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溝通策略訓練對英語口語語意表達之影響

To Teach or not to Teach: The Effects of Communication Strategies Training on EFL University Students' Meaning Negotiation

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ABSTRACT

Learning a language is a difficult and long process and being able to use language for communication requires constant practice. No matter what learners' language proficiency is, it is impossible to avoid communication problems due to gaps in linguistic or lexical knowledge. The use of communication strategies (CSs) is one way to cope with these problems. For example, a learner might substitute an unknown language item for one existing in his or her repertoire, or describe its properties in order to explain the meaning to the interlocutor as closely as possible. Until now research investigating the use of CSs has yielded controversial results on whether it is necessary to teach various CSs to learners or not. The current study aims to investigate the effects of CS training in order to add empirical evidence to this controversy, answering 4 research questions: 1) Does training influence the frequency of CS use in total and by strategy type? 2) How many CS episodes are transferred to LREs before and after the training in total and by strategy type? 3) How do different types of tasks (i.e., highly controlled closed-ended tasks, less controlled closed-ended tasks, and minimum controlled closed-ended tasks) influence the frequency of CS use and transfer to language related episodes (LREs)? 4) What are learners' opinions about CS training and its effectiveness?

Thirty-two local and international EFL students from two prestigious universities in Taiwan participated in this experiment. They were 17 male and 15 female students with intermediate and high level of English language proficiency. The participants were divided into a control and an experimental group according to their availability and preference. The control group did not receive any treatment, while the experimental group attended a four-week course of CS training, specifically designed for the study. The main aim of the course was to increase the students CS

use, with particular attention paid to the CSs requiring high level of verbal engagement. The secondary aim of the course was to increase students' CS to LRE transfer. The course consisted of four training sessions with one session per week lasting for 90 minutes. In the course of training, the participants learned about six types of CSs (asking for repetition, mime, approximation, appeal for help, circumlocution and comprehension check) through video analysis, explicit instruction, awareness raising discussions and CS practice. A pretest and a posttest with three types of tasks (map task, spot the difference, and assemble the story) were conducted in order to investigate the effectiveness of the treatment. The participants' use of CSs and CS to LRE transfer was compared across two groups at two tests. The results of the current study suggest that the CS related training had a positive influence on the frequency of learners' CS use. It appears that the approximation and asking for repetition CSs were particularly influenced by the training. The findings also suggest that the training course did not have a positive influence on the CS to LRE transfer, since participants were not encouraged to focus on language and improve their English level through collaboration. The results also suggest that task type can influence the students CS use and CS to LRE transfer. Finally, the course effectiveness survey demonstrated that the learners viewed the course as effective and interesting. It is hoped that the results of this study will help teachers and educators to understand whether it is necessary to teach CSs, and will introduce a framework for effective teaching of CSs and provide pedagogical ideas to EFL teachers.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Overview

It is a well-known fact that learning a language is not easy, and English is not an exception. English language learners from all over the world struggle with acquiring its grammar, reading, writing, listening and speaking skills. Nowadays, speaking skills are often focused the most on in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classrooms, since one of the primary functions of a language is exchanging ideas and information and negotiating the meaning, in short – communication. However, reaching mutual understanding in communication often becomes a great challenge for EFL learners. Thus, in order to use language successfully for communication purposes, it is important to practice constantly and devote much time for learning; in other words, it is important to be a good learner. "The good language learner has a strong drive to communicate, or to learn from communication. He is willing to do many things to get his message across" (Rubin, 1975, p.46). This can be achieved through the use of learner's communicative competence, which includes various communication strategies (CSs). For example, a learner can use synonyms to substitute for unknown language items, or describe an unknown concept by the use of gestures, or simply ask an interlocutor for help.

Since the 1970s, CSs have played a pivotal role in a vast body of research. Early research on CSs attempted to define this notion, provide a systematic analysis of CSs, and categorize CSs into various types (e.g., Tarone, Fraunfelder, & Selinker, 1976; Gálvan & Campbell, 1979; Tarone, 1977; Bialystok, 1990). When more or less certain definitions of CSs and CS categories were established, many researchers focused on investigating the factors which influence the use of CSs, such as speakers' native language (e.g., Palmberg, 1979), proficiency level (e.g., Jourdain, 2000),

personality and learning style (e.g., Littemore, 2001), an attitude towards an accent (e.g., Lindemann, 2002), and task type (e.g., Poulisse & Schills ,1989; Ghout-Khenoune, 2012). Unill now the use of CSs remains a controversial field of study, and one of the biggest controversies is the necessity to teach CSs to learners of English. Some studies suggest that teaching CSs is not needed (e.g., Stern, 1987; Bialystok, 1990; Kellerman, 1991), others imply that teaching CSs is beneficial for language learners (e.g., Paribakht, 1986; Dörnyei, 1995; Faucette, 2001). However, not many researchers have gone further than simply discussing this matter and they have no attempted to prove their theories by experimentation. Thus, the current study attempts to apply an experimentally based evidence to the teachability of CSs.

