguistic and non-linguistic aspects of language use. One obvious linguistic improvement, as the students reported, was increased vocabulary, including the pronunciation of new terms. Students also reported increased self-confidence and social skills.

RQ-2 was answered through the elaboration of students' profile of oral communication strategies use as presented in Chapter Seven, highlighting some outstanding findings. First, in general, I found that students of higher levels of oral communication skills used more oral communication strategies and used them more frequently. Second, after one semester implementation of TBL, students showed a more balanced use of strategies for coping with speaking and listening problems. This showed students' improved strategic competence, considering that at the beginning of the semester students reported higher use of listening strategies than speaking strategies. Third, findings showed that the higher the level of students' oral communication skills, the more they used positive strategies. Students of lower proficiency used negative strategies more frequently than those of higher proficiency. Fourth, among the oral communication strategies for coping with speaking problems, the social affective strategy was the most favoured. Students' choice of social strategies was further evidence of students' preference for being collectivist in learning, as reported in Chapter 6. Previous studies also revealed social strategies as favourite among Asian students. Interestingly, only the high achievers showed a

reduced use of social affective strategies. This may show that affective strategies are helpful when learners are anxious or when they need a motivational boost.

To respond to RQ-3, I refer to elaboration presented in Chapter 8, concerning shift in use of strategies for coping with speaking problems, and Chapter 9, concerning shift in use of strategies for coping with listening problems. In general, findings show a more balanced use of speaking and listening strategies during oral communication tasks. Regarding the shift in use of speaking strategies, several noteworthy findings were evident. After one semester implementation of TBL, students' use of positive strategies was increased while their use of negative strategies was reduced. All students of different oral proficiency levels increased using both the strategy of negotiation for meaning while speaking and non-verbal strategies in speaking. Significant changes were found in the increased use of non-verbal strategies and reduced use of message reduction and alteration strategy by the high and middle achievers.

Reasons for, and possible causes of, the shift in use of speaking strategies are presented as further outstanding findings. These were closely related to students' responses toward the implementation of TBL. First, for most students, improving vocabulary was the first priority. Improved vocabulary plus more practice in oral communication positively impacted on development of oral communication skills as well as on the use of strategies. Second, toward the end of the semester, most students reported increased self-esteem, higher risk-taking behaviour, lower anxiety, and higher degree of motivation. Change in these affective factors was found to be the reason for students' shift in using strategies. Finally, I found cultural issues within

the implementation of TBL needed to be taken into account. Students' preference for being collectivist in their learning was dominant. This was shown in students' preference to work in groups as well as high trust in friends demonstrated in appeal for assistance from friends of higher proficiency as role model. Furthermore, a charismatic bond between students and teacher was also found dominant. Teacher's relinquishing his power combined with students according high respect to teacher and students regarding teacher as role model were found to be a harmonious condition for language learning to effectively occur. These cultural realities were a deviation from the notion of students as autonomous learners that TBL should be promoting. However, I believe, rather than forcing the principle of learner autonomy, accepting such cultural realities was not problematic in the effective implementation of TBL.

Regarding the shift in use of strategies for coping with listening problems, in general, findings show that the high achievers tended to increase the use of positive strategies and reduce the use of negative strategies whereas the middle and low achievers showed more decreases in the use of both positive and negative strategies. After one-semester implementation of TBL, students improved their strategic behaviour in interactive listening, being more selective in using the strategies by using more cognitive and metacognitive strategies and reducing the use of negative strategies. Findings are as follows. First, students' increased use of the strategies of negotiation for meaning resulted from their higher motivation to be more engaged in oral communication and to improve their English skills. Second, reduced use of circumlocution resulted from improved linguistic competence and increased self-esteem. However, reduced use of the strategy of paying attention to speakers'

pronunciation may be due to the trade-off between attention given to vocabulary and pronunciation while priority was given to vocabulary. Third, students' increased use of strategies to get the main point of the message showed improved strategic behaviour since this strategy is believed to be employed effectively by successful listeners. Fourth, improved linguistic knowledge resulted in reduced attempts to respond to the speaker when unable to understand the speakers' utterances while higher motivation to maintain two-way communication resulted in increased use of this strategy. Fifth, students' increased use of non-verbal strategies in paying attention to gestures and eye-contact while listening indicated higher awareness of mutual understanding in oral communication, which consists not only verbal but also non-verbal messages. Sixth, reduced use of strategies of both trying to translate into native language and focusing only on familiar expressions was due to students' improved linguistic knowledge and higher motivation in conducting oral communication. Finally, students had better understanding of the importance of words used by the speakers, being more selective in determining when to focus on words and not necessarily trying to catch every word the speaker said. In short, after one-semester implementation of TBL, students' improved linguistic competence, higher motivation to learn English, higher self-confidence, and higher self-esteem influenced their choice and use of listening strategies.

10.2 Implications of the Study

Students' positive responses toward the implementation of TBL throughout one semester lead to a number of implications. First, that students liked the teaching materials was evident. Reasons reported were that the materials were interesting,

real-life related or familiar, and challenging but not too difficult. Such materials stimulated students' interest and engagement in the teaching and learning process. This implies the need to regularly review the teaching materials, and in turn, the syllabus as well as the curriculum. Combined with the data gathered from the needs analysis from end-users and the national curriculum determined by the Ministry of National Education of Indonesia, the idea of designing and developing materials by the teachers themselves is encouraged. This is important, considering that it is the teachers who best know what their students prefer. Therefore, professional development or in-service training in the area of materials development is essential, and thus, recommended.

Another important finding of this study suggests that, for an EFL speaking class to be effective, a comfortable classroom situation should be maintained. The classroom situation should be made interactive and relaxed, involving students in group conversation and discussion. In this sense, students' relationship with interlocutors, including classmates and teacher, should be close. Such situations enable students to build trust in others, reduce anxiety while having conversations, increase risk-taking behaviour, and increase self-confidence and self-esteem. Classroom situations should avoid high power distance, high social distance, and high degree of imposition among students and between them and interlocutors. It is the teacher who can create a comfortable classroom situation; thus, professional development or in-service training regarding how to create a comfortable classroom situation is also important.

Challenges encountered during one-semester implementation of TBL were reported as including linguistic and non-linguistic problems. Linguistic problems resulted from students' low vocabulary. This implies the need to modify the emphasis of English teaching and learning, focusing more on the development and improvement of vocabulary. Enrichment in vocabulary can be done implicitly and/or explicitly, integratively taught with other skills (reading, listening, speaking, and writing). Non-linguistic hindrances reported by the participants included low self-esteem, low self-confidence, high anxiety and low risk-taking behaviour. This implies the need for teacher to take into account students' individual differences, in terms of their psycholinguistic aspects. To do this, teachers are encouraged to build a closer relationship with the students which can be realized through creating comfortable classroom situations and taking a personal approach with students, reducing the distance between the teacher and the students.

Findings of this study show successful implementation of TBL which was adjusted to contextual realities, namely collectivist-oriented learning and charismatic bond between students and teacher. Despite students' being less autonomous in learning, such a teaching approach was found effective in improving students' oral communication skills. This suggests that implementation of TBL needs to be suited to the context where learning occurs, as suggested by several authors (eg., Adams & Newton, 2009; Burrows, 2008). Furthermore, considering the importance of the teacher relinquishing his power while teaching a foreign language, I suggest the need for in-service training for teachers to be able to fully implement TBL which is appropriately contextualized.

After one-semester implementation of TBL, students improved strategic behaviour, increasing use of positive strategies, reducing use of negative strategies, and being more selective in choosing certain strategies needs to be taken into account, and is clearly related to students' improved oral communication skills. This confirms the positive correlation between strategic competence and communicative competence, that improved strategic competence supports the development of communicative competence and that improved communicative competence includes improved strategic competence. Thus, providing explicit training in effective use of learning strategies or communication strategies may help students improve communication skills. This implies the need of strategy training to be provided in the State Polytechnic of Malang, and in tertiary education in Indonesia, in general.

I found the Learning Journal (LJ) that students regularly wrote was an effective way of providing information about students' process of learning English. Through LJ writing, students became aware of their learning process and progress as well as hindrances and strategies. From LJ, a teacher could also evaluate and assess his/her teaching progress. Both students and teacher could reflect on their teaching and learning activities. This implies that the use of LJ can function as reflective practice, which should be done regularly.