Purpose of the Study

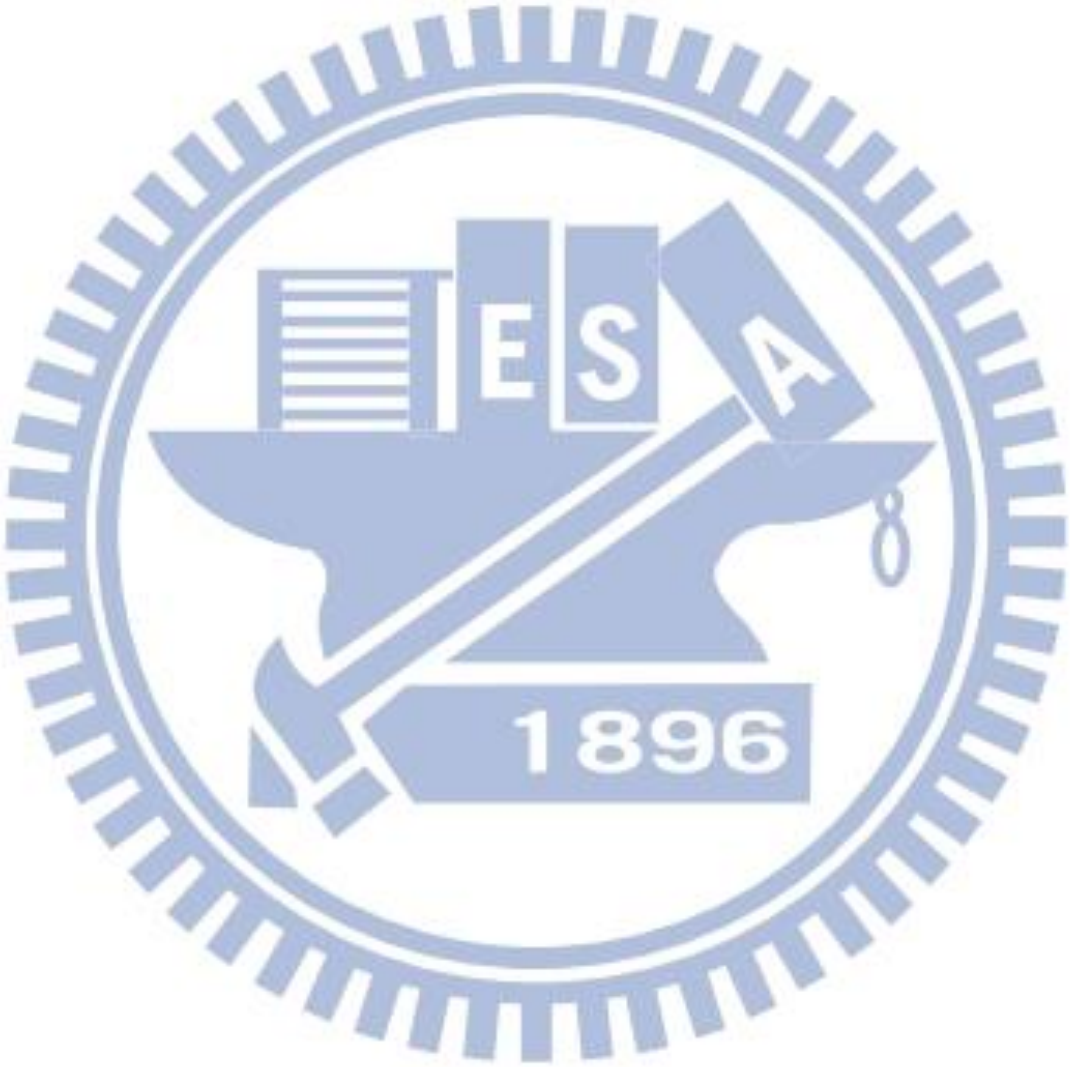
The current study aims to investigate the effects of CS teaching on the learners' use of CSs to negotiate the meaning as well as discover the attitude of the learners to the CS related training.

Given the research purposes, four research questions are proposed:

1) Does training influence the frequency of the use of CSs in total and by strategy type?
2) How many CS episodes are transferred to LREs before and after the training in total and by strategy type?
3) How do different types of tasks (i.e., highly controlled closed-ended tasks, less controlled closed-ended tasks, and minimum controlled closed-ended tasks) influence the frequency of CS use and transfer to LREs?
4) What are learners' opinions about the CS training and its effectiveness?

It is hoped that answering these questions will contribute to the existing questions on teaching CSs, and will tip the scale to one side of the argument on teaching CSs. In addition, the finding of this study might provide evidence as to the benefits of CS teaching. It is also hoped that the current

study will lead to a framework for effective teaching of CSs and provide pedagogical ideas to EFL teachers.



CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

The current chapter reviews previous research in the area of CSs and CS teaching. First, the notion of strategic competence is introduced, since CS research takes its roots in studying strategic competence. Second, the chapter discusses the notion of CS, providing its definitions, reviewing its theoretical perspectives and categorizing CSs into various types. Then the notion of LRE is presented to the readers' attention. The following sections of the chapter address the controversy of CS teachability by discussing reasons against and for CS teaching as well as presenting factors contributing to the controversy. The final section describes how the current study is different from the previous ones and what it adds into the CS research area.

Strategic Competence

Some learners can communicate effectively even with a very limited language proficiency. At the beginning stages of language learning they have to accommodate their insufficient language knowledge in order to successfully transmit the intended message to an interlocutor by using their strategic competence. Strategic competence is best known through widely accepted theory of Canale and Swain (1980), where it is referred to as a component of a broader notion of communicative competence along with grammatical and sociolinguistic competence. However, strategic competence is often paid less attention to by educators than the other two components of communicative competence. According to the study conducted by Faucette in 2001, who examined 40 textbooks and teachers' resource books, 23 of them did not include any practice addressing the development of strategic competence at all, while the remaining 17 only offered few effective activities on CSs.

Strategic competence has been defined as "verbal and non-verbal communication strategies that may be called into action to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to performance variables or to insufficient competence" (Canale & Swain, 1980, p.30). Thus, strategic competence is the ability of learners to transfer the meaning effectively to their communication partners when they encounter difficulties in the process of conveying the message. Since the problem in communication may appear in first (L1) and second (L2) languages, strategic competence is relevant for both of them. Therefore, when native and non-native speakers of a language encounter the same problem, they tend to handle it in a similar manner (Bongaerts & Poulisse, 1989). However, communication breakdowns tend to appear more often in a foreign language, rather than in L1. Therefore, developing strategic competence should be crucial for EFL learners. Moreover, lack of strategic competence can turn even a grammatically competent students with wide range of vocabulary into incapable speakers. In contrast, some learners can communicate effectively with a limited range of vocabulary, completely relying on their strategic competence.

As a result, some researchers believe that strategic competence has to be paid attention to by teachers, especially in EFL classrooms, where limited language input makes it impossible to reach high abilities in communication in a short period of time. For example, O'Malley (1987) supports the idea to develop students' strategic competence and suggests that "Future research should be directed to refining the strategy training approaches, identifying effects associated with individual strategies, and determining procedures for strengthening the impact of the strategies on student outcomes" (p.143).

Communication Strategies

Definition of Communication Strategies

Discussions of strategic competence inevitably mention the notion of CSs. Many researchers have argued about the proper definition of CS as well as their range and categorization. Until now there is no single universally accepted definition of CS.

In 1976, CS was defined by Tarone, Fraunfelder, and Selinker as "a systematic attempt by the learner to express or decode meaning in the target language (TL), in situation when the appropriate systematic TL rules have not been formed" (p.5). Later, Váradi (1980) proposed another definition of CS, i.e., "a conscious attempt to communicate the learner's thought when the interlanguage structures are inadequate to convey that thought" (p.195), which was agreed on by Corder (1981), who defined CS as "a systematic technique employed by a speaker to express his or her meaning when faced with some difficulty" (p. 03). However, Tarone (1981) claimed that previous definitions do not perfectly characterize CSs, since CSs are not necessarily 'systematic' and 'conscious'. Therefore, she attempted to define the CS through understanding of its purpose, i.e., "to compensate for some deficiency in the linguistic system, and focus on exploring alternate ways of using what one does know for the transmission of a message without necessarily considering situational appropriateness" (p.287). Thus, her definition of the CS is "an attempt to bridge the gap between the linguistic knowledge of the second-language learner and the linguistic knowledge of the target language interlocutor in real communication situations" (p.288).

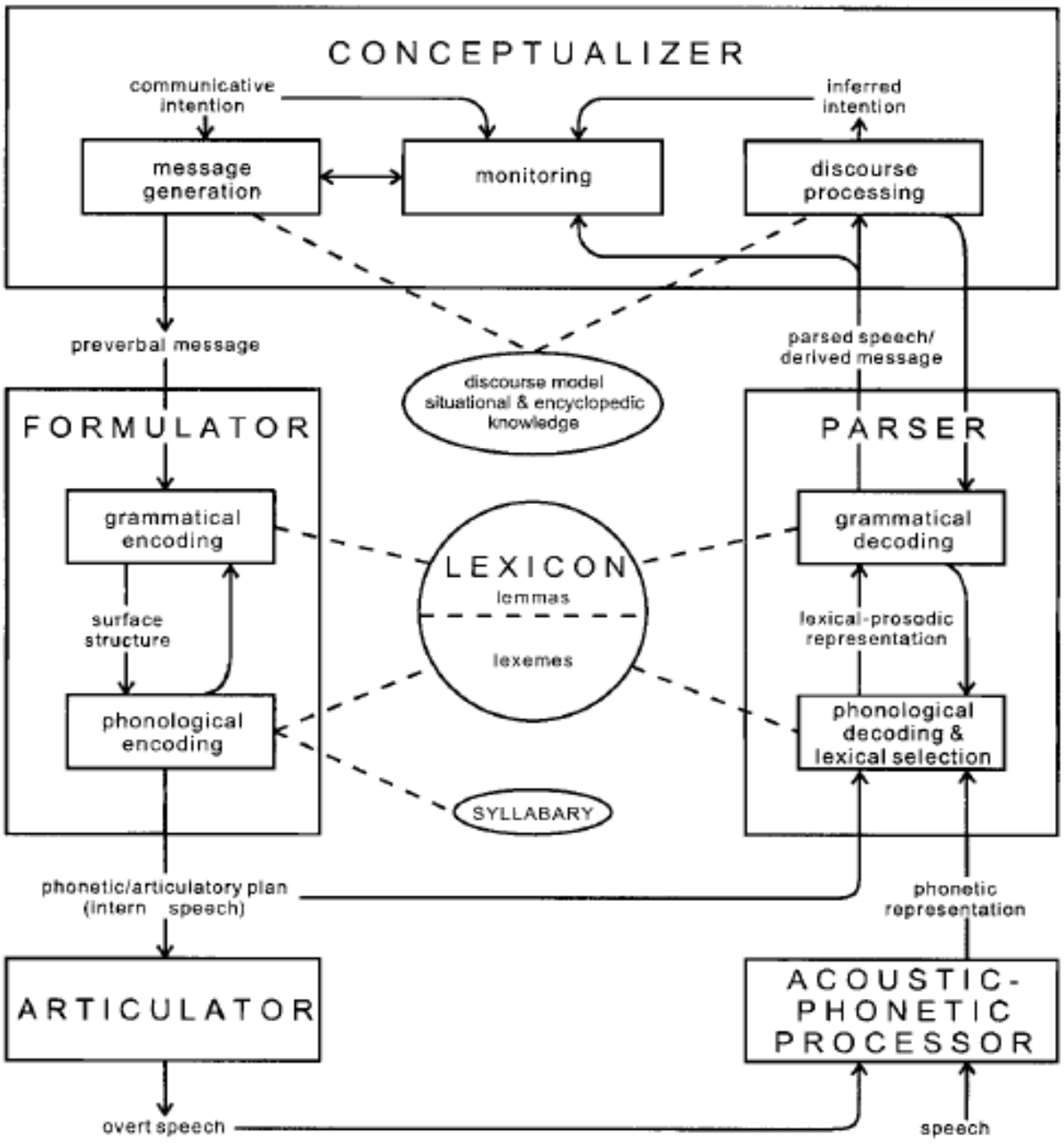
Theoretical Perspectives on Communication Strategies

One of the reasons why researchers still fail to agree on one definition of CS might be that they view CSs from two different theoretical perspectives: the psycholinguistic and the interactional.