10.3 Recommendations for Future Research

Conducting this study, I was aware of strengths and limitations that need to be taken into account and anticipated for future research.

I was very happy with the mixed- methods I chose for the design of this study. This design enabled me to clearly see how students employed oral communication strategies from both quantitative and qualitative perspectives. Using both quantitative and qualitative measurement enabled me to get the picture of students' use and choice of communication strategies as well as to dig more deeply into the reasons for or causes of students' choice of strategies. The multi-methods of data collection also ensured the validity and reliability of the data gathered. The combination of inventory, LJ and videotaped classroom activities provided very rich data that enabled me to more fully understand students' use of communication strategies from different angles. In completing the inventory, participants are closely guided to identify their use of communication strategies, strategies which they might not be aware of as being strategies. LJ provided more general and real information regarding strategies that students were aware of using and choosing to use. From videotaped classroom activities, I could double-check what had been reported in the inventory and LJ. Thus, a mixed-methods research plus multi-methods data gathering are suggested for further research.

I believe that the most interesting and challenging data that I collected were videotaped classroom activities. Through these data I could observe real communication between students conversing, discussing, and sometimes debating in classroom discourse. I could see how students tried to understand interlocutors' expressions, how they encountered problems, and how they employed certain strategies to maintain the flow of the communication and to finally end the conversation. For further research, I recommend using videotaped classroom activities analysed more deeply employing a more general taxonomy of

communication strategies, such as the one suggested by Poullisse (1987), through which a fuller explanation of communication strategies can be provided.

The number of participants in this study did not allow me to conduct factor analysis of the Oral Communication Strategy Inventory (OCSI). I made a very careful decision to choose OCSI as the instrument to collect quantitative data. I chose this inventory due to the transferability of the validity of the instrument which was developed with 400 participants of EFL students in non-English department in Japan, and I presumed that these participants shared many similarities with the participants of the present study. However, I strongly suggest applying factor analysis in order to confirm the validity of the instrument to be implemented with different participants. Different backgrounds attached to research participants may entail different results.

OCSI is an oral communication strategy inventory developed in the context of EFL students in Japan. This inventory was designed and developed very carefully. Considering the contextual influence as well as the role of students' individual differences on the use and choice of oral communication strategies, I suggest the development of another oral communication strategy inventory with Indonesia student participants. This inventory should also be measured for reliability and validity as applied to OCSI.

Participants of the present study were from one tertiary education in Indonesia. Therefore, it is not prudent to conclude that the results of the present study are generalizable to all universities in Indonesia. However, there is the possibility to

expand findings and results of this study to other universities within a similar context.

To end, I encourage replication studies as well as research exploring and investigating use and choice of communication strategies in EFL, analysed using a different perspective, such as a sociolinguistic approach.

REFERENCES

- Adams, R., & Newton, J. (2009). TBLT in Asia: Constraints and opportunities. *Asian Journal of English Language Teaching*, 19, 1-17.
- Ahmed, M. K. (1996). Teaching oral communication skills in academic settings: A case study in task-based approach to syllabus design. *Working Papers*, 7.
- Aida, Y. (1994). Examination of Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope's construct of foreign language anxiety: The case of students of Japanese. *Modern Language Journal*, 78(2), 155.
- Andres, V. d. (1999). Self-esteem in the classroom or the metamorphosis of butterflies. In J. Arnold (Ed.), *Affect in language learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Annette Vincent, D. R. P. t. d. l. s., personality types and multiple intelligences online. The Learning Organization, 8(1), 36-43. Retrieved March 17, 2011, from ABI/INFORM Global. (Document ID: 119045908).
- Arnold, J. (1999). *Affect in language learning*. Cambridge, U.K. ; New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.
- Aston, G. (1993). Notes on the interlanguage of comity. In G. Kasper & S. Blum-Kulka (Eds.), *Interlanguage pragmatics* (pp. 224-250). New York: Oxford University Press.
- Awan, R., Azher, M., Anwar, M., & Naz, A. (2010). An investigation of foreign language classroom anxiety and its relationship with students' achievement. *Journal of College Teaching and Learning*, 7(11), 33.
- Bedell, D. A., & Oxford, R. (1996). Cross-cultural comparisons of language learning strategies in the Republic of China and other countries. In R. L. Oxford (Ed.),

- Language learning strategies around the world: Cross-cultural perspectives.*
Manoa: University of Hawai'i Press.
- Beebe, L. (1983). Risk taking and the language learner. In H. W. Seliger & M. Long (Eds.), *Classroom Oriented Research in Second Language Acquisition* (pp. 39-65). Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- Bell, T. (1998). Extensive reading: Why? and How? *The Internet TESL Journal*, IV(12).
- Bernaus, M., & Gardner, R. C. (2008). Teacher motivation strategies, student perceptions, student motivation, and English achievement. *The Modern Language Journal*, 92(3), 387-401. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-4781.2008.00753.x
- Bialystok, E. (1981). The role of conscious strategies in second language proficiency. *The Modern Language Journal*, 65(1), 24-35.
- Bialystok, E. (1983). Some factors in the selection and implementation of communication strategies. In C. Faerch & G. Kasper (Eds.), *Strategies in interlanguage communication* (pp. 100-118). New York: Longman.
- Bialystok, E. (1990). *Communication strategies: A psychological analysis of second-language use*. Oxford, UK ; Cambridge, Mass., USA: B. Blackwell.
- Bialystok, E., & Frohlich, M. (1980). Oral communication strategies for lexical difficulties. *Interlanguage Studies Bulletin*, 5(1), 3-30.
- Bialystok, E., & Kellerman, E. (1987). Language strategies in the classroom. In B. K. Das (Ed.), *Communication and learning in the classroom community* (pp. 160-190). Singapore: SEAMEO Regional Language Centre.
- Bloor, M., & Wood, F. (2006). *Keywords in qualitative methods: A vocabulary of research concepts*. London; Thousand Oaks, Calif.: SAGE Publications.

- Bogdan, R., & Biklen, S. K. (2007). *Qualitative research for education: An introduction to theories and methods* (5th ed.). Boston, Mass.: Pearson A & B.
- Bradford, A. (2007). Motivational orientations in under-researched FLL contexts: Findings from Indonesia. *RELC Journal*, 38(3), 302-323. doi: 10.1177/0033688207085849
- Brown, G., & Yule, G. (1983). *Teaching the spoken language: An approach based on the analysis of conversational English*. Cambridge; New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Brown, H. D. (2007). *Principles of language learning and teaching* (5th ed.). White Plains, NY: Pearson Longman.
- Bryman, A. (2007). Barriers to integrating quantitative and qualitative research. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*, 1(1), 8-22. doi: 10.1177/2345678906290531
- Bryman, A., & Bell, E. (2007). *Business research methods* (2nd ed.). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Burns, R. B. (2000). *Introduction to research methods* (4th ed.). Melbourne: Addison Wesley Longman.
- Burrows, C. (2008). Socio-cultural barriers facing TBL in Japan. *The Language Teacher*, 32(8), 15-19.
- Butler, Y. G. (2011). The implementation of communicative and task-based language teaching in the Asia-Pacific region. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 31, 36-57. doi:10.1017/S0267190511000122
- Bygate, M. (1987). *Speaking*. Oxford; New York: Oxford University Press.