Psycholinguistic perspective. The psycholinguistic view on CSs takes its roots in analyzing the cognitive processes involved in speech production of individuals based on the Levelt's (1993) model. The model distinguishes five processing components involved in the speech act (the conceptualizer, the formulator, the articulator, the acoustic-phonetic processor and the parser) along with three knowledge stores (the lexicon, the syllabary, and the discourse models, situational and encyclopedic knowledge store). Thus, according to Levelt's model, in order to produce speech, people first conceptualize the intended message, then encode it, and finally proceed to articulating it; in order to perceive speech, the received message is first analyzed by acoustic-phonetic processor, then it is decoded by the parser, and finally interpreted. However, these processes do not necessarily occur in a linear mode; on the contrary, they are more likely to work in the parallel manner. For example, as soon as one element of speech has been conceptualized by a speaker, it proceeds to the stage of being encoded by the formulator, no matter if the rest of the speech elements have been conceptualized or not. Therefore, a speaker may attempt to articulate the message before fully conceptualizing or encoding all its elements. Figure 1 describes the model of the processing components involved in speech production.

Figure 1

Model of the Processing Components Involved in Speech Production



Source: Levelt (1993, p.2 & 1995, p.14) as cited in Dörnyei & Kormos (1998, p.352)

Based on the processing components and the knowledge sources described in the model, researchers identified four areas of problems which can be encountered by a speaker: resource

deficit, processing time pressure, perceived deficiency in one's own language output, and perceived deficiency in interlocutor's performance (Dörnyei & Kormos, 1998). The resource deficit problem, which can occur in the conceptualizing and encoding stages, will force speakers to use CSs directed to bridge the gap in their lexical, grammatical or phonological knowledge. For example, in order to overcome the lexical knowledge gap, a speaker may attempt to describe or define an unknown language item (circumlocution CS). While attempting to cope with grammatical or phonological gap, one of the possible ways may be to reduce or simplify the intended message in order to avoid being misinterpreted (reduction CS). The second problematic area, processing time pressure, is especially relevant for L2 speakers, since the L2 speech production processing requires more time than the same processing in L1. Processing time pressure may cause the speakers to attempt to win more time for conceptualizing and encoding stages of speech production by using various time-gaining CSs. Perceived deficiency of one's own output, occurring in the monitoring and articulating stages of the speech production, are associated with self-correction CSs. In addition, a speaker may check the interlocutor's comprehension in order to establish whether a self-repair is necessary. Finally, the perceived deficiency of interlocutor's performance problem, occurring in speech perception processing, may cause a speaker to address the interlocutor in order to solve his/her own comprehension problems.

The psycholinguistic perspective on CSs goes further than simply relating the use of CSs to problems occurring during the speech production. Since it views CSs as a phenomenon related to cognitive processes of individuals, psycholinguistic perspective attributes the differences in choice of CSs by individuals to their cognitive styles: holistic and analytic. Riding et al. (1993) defines holistic cognitive style as an ability to see the 'whole picture' of a situation. Thus, the individuals with holistic cognitive style are more likely to use CSs which involve comparison of the global properties of a missing item and a known item. On the other hand, analytic cognitive

style is characterized by the ability to break a situation into smaller parts and make use of details. Therefore, individuals with analytic cognitive style may prefer CSs which require description of the appearance or specific functions of an unknown language item.

Littlemore (2001) in her study on the dependence between learner's cognitive style and the CS choice attempted to empirically support this theory. In her study 82 participants from Belgium firstly completed Riding's (1991) computer-based Cognitive Style Analysis test in order to determine their cognitive style. In the analytic part of the test, the participants were asked to find simple shape embedded in a complex one. In the cognitive part of the test, the participants were instructed to establish whether two complex shapes are same or different. According to the results of the test, the participants' were later divided into three groups: holistic, neutral and analytic. Next, the participants were asked to complete the task, where they had to record their description of several objects. They had to bear in mind that the described object should later be correctly interpreted and identified by English-speaking listeners. The CSs used by the participants in holistic and analytic groups were compared in order to test the hypothesis that the choice of CSs by a speaker is related to his/her cognitive style. The CSs based on comparison of an unknown item to another object were considered as holistic conceptual strategies. The CSs based on the description of an unknown item were categorized as analytic conceptual strategies. The results of the study indicated the participants with holistic cognitive styles used more holistic CSs than the participants from analytic group. One example of the CSs used by the participant with the holistic cognitive style is: "It reminds me of a shark", while talking about a swordfish (p.253). In this examples the speaker used an approximation CS, i.e., he or she used an alternative term to express the meaning of the unknown item as closely as possible. On the other hand, the analytic CSs were used more often by individuals with analytic cognitive style than by the individuals from holistic group. Some of the examples of the CSs used by the participants with analytic cognitive style are: "It's got big

teeth and it's very fat and erm it's grey", while talking about a walrus; and "It has no eyes, no wings, no legs, anything, it's only a body, usually black or brown", while describing a slug (p.253). These are the examples of the circumlocution CS, i.e., the speakers described the objects instead of using the language items. Therefore, the hypothesis about the relation of the CS choice to the cognitive style of an individual was supported by the study. Thus, if the choice of CSs is, indeed, dependent on the cognitive style of individual, CSs can be related to the cognitive processes of speech production as implied by the psycholinguistic perspective.