- Bygate, M. (1998). Theoretical perspectives on speaking. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 18, 20-42.
- Bygate, M. (2001). Speaking. In R. Carter & D. Nunan (Eds.), *The Cambridge guide to teaching English to speakers of other languages* (pp. 14 - 20). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Byrne, D. (1986). *Teaching oral English* (New ed.). Harlow, Essex: Longman.
- Canale, M. (1983). From communicative competence to communicative language pedagogy. In J. C. Richards & R. W. Schmidt (Eds.), *Language and communication* (pp. 2-27). New York: Longman.
- Canale, M., & Swain, M. (1980). Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing. *Applied Linguistics*, 1(1), 1-47.
- Carless, D. (2007). Student use of the mother tongue in the task-based classroom. *ELT Journal*, 62(4), 331-338. doi: 10.1093/elt/ccm090
- Cast, A. D., & Burke, P. J. (2002). A theory of self-esteem. *Social Forces*, 80(3), 1041-1068.
- Chamot, A. U., & Kupper, L. (1989). Learning Strategies in Foreign Language Instruction. *Foreign Language Annals*, 22(1), 13-22. doi: 10.1111/j.1944-9720.1989.tb03138.x
- Charlesworth, Z. M. (2008). Learning styles across cultures: Suggestions for educators. *Education & Training*, 50(2), 115-127.
- Chaudron, C. (1988). *Second language classrooms: Research on teaching and learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

- Chien, C.-n., & Li Wei. (1998). The strategy use in listening comprehension for EFL learners in Taiwan. *RELC Journal*, 29(1), 66-91. doi: 10.1177/003368829802900105
- Clark, H. H., & Clark, E. V. (1977). *Psychology and language: An introduction to psycholinguistics*. New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.
- Coady, J. (1997). L2 vocabulary acquisition through extensive reading. In J. Coady & T. Huckin (Eds.), *Second language vocabulary acquisition* (pp. 225-237). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Cohen, A. D. (1998). *Strategies in learning and using a second language*. London and New York: Longman.
- Coopersmith, S. (1967). *The antecedents of self-esteem*. San Francisco: W. H. Freeman.
- Corder, S. P. (1983). Strategies of communication. In C. Faerch & G. Kasper (Eds.), *Strategies in interlanguage communication* (pp. 15-19). London: Longman.
- Courtney, M. (1996). Talking to learn: Selecting and using peer group oral tasks. *ELT Journal*, 50(4), 318-326. doi: 10.1093/elt/50.4.318
- Creswell, J. W. (2007). *Qualitative inquiry & research design: Choosing among five approaches* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.
- Creswell, J. W. (2008). *Educational research: Planning, conducting, and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research* (3rd ed.). Upper Saddle River, N.J.: Pearson/Merrill Prentice Hall.
- Creswell, J. W. (2009). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, Calif.: Sage Publications.

- Creswell, J. W., & Miller, D. L. (2000). Determining validity in qualitative inquiry. *Theory Into Practice*, 39(3), 124-130. doi: 10.1207/s15430421tip3903_2
- Creswell, J. W., & Plano Clark, V. L. (2007). *Designing and conducting mixed methods research*. Thousand Oaks, Calif.: SAGE Publications.
- Creswell, J. W., & Plano Clark, V. L. (2011). *Designing and conducting mixed methods research* (2nd ed.). Los Angeles: SAGE Publications.
- Crotty, M. (1998). *The foundations of social research: Meaning and perspective in the research process*. St Leonards, NSW: Allen & Unwin.
- Dadour, E. S., & Robbins, J. (1996). University-level studies using strategy instruction to improve speaking ability in Egypt and Japan. In R. Oxford (Ed.), *Learning strategies around the world: Cross-cultural perspectives*. Honolulu: University of Hawai'i Press.
- Dardjowidjojo, S. (1996). *The role of English in Indonesia: A dilemma*. Paper presented at the TEFLIN Seminar, Surabaya, Indonesia.
- Dardjowidjojo, S. (2000). English teaching in Indonesia. *EA Journal*, 18(1), 22-30.
- Dardjowidjojo, S. (2001). Cultural constraints in the implementation of learner autonomy: The case in Indonesia. *Journal of Southeast Asian Education*, 2(2), 309-322.
- DeVito, J. A. (1992). *The interpersonal communication book* (6th ed.). New York: HarperCollins.
- DeVito, J. A. (2009). *The interpersonal communication book* (12th ed.). Boston; London: Pearson.
- Dörnyei, Z. (1995). On the teachability of communication strategies. *TESOL Quarterly*, 29(1), 55-85.

- Dörnyei, Z. (2005). *The psychology of the language learner: Individual differences in second language acquisition*. Mahwah, N.J.: L. Erlbaum.
- Dörnyei, Z., & Kormos, J. (2000). The role of individual and social variables in oral task performance. *Language Teaching Research*, 4(3), 275-300.
- Dörnyei, Z., & Scott, M. L. (1997). Communication strategies in a second language: Definitions and taxonomies. [Article]. *Language Learning*, 47(1), 173.
- Ehrman, M., & Oxford, R. (1989). Effects of sex differences, career choice, and psychological type on adult language learning strategies. *The Modern Language Journal*, 72(3), 253-265.
- Ellis, R. (2000). Task-based research and language pedagogy. *Language Teaching Research*, 4(3), 193-220.
- Ellis, R. (2003a). Designing a task-based syllabus. *RELC Journal*, 34(1), 64-81. doi: 10.1177/003368820303400105
- Ellis, R. (2003b). *Task-based language learning and teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Ellis, R. (2006). The methodology of task-based teaching. *Asian EFL Journal*, 8(3), Article 2.
- Ely, C. M. (1986). An analysis of discomfort, risktaking, sociability, and motivation in the L2 classroom. *Language Learning*, 36(1), 1-25. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-1770.1986.tb00366.x
- Estaire, S., & Zanón, J. (1994). *Planning classwork: A task based approach*. Oxford: Heinemann English Language Teaching.
- Færch, C., & Kasper, G. (1984). Two ways of defining communication strategies. *Language Learning*, 34(1), 45-63. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-1770.1984.tb00995.x

- Faerch, C., & Kasper, G. (1980). Processes and strategies in foreign language learning and communication. *Interlanguage Studies Bulletin*, 5(1), 47-128.
- Faerch, C., & Kasper, G. (1983). Plans and strategies in foreign language communication. In C. Faerch & G. Kasper (Eds.), *Strategies in interlanguage communication* (pp. 20-60). London: Longman.
- Findley, C. A. (1978). Focus on the learner: Security, alienation, and risk-taking. *RELC Journal*, 9(1), 69-76. doi: 10.1177/003368827800900108
- French, D. C., Rianasari, M., Pidada, S., Nelwan, P., & Buhrmester, D. (2001). Social support of Indonesian and U.S. children and adolescents by family members and friends. *Merrill - Palmer Quarterly*, 47(3), 377.
- Gao, X. (2006). Understanding changes in Chinese students' uses of learning strategies in China and Britain: A socio-cultural re-interpretation. *System*, 34(1), 55-67. doi: 10.1016/j.system.2005.04.003
- Gardner, M., & Steinberg, L. (2005). Peer influence on risk taking, risk preference, and risky decision making in adolescence and adulthood: An experimental study. *Developmental Psychology*, 41(4), 625-635.
- Gardner, R. C. (1985). *Social psychology and second language learning: The role of attitudes and motivation*. London; Baltimore, Md., U.S.A.: E. Arnold.
- Gardner, R. C. (2001). Integrative motivation and second language acquisition. In Z. Dornyei & R. Schmidt (Eds.), *Motivation and second language acquisition* (pp. 1-19). Honolulu, Hawai'i: Second Language Teaching & Curriculum Center, University of Hawai'i at Manoa.
- Garman, M. (1990). *Psycholinguistics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

- Garrett, M. F. (1980). Levels of processing in sentence production. In B. Butterworth (Ed.), *Language production* (Vol. 1, pp. 155-176). London: Academic Press.
- Gass, S., & Mackey, A. (2000). *Stimulated recall methodology in second language research*. Mahwah; London: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Gass, S., Mackey, A., & Ross-Feldman, L. (2011). Task-based interactions in classroom and laboratory settings. *Language Learning*, 61, 189-220. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-9922.2011.00646.x
- Gass, S. M., & Selinker, L. (2008). *Second language acquisition: An introductory course* (3rd ed.). New York: Routledge Taylor and Francis Group.
- Gebhard, J. (2000). *Teaching English as a foreign language*. Michigan: Michigan University Press.
- Ghavamnia, M., Kassaian, Z., & Dabaghi, A. (2011). The relationship between language learning strategies, language learning beliefs, motivation, and proficiency: A study of EFL learners in Iran. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 2(5), 1156-1161.
- Goh, C. (1998). How ESL learners with different listening abilities use comprehension strategies and tactics. [Article]. *Language Teaching Research*, 2(2), 124-147.
- Goh, C. (2002). Exploring listening comprehension tactics and their interaction patterns. *System*, 30(2), 185-206. doi: 10.1016/s0346-251x(02)00004-0
- Goh, C. (2007). *Teaching speaking in the language classroom*. Singapore: SEAMEO Regional Language Centre.