Therefore, from the point of view of psycholinguistic scholars, who focus on the cognitive processes of a learner encountering a linguistic difficulty, CSs are merely internal plans of individuals (e. g., Bialystok, 1990; Kellerman & Bialystok, 1997; Poulisse, 1993). As a result, psycholinguistic researchers view self-problem solving devices as CSs. Usually these devices do not involve much interaction with an interlocutor and result in a one-way conversation. Shortly, psycholinguistic perspective on CSs focuses on the range of problem-solving activities open to an individual (Kitajima, 1997).

Interactional Perspective. The interactional perspective on the CSs begins from Váradi's (1973) implication that in order to investigate the effect of CSs empirically it is necessary to analyze a learner's interaction with a native speaker. Therefore, in this view CSs are elements of discourse between a learner and a native speaker. Later, Tarone (1980) extended this view to interaction between two speakers, no matter whether one of them is a native speaker or not. Thus, she defines CSs as "a mutual attempt of two interlocutors to agree on a meaning in situations where requisite meaning structures do not seem to be shared" (p.420). Tarone's view is now widely accepted as interactional perspective on CSs. According to this perspective, the purpose to use CSs is meaning negotiation between two interlocutors rather than solving a production or comprehension problem of a single speaker. This view further suggests that the variable influencing the choice of CSs is

not necessarily a cognitive style of a learner, as suggested by psycholinguistic perspective, but the collaborative patterns between two individuals, which can be influenced by a variety of factors such as their character traits, attitudes to each other, and communication style. Furthermore, these factors can also influence the comprehension of CSs by interlocutors.

For example, the study by Lindemann (2002) investigated the relationship between native speakers' negative attitude toward a nonnative speaker and their comprehension of the nonnative speaker's speech. In this study the attitude of 12 native speakers towards the accent and culture of their Korean partners was assessed by a questionnaire. Later, the participants were asked to complete a map task with their partners, where the Korean learners of English were instructed to explain the route traced on their maps to the native speakers. The native speakers were instructed to draw this route on their maps according to the explanation of their partners. Because of the nature of the task, Korean learners of English used a wide range of CSs which were supposed to help them to convey the meaning to their partners. The nonnative speakers, also tended to use CSs in order to achieve mutual understanding with their partners. The patterns of interactions during the task completion were compared between pairs of participants which included native speakers with and without negative attitude toward their partners. The results indicated that the negative attitude of native speakers led them to have a less collaborative type of interaction than native speakers without a negative attitude, since they did not feel responsibility for the outcome of the task. As a result, they tended to use more CSs that reduced the meaning of the misunderstood language items or neglected to mention about any miscomprehension (avoidance CSs). For example, a native speaker, who was tracing the route on his map according to his partner's explanation, did not mention that one of the landmarks (factory) was missing on his version of the map, which resulted in an incorrect route tracing:

Korean speaker: Okay, once you reach the factory, go.. go to the right side straight? Then there is a castle.

Native speaker: Alright… yip.. I'm in the castle (p.427).

Therefore, the study suggests that the manner of interaction, which can be influenced by attitudes of participants, is related to the choice of CSs by the speakers. This leads to a conclusion that CSs, indeed, can be viewed as discourse elements between two speakers, as interactional perspective suggests.

Therefore, from the point of view of interactional perspective (e.g., Corder, 1978; Tarone, 1997) a CS user tries to negotiate the meaning with an interlocutor by actively participating in the interaction and attempting to involve the interlocutor in communication process, in other words using various help-seeking strategies. Thus, in the interactional perspective CSs are more likely to result in a series of meaning exchanges between two people, rather than a one-way interaction. Shortly, interactional perspective on CS focuses on the interaction between interlocutors and negotiation of meaning (Rost & Ross, 1991).

Types of Communication Strategies

Combining both psycholinguistic and interactional perspectives on CSs, it is possible to divide CSs into two broad categories – self-solving CSs and help-seeking CSs, where the former refer to individual attempts to solve an existing problem, and the latter refer to an attempt to negotiate the meaning with an interlocutor. Apparent from these two types, CSs has often been categorized into avoidance, or reduction strategies, achievement, or compensatory strategies, and stalling, or time-gaining strategies.

Avoidance strategies "reflect learners' negative behavior as they try to avoid solving communication difficulties" (Nakatani, 2005, p.81). Thus they "involve either an alteration, a reduction, or complete abandonment of the intended meaning" (Dörnyei, 1995, p.57). Obviously,

this type of strategies does not lead to successful meaning transmission, but can be used by learners in order to slip some unimportant messages for ease of communication. Avoidance strategies include such CSs as message abandonment, topic avoidance, semantic avoidance and message reduction and L1 related strategies. These strategies are often used by low-proficiency learners, since they do not have sufficient language competence to communicate effectively. In contrast, achievement strategies "present learners' active behavior in repairing and maintaining interaction" (Nakatani, 2005, p.81). Therefore, they offer alternative plans for the speakers to carry out their original communicative goal by manipulating available language, thus compensating somehow for their linguistic deficiencies" (Dörnyei, 1995, p.57). Achievement strategies include such CSs as circumlocution, approximation, use of all-purpose words, word-coinage, use of nonlinguistic means, appeal for help, clarification requests and others. These strategies are often used by more advanced language learners, who have sufficient resources to convey the meaning to an interlocutor. Stalling, or time-gaining strategies functionally differ from the other two types, since they do not serve the purpose to compensate for a gap in interlanguage, but are used to "gain time and to keep the communication channel open at a time of difficulty" (Dörnyei, 1995, p.57). Stalling strategies include the use of fillers and hesitation devices. The types of CSs and their definitions are summarized in Table 1.

Table 1

Types of CSs, Definitions and Examples

Type	Definition
Avoidance or Reduction CSs	
1. Message abandonment	A speaker stops talking about a concept before reaching the communicative goal.
2. Topic avoidance	A speaker avoids topic areas or concepts which pose language difficulty.
3. Semantic avoidance	A speaker says something different from what was originally intended.
4. Message reduction	A speaker reduces the original message, reporting the same idea but with less precision in detail.
L1 related strategies	
1. Borrowing	A speaker uses an L1 item or structure modified in accordance with features of the target language.
2. Code switching	A speaker uses an L1 item or structure with no modification at all.
Achievement or Compensatory CSs	
Paraphrase	
1. Circumlocution	A speaker describes an object or action instead of using the appropriate target language item.
2. Approximation	A speaker uses an alternative term which expresses the meaning of the target lexical item as closely as possible.

3. Word coinage	A speaker creates a new word following the target language rules of derivation and composition.
4. Use of all-purpose words	A speaker extends a general, empty lexical item to contexts where specific words are lacking.
Nonlinguistic strategies	
1. Mime	A speaker uses a gesture or any other paralinguistic form.
2. Sound imitation	A speaker substitutes the target words by the sound associated with it.
Help-seeking CSs	
1. Appeal for help	A speaker turns to the conversation partner for help.
2. Asking for repetition	A speaker asks partner to repeat preceding utterance.
3. Confirmation checks	A speaker asks partner for confirmation.
4. Comprehension check	A speaker checks comprehension with the partner.
5. Clarification request	A speaker asks partner for clarification of preceding utterance.
Maintenance CSs	
6. Providing active response	A speaker provides positive comments or uses other conversational gambits.
7. Shadowing	A speaker presents exact, partial or expanded repetition of the interlocutor's preceding utterance.
Stalling or time-gaining CSs	
1. Use of fillers	A speaker uses filling words to fill pauses and to gain time.

Sources: Dörnyei (1995), Fernández Dobao (2007), Nakatani (2005).

The existence of different types of CSs leads to a question about how these strategies are being chosen by language speakers. In addition to the factors mentioned before (cognitive styles and collaborative patterns) researchers investigating how speakers choose the CSs established two views on this matter: proficiency position and context position. According to proficiency position learners' language proficiency is the key predictor of CS choice (Bialystok & Frohlich, 1980). Thus, beginning learners, who might not have enough linguistic knowledge to modify their message, might prefer to use reduction strategies rather than achievement strategies. This view is supported by Nakatani (2005), who claims that 'avoiding solving communication difficulties' is a typical behavior of low proficiency learners. Therefore, it is expected that advanced learners will be more eager to reach the communication goal by using achievement strategies. However, not all researchers agree with this view; for example Labarca & Khanji (1986) claim that high-proficiency learners, who possess more diverse lexical repertoire, are assumed to have less need for the linguistic 'escape hatch' that compensatory strategies, provide. Therefore, it is possible to conclude that the proficiency level itself cannot predict the learners' choice of CSs. In contrast to proficiency position, researchers who support context position, view strategy choice by speakers as a 'function of task type, text type, and setting" (Rost & Ross, 1991, p.264). Therefore, depending on the goal and nature of the task, and also settings in which task is completed, language learners can make different CS choices. Obviously, such complex decision as choosing an appropriate CS cannot depend on only one factor; therefore, both proficiency and context position may be true to some extent. Moreover, they cannot exclude a possibility of existence of other factors influencing the choice of CSs.

Effect of CS Use: Language Related Episodes

As it was previously mentioned, CSs are aimed to help learners to overcome the linguistic difficulties, which can occur in the course of interaction, in order to reach the communicative goal.

Therefore, the use of a CS which leads to effective meaning negotiation can be considered successful. However, CS use can also lead to adjusting the speakers' interlanguage and learning new aspects of language, since a CS episode can transform to language related episode (LRE) when interlocutors negotiate the meaning and attempt to reach communicative goal together, i.e., participate in the collaborative dialogue.

According to Swain (2000) collaborative dialogue, i.e., "the interaction of a group of students which leads to collaborative solving of a problem", can result in language learning (p.97). Collaborative dialogue can be triggered by a CS episode if it involves collaboration between two interlocutors. However, the interlocutors may choose to focus on the meaning negotiation only, since it should be enough for reaching the communicative goal, or they can also attempt to establish the appropriate lexical or linguistic form. In the latter case CS episode is transformed into an LRE, which is defined by Swain and Lapkin (1998) as a collaborative problem-solving activity involving interlocutors to search for a new lexical item, or establish the meaning of an unknown item together. Further on, LREs were categorized into two types: successfully and unsuccessfully resolved by Fernández Dobao (2012). She considered the LRE as successfully resolved if the interlocutors involved in it could successfully find the correct lacking form. Thus, this type of LRE is more likely to lead to further language learning. Following is an example of a successfully resolved LRE:

Sara: the child is touching his… the place behind the mouse, heh, heh.

Olga: chin?

Sara: his chin, sí ('yes'), yes (p.239).

On the other hand, learners who failed to identify the missing language item, or agreed on the incorrect form were claimed to resolve the LRE unsuccessfully, which can lead to misinterpreting the message and establishing wrong idea about the missing target item. Following

in an example of unsuccessfully resolved LRE, where two learners agreed on the incorrect form of the unknown language item:

Ana: in the jacket, he has… some kind of…

Emily: an emblem? A letter?

Ana: like a button… in a side, I don't know how to explain it

Emily: oh! okay okay… so he has a, … a buttonhole (p.241).