- Graham, J. A., & Argyle, M. (1975). A cross-cultural study of the communication of extra-verbal meaning by gesture. *International Journal of Psychology*, 10(1), 57-67. doi: 10.1080/00207597508247319
- Grainger, P. R. (1997). Language learning strategies for learners of Japanese: Investigating ethnicity. *Foreign Language Annals*, 30(3), 378-385.
- Green, J., & Thorogood, N. (2004). *Qualitative methods for health research*. London; Thousand Oaks, Calif: Sage Publications.
- Green, J. M., & Oxford, R. (1995). A closer look at learning strategies, L2 proficiency, and gender. *TESOL Quarterly*, 29(2), 261-297.
- Gregersen, T., & Horwitz, E. K. (2002). Language learning and perfectionism: Anxious and non-anxious language learners' reactions to their own oral performance. *Modern Language Journal*, 86(4), 562-570.
- Griffiths, A. (2001). Implementing task-based instruction to facilitate language learning: Moving away from theory. *TEFLIN (Teaching English as a Foreign Language in Indonesia) Journal*, 12(1).
- Griffiths, C. (2003a). *Language learning strategy use and proficiency: The relationship between patterns of reported language learning strategy (LLS) use by speakers of other languages (SOL) and proficiency with implications for the teaching/learning situation*. (Doctoral Disssertation, The University of Auckland, New Zealand). Available from ProQuest Dissertations & Theses database. (UMI No. 3094436)
- Griffiths, C. (2003b). Patterns of language learning strategy use. *System*, 31(3), 367-383.

- Griffiths, C., & Parr, M. (2001). Language learning strategies: Theories and perception. *ELT Journal*, 55(3 July 2001), 247 - 254.
- Guba, E. G., & Lincoln, Y. S. (1994). Competing paradigms in qualitative research. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *Handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 105-117). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Gullberg, M. (1998). *Gesture as a communication strategy in second language discourse: A study of learners of French and Swedish*. (Fil.Dr., Lunds Universitet, Sweden). Available from ProQuest Dissertations & Theses (UMI No. 636989)
- Hall, J. K. (2002). Teacher-student interaction and language learning. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 22, 186-203.
- Hatch, E. M. (1992). *Discourse and language education*. Cambridge [England] ; New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Hewitt, E., & Stephenson, J. (2011). Foreign language anxiety and oral exam performance: A replication of Phillips's MLJ Study. *The Modern Language Journal*, no-no. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-4781.2011.01174.x
- Heyde, A. W. (1979). *The relationship between self-esteem and the oral production of a second language* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Michigan, Michigan), . Retrieved from <http://ezproxy.lib.monash.edu.au/login?url=http://proquest.umi.com/pqdweb?did=760032211&Fmt=7&clientId=16397&RQT=309&VName=PQD>
- Hilton, H. (2008). The link between vocabulary knowledge and spoken L2 fluency. *Language Learning Journal*, 36(2), 153 - 166.

- Hofstede, G. H., Hofstede, G. J., & Minkov, M. (2010). *Cultures and organizations, software of the mind: Intercultural cooperation and its importance for survival* (3rd ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Horwitz, E. K., Horwitz, M. B., & Cope, J. (1986). Foreign language classroom anxiety. *The Modern Language Journal*, 70(2), 125-132. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-4781.1986.tb05256.x
- Howe, K. R. (1988). Against the quantitative-qualitative incompatibility thesis or dogmas die hard. *Educational Researcher*, 17(8), 10-16. doi: 10.3102/0013189x017008010
- Hsiao, T.-Y., & Oxford, R. (2002). Comparing theories of language learning strategies: A confirmatory factor analysis. *The Modern Language Journal*, 86(3), 368-383.
- Huang, L.-S. (2010). The potential influence of L1 (Chinese) on L2 (English) communication. *ELT Journal*, 64(2), 155-164. doi: 10.1093/elt/ccp039
- Huckin, T. N., Haynes, M., & Coady, J. (1993). *Second language reading and vocabulary learning*. Norwood, N.J.: Ablex Pub. Corp.
- Ikeda, M., & Takeuchi, O. (2000). Tasks and strategy use: Empirical implications for questionnaire studies. *JACET Bulletin*, 31, 21-32.
- Iwashita, N. (2003). Negative feedback and positive evidence in task-based interaction. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 25(01), 1-36. doi: doi:10.1017/S0272263103000019
- Jacobs, G. M., & Farrell, T. S. C. (2003). Understanding and implementtng the CLT (Communicative Language Teaching) paradigm. *RELC Journal*, 34(1), 5-30. doi: 10.1177/003368820303400102

- Jazadi, I. (2000). Constraints and resources for applying communicative approaches in Indonesia. *EA Journal*, 18(1), 31-40.
- Johnson, B., & Christensen, L. B. (2008). *Educational research: Quantitative, qualitative, and mixed approaches* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, Calif.: Sage Publications.
- Johnson, B., & Christensen, L. B. (2012). *Educational research: Quantitative, qualitative, and mixed approaches* (4th ed.). Thousand Oaks, Calif.: SAGE Publications.
- Johnson, R. B., & Onwuegbuzie, A. J. (2004). Mixed methods research: A research paradigm whose time has come. *Educational Researcher*, 33(7), 14-26.
- Kasper, G., & Kellerman, E. (1997). *Communication strategies: Psycholinguistic and sociolinguistic perspectives*. London ; New York: Longman.
- Kellerman, E., & Bialystok, E. (1997). On psychological plausibility in the study of communication strategies. In G. Kasper & E. Kellerman (Eds.), *Communication strategies: Psycholinguistic and sociolinguistic perspectives* (pp. 31-48). London and New York: Longman.
- Kellerman, S. (1992). 'I see what you mean': The role of kinesic behaviour in listening and implications for foreign and second language learning. *Applied Linguistics*, 13(3), 239-258.
- Kennedy, J. (1996). Classroom explanatory discourse: A look at how teachers explain things to their students. *Language Awareness*, 5(1), 26-39.
- Khan, S., & Victori, M. (2011). Perceived vs. actual strategy use across three oral communication tasks. *IRAL - International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching*, 49(1), 27-53. doi: 10.1515/iral.2011.002

- Kormos, J. (2006). *Speech production and second language acquisition*. New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.
- Krashen, S. (1989). We acquire vocabulary and spelling by reading: Additional evidence for the input hypothesis. *The Modern Language Journal*, 73(4), 440-464. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-4781.1989.tb05325.x
- Krashen, S. (1991). The input hypothesis: An update. In J. E. Alatis (Ed.), *Linguistics and language pedagogy: The state of the art* (pp. 409-431). Washington, D.C.: Georgetown University Press.
- Krashen, S. D. (1985). *The input hypothesis: Issues and implications*. London; New York: Longman.
- Kurihara, N. (2006). Classroom anxiety: How does student attitude change in English oral communication class in a Japanese senior high school? *Accent Asia [Online]*, 1(1), 34 - 68.
- Kweldju, S. (1997). *English department students' vocabulary size and the development of a model of extensive reading with individualized vocabulary learning*. Singapore: SEAMEO-Regional Language Centre.
- Lai, C. (1994). Communication failure in the language classroom: An exploration of causes. *RELC Journal*, 25(1), 99-129. doi: 10.1177/003368829402500105
- Lam, W. Y. K. (2007). Tapping ESL learners' problems and strategies in oral communication tasks: Insights from stimulated recall. *Prospect*, 22(I), 56-71.
- Leaver, B. L., & Willis, J. (2004). *Task-based instruction in foreign language education: Practices and programs*. Washington, D.C.: Georgetown University Press.

- Lee, C. F. K. (2004). *Language output, communication strategies and communicative tasks: In the Chinese context*. Lanham, Md.: University Press of America.
- Levelt, W. J. M. (1989). *Speaking: From intention to articulation*. Cambridge, Mass; London: MIT Press.
- Levelt, W. J. M. (2001). Spoken word production: A theory of lexical access. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 98(23), 13464-13471. doi: 10.1073/pnas.231459498
- Levelt, W. J. M., Roelofs, A., & Meyer, A. S. (1999). A theory of lexical access in speech production. *Behavioral and Brain Sciences*, 22(01), 1-38.
- Littlewood, W. (2004). The task-based approach: Some questions and suggestions. *ELT Journal*, 58(4), 319-326. doi: 10.1093/elt/58.4.319
- Littlewood, W. (2007). Communicative and task-based language teaching in East Asian classrooms. *Language Teaching*, 40(03), 243-249. doi: 10.1017/S0261444807004363
- Liu, M., & Huang, W. (2011). An exploration of foreign language anxiety and English learning motivation. *Education Research International*, 2011. doi: 10.1155/2011/493167
- Lochana, M., & Deb, G. (2006). Task-based teaching: Learning without tears. *Asian EFL Journal*, 8(3), Article 7.
- Long, M. H., & Crookes, G. (1992). Three approaches to task-based syllabus design. *TESOL Quarterly*, 26(1), 27-56.