Taking a closer look at Fernández Dobao's study, it can be further seen that there are factors which influence the nature of collaborative dialogue and the frequency of occurrence of LREs. The study investigated the influence of the presence of a native speaker in a collaborative dialogue, and the learners' proficiency level on the frequency and the nature of LREs. Twenty four learners and 8 native speakers of English participated in the experiment. They were paired into the four dyads of intermediate language learners, four dyads of advanced language learners, four dyads of intermediate language learners and native speakers, and four dyads of advanced language learners and native speakers. Then, they were asked to complete a spot-the-difference communicative task. Later the transfer of CS episodes into the LREs was compared across the dyads. The results indicated that lexical problems occurred more often in the learner-learner interaction, but these problems were more likely to trigger the collaborative dialogue and cause the CS episode to evolve into LREs in a learner-native speaker interaction. Thus, it was suggested that the presence of a native speaker has a positive influence on the frequency of successfully resolved LREs and the nature of collaborative dialogue. The findings also suggested that the interaction between intermediate language learners triggers more LREs than the interaction between advanced learners. Furthermore, it was suggested that LREs were more likely to occur in a pair of learners with different proficiency levels, where one learner is more competent than the other. Another important suggestions made by Fernández Dobao is that LREs are more likely to be successfully resolved in

a more collaborative interaction type rather than in the one where learners behave more independently.

These suggestions made by Fernández Dobao can also be seen in earlier research. First, the influence of the differences of proficiency level on the students' language development was thoroughly investigated by Vygotsky (1980) and resulted in a zone of proximal development (ZPD) theory. According to Vygotsky, a student can gradually develop an ability which has not matured by communicating with a more competent peer. Thus, native language speakers and learners with higher proficiency level can assist low achievers with filling the gaps in their interlanguage. Second, Storch (2004) mentioned that different goals set by language learners can have different outcomes in their conversation styles. The researcher explained that different goals and motives can lead to different patterns of collaborative behaviors between the participants.

Other studies investigating LREs found out that the different task types can lead to different number of LREs occurring in the conversation. The study by Storch (1998) indicated that learners' attention to form varied quantitatively across task types. Later, in 2001 Storch found that the students tended to focus on form more in the cloze and text reconstruction tasks than the text composition task. In addition, a task difficulty can also influence the LREs occurrence. According to Kim (2009) high-proficiency language learners tend to engage in more LREs in more complex tasks, while learner with lower proficiency levels tend to engage in more LREs in tasks with lower complexity levels.

Teachability of Communication Strategies

Since use of CSs can lead to further language learning, then it might be beneficial for language learners to be instructed on the use of CSs. However, until now there is a great controversy on whether it is necessary to teach CSs. Yule and Tarone (1997) described two types of researchers, who view the teachability of CS differently: 'cons' and 'pros'. 'Cons', or 'conservative' view often

compares the learner's performance in L2 and L1, finding many similarities, which leads researchers, supporting this view, to stand against the teaching of CSs, because of the strategic transfer between learners' L1 and L2. In contrast, 'pros' , in other words 'proponents', support the idea of teaching CS based on the research compering performance of L2 speakers and native speakers, which have many differences.

Conservative View on CS Teaching

The researchers who hold the view against teaching CSs often argue that CSs can be acquired through experience of using a language. Since CSs are already present in learner's L1, they will gradually transfer into his or her L2 with more meaningful practice. Therefore, CSs are more likely to be acquired through real-life communication situations, rather than meaningless classroom practices (Stern, 1987). This argument might be true few decades ago, when audio-lingual method was still firmly held in many EFL classrooms, paying more attention to the grammar drills and pronunciation rather than meaningful activities. However, nowadays with the gaining popularity of communicative language teaching, which brings meaningful practices and authentic materials to classrooms, CSs can be acquired in classroom activities not worse than in real-life communication. Moreover, EFL students do not have many opportunities to use language outside the classroom, thus, classroom practices become one of the few, if not the only one, chances for CS acquisition. Therefore, Stern's point of view might be considered as irrelevant for EFL context.

Another argument against teaching CSs comes from viewing CSs as underlying psychological processes, where CSs are means of coping with one of four types of problems occurring in speech production and perception mechanism. Thus, focusing on surface structures of CSs will not necessarily lead to enhancing strategy use or learner's ability to communicate. Moreover, limited language proficiency may not allow learners' to use CSs, since their linguistic repertoire might not be sufficient for coping with linguistic difficulties. On the other hand,

enhancing students' overall proficiency will provide learners with more opportunities to bridge the gap in their interlanguage. This argument is strongly supported by some researchers. For example, Bialystok (1990) claims that, "The more language the learners know, the more possibilities exist for the system to be flexible and to adjust itself to meet the demands of the learner. What one must teach students of a language is not strategy, but language" (p.147). Furthermore, "There is no justification for providing training of compensatory strategies in the classroom… Teach the learners more language and let the strategies look for themselves" (Kellerman, 1991, p.158). This argument is, certainly, difficult to argue with, since teaching more language is the primary goal of each EFL classroom. Furthermore, the higher language proficiency is reached by the learner, the less is his or her need to use CSs, since the gaps in communication are less likely to occur. On the other hand, gaining high proficiency takes more than one week, or even one year. Learning a language is a long and difficult process, thus, students with lower language proficiency might benefit from knowledge of appropriate use of CSs while they are on their way to reach higher proficiency.