- Lovick, N., & Cobb, M. (2007). *The concept of foreign language task, misconceptions and benefits in implementing task-based instruction*. Paper presented at the 2nd International Conference on Task-Based Language Teaching, University of Hawaii.
- Luoma, S. (2004). *Assessing speaking*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Macaro, E. (2000). Learner strategies in foreign language learning: Cross-national factors. *Tuttitalia*, 22, 9-18.
- Macaro, E. (2006). Strategies for language learning and for language use: revising the theoretical framework. *The Modern Language Journal*, 90(iii), 320 - 337.
- Macaro, E., Graham, S., & Vanderplank, R. (2007). A review of listening strategies: focus on sources of knowledge and on success. In A. D. Cohen & E. Macaro (Eds.), *Language learner strategies: Thirty years of research and practice*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- MacIntyre, P. D., & Gardner, R. C. (1989). Anxiety and second-language learning: Toward a theoretical clarification. *Language Learning*, 39(2), 251-275. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-1770.1989.tb00423.x
- MacIntyre, P. D., & Gardner, R. C. (1991). Methods and results in the study of anxiety and language learning: A review of the literature. *Language Learning*, 41(1), 85-117. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-1770.1991.tb00677.x
- Mackey, W. F. (1967). *Language teaching analysis*. Bloomington: Indiana University Press.
- Magogwe, J. M., & Oliver, R. (2007). The relationship between language learning strategies, proficiency, age and self-efficacy beliefs: A study of language learners in Botswana. *System*, 35(3), 338-352.

- McCarthy, M. (1998). *Spoken language and applied linguistics*. Cambridge, England; New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.
- McCroskey, J. C. (1970). Measures of communication-bound anxiety. *Speech Monographs*, 37(4), 269-277.
- McCroskey, J. C. (1984). The communication apprehension perspective. In J. A. Daly & J. C. McCroskey (Eds.), *Avoiding communication: Shyness, reticence, and communication apprehension* (pp. 13-338). Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.
- McCroskey, J. C. (2009). Communication apprehension: What have we learned in the last four decades. *Human Communication*, 12(2), 157-171.
- McCroskey, J. C., & Beatty, M. J. (1986). Oral communication apprehension. In W. H. Jones, J. M. Cheek & S. R. Brigg (Eds.), *Shyness: Perspectives on research and treatment* (pp. 279-294). New York: Plenum.
- McDonough, K. (2005). Identifying the impact of negative feedback and learners' responses on ESL question development. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 27(01), 79-103. doi: doi:10.1017/S0272263105050047
- McDonough, S. H. (1995). *Strategy and skill in learning a foreign language*. London and New York: Arnold.
- Merriam, S. B. (1988). *Case study research in education: A qualitative approach* (1st ed.). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Mertens, D. M. (2010). *Research and evaluation in education and psychology: Integrating diversity with quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methods* (third ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publishing.

- Meyer, J. H. F., & Kiley, M. (1998). An exploration of Indonesian postgraduate students' conceptions of learning. *Journal of Further and Higher Education*, 22(3), 287 - 298.
- Midraj, S., Midraj, J., O'Neill, G., & Sellami, A. (2008). The affective factors and English language attainment of Arab EFL learners. *International Journal of Applied Educational Studies*, 1(1), 43.
- Miles, M. B., & Huberman, A. M. (1994). *Qualitative data analysis: An expanded sourcebook* (second ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Minichiello, V., Aroni, R., & Hays, T. N. (2008). *In-depth interviewing: Principles, techniques, analysis* (3rd ed.). Sydney: Pearson Education Australia.
- Mochizuki, A. (1999). Language learning strategies used by Japanese university students. *RELC Journal*, 30(2), 101-113. doi: 10.1177/003368829903000206
- Montgomery, C., & Eisenstein, M. (1985). Real reality revisited: An experimental communicative course in ESL. *TESOL Quarterly*, 19(2), 317-334.
- Morgan, D. L. (2007). Paradigms lost and pragmatism regained. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*, 1(1), 48-76. doi: 10.1177/2345678906292462
- Morries, L. (2001). *What constitutes context in contextualized grammar teaching*. Paper presented at the Seminar on Teaching Grammar in Context, Malang.
- Muranoi, H. (2000). Focus on form through interaction enhancement: integrating formal instruction into a communicative task in EFL classrooms. [Article]. *Language Learning*, 50(4), 617.
- Murphy, J. (2003). Task-based learning: The interaction between tasks and learners. *ELT Journal*, 57(4), 352-360. doi: 10.1093/elt/57.4.352

- Murphy, J. M. (1991). Oral communication in TESOL: Integrating speaking, listening, and pronunciation. *TESOL Quarterly*, 25(1), 51-75.
- Murphy, J. M. (April, 1985). *An investigation into the listening strategies of ESL college students*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, New York, NY.
- Mustapha, W. Z. W., Ismail, N., Singh, D. S. R., & Elias, S. (2010). ESL students communication apprehension and thier choice of communicative activities. *AJTLHE: ASEAN Journal of Teaching and Learning in Higher Education*, 2(1), 22-29.
- Nakatani, Y. (2006). Developing an oral communication strategy inventory. *The Modern Language Journal*, 90(2), 151-168.
- Nakatani, Y. (2010). Identifying strategies that facilitate EFL learners' oral communication: A classroom study using multiple data collection procedures. *The Modern Language Journal*, 94(10), 116-136.
- Nakatani, Y., & Goh, C. (2007). A review of oral communication strategies: Focus on interactionist and psycholinguistic perspectives. In A. D. Cohen & E. Macaro (Eds.), *Language learner strategies* (pp. 207-227). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Nani, I. T., & Agatha, S. (2004). The types of communication strategies used by speaking class students with different communication apprehension levels in English department of Petra Christian University, Surabaya. *K@ta*, 6(1), 30.
- Nation, P. (1990). *Teaching and learning vocabulary*. Boston: Heinle & Heinle Publishers.

- Newton, J. (2001). Options for vocabulary learning through communication tasks. *ELT Journal*, 55(1), 30-37. doi: 10.1093/elt/55.1.30
- Ng, I. W.-Y. (1995). Task type and proficiency level as variables determining the use of communication strategies in spoken non-native English discourse. In K. P. Y. Wong & C. F. Green (Eds.), *Thinking language: Issues in the study of language and language curriculum renewal*. Hong Kong: Language Centre, Hong Kong University of Science and Technology.
- Novera, I. A. (2004). Indonesian posgraduate students studying in Australia: An examination of their academic, social and cultural experiences. *International Review of Education* 5(4), 475-487.
- Nunan, D. (1997). Strategy training in the language classroom: An empirical investigation. *RELC Journal*, 28(2), 56-81. doi: 10.1177/003368829702800204
- Nunan, D. (1999). *Second language teaching & learning*. Boston, Mass.: Heinle & Heinle Publishers.
- Nunan, D. (2003). The impact of English as a global language on educational policies and practices in the Asia-Pacific region. *TESOL Quarterly*, 37(4), 589-613.
- Nunan, D. (2004). *Task-based language teaching*. Cambridge, UK ; New York, NY, USA: Cambridge University Press.
- Nunan, D. (2006). Task-based language teaching in the Asia context: Defining 'task'. *Asian EFL Journal*, 8(3), Article 1.

- Nur, C. (2004). English language teaching in Indonesia: Changing policies and practical constraints. In H. W. Kam & R. Y. L. Wong (Eds.), *English language teaching in East Asia today - Changing policies and practices* (second ed.). Singapore: Eastern Universities Press.
- O'Malley, J. M., & Chamot, A. U. (1990). *Learning strategies in second language acquisition*. Cambridge [England]; New York: Cambridge University Press.
- O'Malley, J. M., Chamot, A. U., & Kupper, L. (1989). Listening comprehension strategies in second language acquisition. *Applied Linguistics*, 10(4), 418-437. doi: 10.1093/applin/10.4.418
- O'Malley, J. M., Chamot, A. U., Stewner-Manzanares, G., Kupper, L., & Russo, R. P. (1985). Learning strategies used by beginning and intermediate ESL students. *Language Learning*, 35(1), 21-46. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-1770.1985.tb01013.x
- Oxford, R. L. (1990). *Language learning strategies: What every teacher should know*. New York: Newbury House Publishers.
- Oxford, R. L. (1996a). Employing a questionnaire to assess the use of language learning strategies. *Applied Language Learning*, 7(1-2), 25-45.
- Oxford, R. L. (1996b). *Language learning strategies around the world: Cross-cultural perspectives*. Honolulu: Second Language Teaching & Curriculum Center, University of Hawai'i.
- Oxford, R. L. (2006). Task-based language teaching and learning: An overview. *Asian TEFL Journal*, 8(3), Article 5.

- Oxford, R. L., & Burry-Stock, J. A. (1995). Assessing the use of language learning strategies worldwide with the ESL/EFL version of the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL). *System*, 23(1), 1-23.
- Oxford, R. L., & Ehrman, M. E. (1995). Adults' language learning strategies in an intensive foreign language program in the United States. *System*, 23(3), 359-386.
- Oxford, R. L., & Nyikos, M. (1989). Variables affecting choice of language learning strategies by university students. *The Modern Language Journal*, 73(3), 291-300.
- Oxford, R. L., Yunkyoung Cho, R., Santoi Leung, R., & Hae-Jin Kim, R. (2004). Effect of the presence and difficulty of task on strategy use: An exploratory study. *IRAL: International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching*, 42(1), 1-47.
- Paribakht, T. (1985). Strategic competence and language proficiency. *Applied Linguistics*, 6(2), 132-146. doi: 10.1093/applin/6.2.132
- Park, G.-P. (1997). Language learning strategies and English proficiency in Korean university students. *Foreign Language Annals*, 30(2), 211-221. doi: 10.1111/j.1944-9720.1997.tb02343.x
- Patton, M. Q. (2002). *Qualitative research & evaluation methods* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, Calif.: Sage Publications.
- Paulston, C. B. (1974). Linguistic and communicative competence. *TESOL Quarterly*, 8(4), 347-362.
- Phakiti, A. (2003). A closer look at gender and strategy use in L2 reading. [Article]. *Language Learning*, 53(4), 649-702. doi: 10.1046/j.1467-9922.2003.00239.x

- Pica, T., Kanagy, R., & Falodun, J. (1993). Choosing and using communication tasks for second language instruction. In G. Crookes & S. Gass (Eds.), *Tasks and language learning: Integrating theory and practice*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters Ltd.
- Plough, I., & Gass, S. (1993). Interlocutor and task familiarity: Effects on interactional structure. In G. Crookes & S. Gass (Eds.), *Task and language learning: Integrating theory and practice* (pp. 35-56). Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Politzer, R. L., & McGroarty, M. (1985). An exploratory study of learning behaviors and their relationship to gains in linguistic and communicative competence. *TESOL Quarterly*, 19(1), 103-123.
- Poulisse, N. (1987). Problems and solutions in the classification of compensatory strategies. *Second Language Research*, 3(2), 141-153. doi: 10.1177/026765838700300204
- Poulisse, N. (1994). Communication strategies in a second language. *The Encyclopedia of Language and Linguistics*, 2, 620 - 624. doi: urn:nbn:nl:ui:29-1954
- Poulisse, N. (1997). Compensatory strategies and the principles of clarity and economy. In G. Kasper & E. Kellerman (Eds.), *Communication strategies: Psycholinguistic and sociolinguistic perspectives* (pp. 49-64). London and New York: Longman.
- Poulisse, N., Bongaerts, T., & Kellerman, E. (1984). On the use of compensatory strategies in second language performance. *Interlanguage Studies Bulletin*, 8(1), 70-115.

- Prabhu, N. S. (1987). *Second language pedagogy*. Oxford; New York: Oxford University Press.
- Qingquan, N., Chatupote, M., & Teo, A. (2008). A deep look into learning strategy use by successful and unsuccessful students in the Chinese EFL learning context. *RELC Journal*, 39(3), 338-358. doi: 10.1177/0033688208096845
- Rampton, B. (1997). A sociolinguistic perspective on L2 communication strategies. In G. Kasper & E. Kellerman (Eds.), *Communication strategies: Psycholinguistic and sociolinguistic perspectives* (pp. 279-303). London and New York: Longman.
- Richards, J. C., & Regional Language Centre. (2005). *Communicative language teaching today*. Singapore: SEAMEO Regional Language Centre.
- Rivers, W. M. (1981). *Teaching foreign-language skills* (2nd edition. ed.). Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
- Rohani, S. (2005). *Maximizing a lexically-based extensive reading to improve students' reading and speaking skills*. (Unpublished master's thesis), State University of Malang, Malang.
- Rost, M., & Ross, S. (1991). Learner use of strategies in interaction: Typology and teachability. *Language Learning*, 41(2), 235-268. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-1770.1991.tb00685.x
- Rubin, J. (1975). What the "good language learner" can teach us. *TESOL Quarterly*, 9(1), 41-51.
- Rubin, J. (1981). Study of cognitive processes in second language learning. *Applied Linguistics*, 2(2), 117-131. doi: 10.1093/applin/II.2.117

- Rubin, J. (1987). Learner strategies: Theoretical assumptions, research history and typology. In A. Wenden & J. Rubin (Eds.), *Learner strategies in language learning* (pp. 15-30). Hemel Hempstead, Hertfordshire: Prentice Hall International (UK) Ltd.
- Rubin, J., & Thompson, I. (1982). *How to be a more successful language learner*. Boston, Mass.: Heinle & Heinle.
- Sae-Ong, U. (2010). *The use of task-based learning and group work incorporating to develop English speaking ability of Mattayom Suksa 4 students*. (Unpublished master's thesis), Srinakharinwirot University, Bangkok, Thailand.
- Samuda, V., & Bygate, M. (2008). *Tasks in second language learning*. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Savignon, S. J., & Sysoyev, P. V. (2002). Sociocultural strategies for a dialogue of cultures. *The Modern Language Journal*, 86(4), 508-524. doi: 10.1111/1540-4781.00158
- Saville-Troike, M. (2006). *Introducing second language acquisition*. Cambridge, UK; New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Sawir, E. (2002). *Communicating in English across cultures: The strategies and beliefs of adult EFL learners*. (Unpublished doctoral dissertation), Monash University, Melbourne.
- Scarcella, R. C., & Oxford, R. L. (1992). *The tapestry of language learning: The individual in the communicative classroom*. Boston, Mass.: Heinle & Heinle.
- Scovel, T. (1978). The effect of affect on foreign language learning: A review of the anxiety research. *Language Learning*, 28(1), 129-142. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-1770.1978.tb00309.x

- Seedhouse, P. (1999). Task-based interaction. *ELT Journal*, 53(3), 149-156. doi: 10.1093/elt/53.3.149
- Selinker, L. (1972). Interlanguage. *IRAL - International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching*, 10(1-4), 209-232. doi: 10.1515/iral.1972.10.1-4.209
- Selinker, L., & Douglas, D. (1985). Wrestling with 'context' in interlanguage theory. *Applied Linguistics*, 6(2), 190-204. doi: 10.1093/applin/6.2.190
- Seyhan, S. (2000). *The impact of anxiety, self-esteem and motivation on the oral communication of German and Japanese adult ESL students*. (Doctoral dissertation, United States International University). Available from ProQuest Dissertations and Theses database (UMI No. 9989782)
- Shumin, K. (2002). Factor to consider: Developing adult EFL students' speaking abilities. In J. C. Richards & W. A. Renandya (Eds.), *Methodology in language teaching - An anthology of current practice* (pp. 204 - 211). New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Singleton, D. (2001). Age and second language acquisition. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 21, 77-89. doi: doi:null
- Skehan, P. (1998). *A cognitive approach to language learning*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Stake, R. E. (1995). *The art of case study research*. Thousand Oaks: Sage Publications.
- Stake, R. E. (2006). *Multiple case study analysis*. New York: The Guilford Press.
- Stake, R. E. (2010). *Qualitative research: Studying how things work*. New York: Guilford Press.

- Steinberg, F. S., & Horwitz, E. K. (1986). The effect of induced anxiety on the denotative and interpretive content of second language speech. *TESOL Quarterly*, 20(1), 131-136.
- Stern, H. H. (1975). What can we learn from the good language learner? *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 31(4), 304-318.
- Swain, M., Skehan, P., & Bygate, M. (2001). *Researching pedagogic tasks: Second language learning, teaching, and testing*. Harlow, England ; New York: Longman.
- Taguchi, N. (2007). Task difficulty in oral speech act production. *Applied Linguistics*, 28(1), 113-135.
- Takeuchi, O., Griffiths, C., & Coyle, D. (2007). Applying strategies to contexts: The role of individual, situational, and group differences. In A. D. Cohen & E. Macaro (Eds.), *Language learner strategies: Thirty years of research and practice*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Tarone, E. (1977). Conscious communication strategies in interlanguage: a progress report. In H. D. Brown, C. A. Yorio & R. H. Crymes (Eds.), *On TESOL '77* (pp. 194-203). Washington, DC: TESOL.
- Tarone, E. (1980). Communication strategies, foreigner talk, and repair in interlanguage. *Language Learning*, 30(2), 417-428. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-1770.1980.tb00326.x
- Tarone, E. (1981). Some thoughts on the notion of communication strategy. *TESOL Quarterly*, 15(3), 285-295.

- Tarone, E. (1983). Some thoughts on the notion of communication strategy. In C. Faerch & G. Kasper (Eds.), *Strategies in interlanguage communication* (pp. 61-74). London: Longman.
- Tarone, E. (2005). Speaking in a second language. In E. Hinkel (Ed.), *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning* (pp. 485 - 502). Mahwah: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Tarone, E., Cohen, A. D., & Dumas, G. (1983). A closer look at some interlanguage terminology: A framework for communication strategies. In C. Faerch & G. Kasper (Eds.), *Strategies in interlanguage communication* (pp. 4-14). London: Longman.
- Tashakkori, A., & Teddlie, C. (1998). *Mixed methodology: Combining qualitative and quantitative approaches*. Thousand Oaks, Calif.: Sage.
- Tashakkori, A., & Teddlie, C. (2003). *Handbook of mixed methods in social & behavioral research*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.
- Tulung, G. J. (2004). Teachers managing a task within task-based instruction: A case study in an ESL setting. In B. Y. Cahyono & U. Widiati (Eds.), *English Language Teaching and Learning* (pp. 143-156). Malang, Indonesia: State University of Malang Press.
- Ur, P. (1996). *A course in language teaching: Practice and theory*. Cambridge [England] ; New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Valette, R. M. (1973). Developing and evaluating communication skills in the classroom. *TESOL Quarterly*, 7(4), 407-424.
- Valette, R. M. (1977). *Modern language testing* (2nd ed.). New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.

- Vandergrift, L. (1997a). The cinderella of communication strategies: Reception strategies in interactive listening. [Article]. *Modern Language Journal*, 81(4), 494.
- Vandergrift, L. (1997b). The comprehension strategies of second language (French) listeners: A descriptive study. *Foreign Language Annals*, 30(3), 387-409. doi: 10.1111/j.1944-9720.1997.tb02362.x
- Vandergrift, L. (2003). Orchestrating strategy use: Toward a model of the skilled second language listener. *Language Learning*, 53(3), 463-496. doi: 10.1111/1467-9922.00232
- Vandergrift, L. (2005). Relationships among motivation orientations, metacognitive awareness and proficiency in L2 listening. *Applied Linguistics*, 26(1), 70-89. doi: 10.1093/applin/amh039
- Vann, R. J., & Abraham, R. G. (1990). Strategies of unsuccessful language learners. *TESOL Quarterly*, 24(2), 177-198.
- Varela, E. E. (1997). *Speaking solo: Using learning strategy instruction to improve English language learners' oral presentation skills in content-based ESL*. (Doctoral dissertation, Georgetown University, Columbia). Available from Dissertations & Theses: A&I database (Publication No. AAT 9801240)
- Verhelst, M. (2010, September 1). Tasks in second language learning [Review of the book *Tasks in second language learning*, by V. Samuda and M. Bygate]. *Applied Linguistics*, 31(4), 589-592. doi: 10.1093/applin/amq020
- Vygotsky, L. S., & Cole, M. (1978). *Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.

- Wang, Y. (2010). A survey of the foreign language learning motivation among polytechnic students in China. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 1(5), 605-613.
- Wharton, G. (2000). Language learning strategy use of bilingual foreign language learners in Singapore. *Language Learning*, 50(2), 203-243.
- Widdowson, H. G. (1978). *Teaching language as communication*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Wiersma, W., & Jurs, S. G. (2009). *Research methods in education: An introduction* (9th ed.). Boston: Pearson.
- Willis, D., & Willis, J. (2007). *Doing task-based teaching*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Willis, D., & Willis, J. (2009). Task-based language teaching: Some questions and answers. *The Language Teacher*, 33(3), 3-8.
- Willis, J. (1996). *A framework for task-based learning*. Harlow: Longman.
- Willis, J. (1998). Task-based learning: What kind of adventure? Retrieved 29 October 2008, from The Japan Association for Language Teaching
- Woodrow, L. (2006). Anxiety and speaking English as a second language. *RELIC Journal*, 37(3), 308-328. doi: 10.1177/0033688206071315
- Yang, M.-N. (2007). Language learning strategies for junior college students in Taiwan: Investigating ethnicity and proficiency *The Asian TEFL Journal*, 9(2), 35-57.
- Yin, R. K. (2009). *Case study research: Design and methods* (4th ed.). Thousand Oaks, Calif.: Sage Publications.

- Young, D. J. (1990). An investigation of students' perspectives on anxiety and speaking. *Foreign Language Annals*, 23(6), 539-553. doi: 10.1111/j.1944-9720.1990.tb00424.x
- Young, M.-Y. C. (1996). *Listening comprehension strategies used by university level chinese students learning english as a second language*. (Doctoral dissertation, University of Essex, United Kingdom). Retrieved from <http://search.proquest.com/docview/304370103?accountid=12528>
- Young, M.-Y. C. (1997). A serial ordering of listening comprehension strategies used by advaced ESL learners in Hong Kong. *Asian Journal of English Language Teaching*, 7, 35-53.
- Youngblood, D. J. (1991). Creating a low-anxiety classroom environment: What does language anxiety research suggest? *Modern Language Journal*, 75(4), 426.
- Yule, G. (2010). *The study of language* (4th ed.). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Zuengler, J., & Bent, B. (1991). Relative knowledge of content domain: An influence on native-non-native conversations. *Applied Linguistics*, 12(4), 397-415. doi: 10.1093/applin/12.4.397

APPENDICES

Appendix 1 Oral Communication Strategy Inventory (OCSI)

Please read the following items, choose a response, and write it in the space after each item.

1. *Never or almost never true of me*
2. *Generally not true of me*
3. *Somewhat true of me*
4. *Generally true of me*
5. *Always or almost always true of me*

Strategies for Coping with Speaking Problems

- | | |
|--|----------------------|
| 1. I think first of what I want to say in my native language and then construct the English sentence. | <input type="text"/> |
| 2. I think first of a sentence I already know in English and then try to change it to fit the situation. | <input type="text"/> |
| 3. I use words which are familiar to me. | <input type="text"/> |
| 4. I reduce the message and use simple expressions. | <input type="text"/> |
| 5. I replace the original message with another message because of feeling incapable of executing my original intent. | <input type="text"/> |
| 6. I abandon the execution of a verbal plan and just say some words when I don't know what to say. | <input type="text"/> |
| 7. I pay attention to grammar and word order during conversation. | <input type="text"/> |
| 8. I try to emphasize the subject and verb of the sentence. | <input type="text"/> |
| 9. I change my way of saying things according to the context. | <input type="text"/> |
| 10. I take my time to express what I want to say. | <input type="text"/> |
| 11. I pay attention to my pronunciation. | <input type="text"/> |
| 12. I try to speak clearly and loudly to make myself heard. | <input type="text"/> |
| 13. I pay attention to my rhythm and intonation. | <input type="text"/> |
| 14. I pay attention to the conversation flow. | <input type="text"/> |
| 15. I try to make eye-contact when I am talking. | <input type="text"/> |

- | | |
|---|--------------------------|
| 16. I use gestures and facial expressions if I can't communicate how to express myself. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 17. I correct myself when I notice that I have made a mistake. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 18. I notice myself using an expression which fits a rule that I have learned. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 19. While speaking, I pay attention to the listener's reaction to my speech. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 20. I give examples if the listener doesn't understand what I am saying. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 21. I repeat what I want to say until the listener understands. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 22. I make comprehension checks to ensure the listener understands what I want to say. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 23. I try to use fillers when I cannot think of what to say. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 24. I leave a message unfinished because of some language difficulty. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 25. I try to give a good impression to the listener. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 26. I don't mind taking risks even though I might make mistakes. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 27. I try to enjoy the conversation. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 28. I try to relax when I feel anxious. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 29. I actively encourage myself to express what I want to say. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 30. I try to talk like a native speaker. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 31. I ask other people to help when I can't communicate well. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 32. I give up when I can't make myself understood. | <input type="checkbox"/> |

Strategies for Coping with Listening Problems

- | | |
|---|--------------------------|
| 1. I pay attention to the first word to judge whether it is an interrogative sentence or not. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. I try to catch every word that the speaker uses. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3. I guess the speaker's intention by picking up familiar words. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 4. I pay attention to the words which the speaker slows down or emphasizes. | <input type="checkbox"/> |

5. I pay attention to the first part of the sentence and guess the speaker's intention ☐
6. I try to respond to the speaker even when I don't understand him/her perfectly. ☐
7. I guess the speaker's intention based on what he/she has said so far. ☐
8. I don't mind if I can't understand every single detail. ☐
9. I anticipate what the speaker is going to say based on the context. ☐
10. I ask the speaker to give an example when I am not sure what he/she said. ☐
11. I try to translate into native language little by little to understand what the speaker has said. ☐
12. I try to catch the speaker's main point. ☐
13. I pay attention to the speaker's rhythm and intonation. ☐
14. I send continuation signals to show my understanding in order to avoid communication gaps. ☐
15. I use circumlocution to react the speaker's utterance when I don't understand his/her intention well. ☐
16. I pay attention to the speaker's pronunciation. ☐
17. I use gestures when I have difficulties in understanding. ☐
18. I pay attention to the speaker's eye contact, facial expression and gestures. ☐
19. I ask the speaker to slow down when I can't understand what the speaker has said. ☐
20. I ask the speaker to use easy words when I have difficulties in comprehension. ☐
21. I make a clarification request when I am not sure what the speaker has said. ☐
22. I ask for repetition when I can't understand what the speaker has said. ☐
23. I make clear to the speaker what I haven't been able to understand. ☐
24. I only focus on familiar expressions. ☐

25. I especially pay attention to the interrogative when I listen to WH-questions. ☐

26. I pay attention to the subject and verb of the sentence when I listen. ☐

Appendix 2 Speaking Test Rating Scale and Operational Description (Adapted from Foreign Service Institute)

Operational Description	Rating	Students
Pronunciation		
Pronunciation frequently unintelligible Less than or 5 types of global errors, and the inability to pronounce less than or 20 English phones correctly.	1	
Frequent gross errors and a very heavy accent make understanding difficult, and require frequent repetition Less than or 5 types of global errors, and the inability to pronounce less than or 10 English phones correctly.	2	
Foreign accent requires concentrated listening and mispronunciations lead to occasional misunderstanding and apparent errors in grammar and vocabulary. Less than or 2 types of global errors, and less than or 5 English phones correctly.	3	
Marked 'foreign accent' and occasional mispronunciations that do not interfere with understanding. Less than or 2 types of global errors, and less than or 5 English phones correctly.	4	
No conspicuous mispronunciations, but would not be taken for a native speaker. No global errors and less than 10 cases of mispronunciation due to the uncertainty of how to pronounce several words not subject to the incapability of pronouncing correct English sounds (in terms of broad phonetic transcription).	5	
Native pronunciation with no trace of foreign accent. No errors and speech is spoken with stylized tones.	6	

Operational Description	Rating	Students
Grammar		
Grammar almost entirely inaccurate except in stock phrases More than 30 cases of global errors, and more than 80 cases of local errors.	1	
Constant errors showing control of very few major patterns and frequently preventing communication Less than or 30 cases of global errors, and less than or 80 cases of local errors.	2	
Frequent errors showing some major patterns uncontrolled and causing occasional irritation and misunderstanding. Less than or 20 cases of global errors, and less than or 60 cases of local errors.	3	
Occasional errors showing imperfect control of some patterns; few weaknesses that cause misunderstanding. Less than or 10 cases of global errors, and less than or 40 cases of local errors.	4	
Few errors Two or three global errors during the interview and less than or 15 local errors.	5	
No more than two errors during the interview	6	
Vocabulary		
Vocabulary inadequate for even the simplest conversation More than 15 global problems and more than 35 local problems.	1	
Vocabulary limited to simple procedural classroom exchange Less than or 15 global problems, and less than or 35 local problems.	2	
Choice of words sometimes inaccurate, limitation of vocabulary preventing discussion of non-procedural routine classroom exchange Less than or 10 global problems, and less than or 25 local problems.	3	
Adequate vocabulary for classroom communicative purposes. Less than or 5 global problems, and less than or 15 local problems.	4	

Operational Description	Rating	Students
Vocabulary		
Broad and precise vocabulary adequate to cope with any classroom communicative purposes. No more than or 2 global problems, and no more than 5 local problems.	5	
Vocabulary apparently as accurate and extensive as that of a native-speaker teacher No problem.	6	
Fluency		
Speech is so halting that conversation is virtually impossible. Improper pauses: occurring almost after every word Speed : up to 40 words per minute Rhythm : non-native	1	
Speech is very low and uneven except for short or routine sentences. Connected speech : only for routine sentences Improper pauses : occurring after 5 – 10 words Speed : up to 60 words per minute Rhythm : non-native	2	
Speech is frequently hesitant and jerky, sentences may be left uncompleted. Connected speech : for routine sentences Improper pauses : occurring after 11 – 25 words Speed : up to 80 words per minute Rhythm : non-native	3	
Speech is occasionally hesitant, with some unevenness caused by rephrasing and grouping of words Improper pauses : occurring after 26 – 50 words Speed : up to 90 words per minute Rhythm : non-native	4	
Speech is effortless and smooth, but perceptibly non-native. Improper pauses : occurring after 51 words Speed : up to 125 words per minute Rhythm : non-native	5	
Speech on any general topics and those needed for classroom verbal exchange and any discussion necessary for a teacher of English as a native speaker. Improper pauses : all correct Speed : more than 125 words per min Rhythm : non-native	6	

		Students
Operational Description	Rating	
Comprehension		
Understands too little for the simplest type of communication Almost not to understand utterance; this can be shown by facial responses or any remark.	1	
Understands only slow, very simple speech Only understands routine sentences, e.g. "What's the matter?", and "That's right."	2	
Understands careful, somewhat simplified speech directed to him Understands 50% of the utterances directed to him	3	
Understands quite well normal educated speech, but requires occasional repetition or rephrasing Understands 75% or more the utterances directed to him	4	
Understands everything in normal educated conversation except for very low-frequency items Understands everything, repetition only needed for one or two sentences or words during conversation	5	
Understands everything spoken for classroom communicative purposes Understands everything completely during the interview	6	
TOTAL		
LEVEL OF PROFICIENCY		

Foreign Service Institute (FSI) Weighting Table

Proficiency Description	1	2	3	4	5	6	
Pronunciation	0	1	2	2	3	4	
Grammar	6	12	18	24	30	36	
Vocabulary	4	8	12	16	20	24	
Fluency	2	4	6	8	10	12	
Comprehension	4	8	12	15	19	23	
Total							

FSI Conversion Table

Total Score	Level of Proficiency
16 - 25	0+
26 - 32	1
33 - 42	1+
43 - 52	2
53 - 62	2+
63 - 72	3
73 - 82	3+
83 - 92	4
93 - 99	4+

Note: The FSI ratings use “plus” scores to indicate a position half-way between two levels. Thus, a person with a score of 2+ falls between level 2 and level 3.

Appendix 3 List of Guiding Questions for FGD

1. What do you think about the way the classes run in this semester? Are the materials interesting? Easy? Too easy/difficult?
2. What have you achieved regarding your English learning? How about your skills improvement? How about your confidence in using English? how about your public speaking skills?
3. What do you think about the teacher's role in the class?
4. What do you think about group work held in class? Did you enjoy the work? What have you learned from group work? How did you manage your group work?
5. What topics did you like best? Why? What topics did you dislike? Why?
6. What task was the hardest to do? Why? What do you think you had gained from completing hard tasks?
7. Do you think you experienced shift in use of strategies? In what ways? In general, what strategies do you think effective?