Proponent View on CS Teaching

The team of researchers, who support the teaching of CSs, grows bigger with occurring of more empirical evidence. One of the first proponents of teaching CSs, Paribakht (1986) argued that possessing a certain amount of linguistic competence does not necessarily mean the ability to use this knowledge. Indeed, it is common to observe how a learner with great vocabulary size and good knowledge of grammar seems helpless in real face-to-face communication. The training of strategic competence may enhance the ability of learners to use their existing language knowledge, thus, resulting in further learning. Therefore, introducing the strategic component "would not only establish the fundamental syntactic structures and lexical items needed for the learner's negotiation of meaning, but will also start the learner on some communicative skills to be used in extended

communicative situations" (pp.59-60). The researcher further suggests that frequent strategy training tasks "will make the corresponding linguistic materials more easily accessible to the learners, and they can benefit from this in real communication situations inside and outside the classroom. Such practice may also promote learner's flexibility and enable them to integrate all their knowledge sources and use alternative means in transmitting their intended meanings" (p.60). In addition, Paribakht investigated the knowledge required to use a CS in order to support his view on CS teaching. He argued that "Providing L2 learners with the core notions and typical syntactic structures derived from the surface realization of CS may help them to overcome lexical gaps that call for the use of these strategies in communication situations" (pp.53-54). Next, "Providing learners with the lexical items needed to express notions such as physical properties should enable them to perform communicative act of defining a concept" (p.56). Paribakht also argued that providing metalinguistic training can encourage learners to cope with their lexical difficulties. Finally, the researcher viewed teaching of sentence patterns as a good tool to enable learners "to express the information utilized in the related strategies" (p.59).

Some researchers believe that training on achievement CSs may provide learners with the opportunity to use even limited existing knowledge to successfully transfer the meaning, thus, making speakers believe in their abilities to keep up the flow of conversation and reducing learners' anxiety to be misunderstood and fail communicative goal. This effect of CS training is highly valuable, since it is important for learners to feel confidence and not give up on intended goal of communication. Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991) suggest the following:

> A NNS's ability to keep a conversation going is a very valuable skill because by maintaining the conversation, the NNS can presumably benefit from receiving additional modified input. Indeed conversational maintenance is a major objective for language learners who regularly invoke communication strategies (p.126).

Furthermore, some researchers do not support the conservative argument about the unnecessary CS teaching because of strategic transfer between L1 and L2. Since every language learning experience is unique as well as the personality of every learner, it is difficult to predict learners' behavior in L2. Thus, even the strongest strategic base in L1 will not necessarily transfer to L2. Some learners may need teacher's facilitation in order to effectively use CSs. According to Faucette (2001):

> Even if learners already have communication strategies in L1 or target language, they may not use them often enough, appropriately, efficiently, and spontaneously in L2. Thus there is a need for training to bring learner's attention to these strategies and help them become more aware of repertoire of strategies available to them, including those they may already make use of in the L1. Instruction could also help learners develop and automatize more effective strategies to fit in the appropriate situation (pp.5-6).

One of the first quantitative studies which directly addressed the issue of CS teachability was conducted by Dörnyei in 1995. The researcher investigated the effects of specific CS training on the frequency of the use of this CS, quality of the CS in actual language use and students' speech rate. He also examined the students' attitudes toward strategy training usefulness and the influence of students' initial proficiency level on the success of strategy training. In Dörnyei's study, 109 students were divided into experimental and control groups. The experimental group received a 6 weeks strategy training, which focused on avoidance CSs, circumlocution and use of fillers. The students in this group were trained to go off the point, evade answers and steer the conversation in given direction when practicing the avoidance CSs. When taught circumlocution CS, the students compared definitions of different dictionaries and analyzed their structures. Finally, the participants were trained on use of fillers by collecting and classifying the fillers, inserting them into dialogue, lengthening dialogue turns, and matching fillers with emotions and moods. The control groups, on

the other hand, either did not receive any treatment at all, or received conversational training, but with no formal strategy instruction. The comparison of the students' scores on the pretest and posttest, which included TOEIC and oral test, consisting of topic description, cartoon description and definition formulation, showed promising results. The treatment group improved the quality of definitions and speech rate, and increased the use of circumlocution and fillers. According to Dörnyei, these improvements of participants after strategy training are the consequence of direct approach with focus of metacognitive instruction. This empirical evidence undoubtedly supports the proponents' point of view on CS teaching. However, this study only focused on CSs for solving learners' own performance problems, which do not require interaction between the learners. Thus, the study excluded the types of cooperative negotiation behaviors, which can lead to further learning through transfer of CS episodes into the LREs. Moreover, the study did not describe the training course on CSs in details, thus, not letting the teachers incorporate it in their classrooms. Therefore, although the study presents empirical evidence in favor of CS teaching, it suggests few pedagogical implementations.

Ten years later, Nakatani (2005) attempted to fill the gap in Dörnyei's research by investigating the influence of awareness-raising training on oral-communication strategy use. He examined how explicit instruction on CSs affects students' overall speaking proficiency, their discourse behavior and their perception of the strategy training course. Sixty-two female students from private college in Japan participated in the study. They were divided into treatment and control group. The former received the 12-week Cs training with focus on achievement and reduction strategies, which included both self-solving and interactional CSs. The training consisted of review of previously learned strategy, presentation of a new CSs, rehearsal of a role play involving the use of target CSs, performance of the role play and evaluation stages. The latter group received communicative task based instruction with no specific strategic focus. Based on the

comparison of the results on pretest and posttest, which included a role play based on imaginary situation and retrospective verbal protocol, it was found that students in treatment group significantly improved their overall speaking proficiency. The results also suggest the increase in use of some strategies for negotiation in order to solve communication difficulties. Thus, Nakatani suggests that explicit strategy training is beneficial for enhancing the use of CSs and develop the target language interaction of EFL learners. However, this study can also be further improved by including detailed description of the CS training course.

Dörnyei (1995) and Nakatani (2005) were among first empirical studies investigating the effects of CS related training on the speakers CS use and overall English skills. Later, several other studies contributed to this research area with further empirical evidence. Naughton (2006) investigated the effects of so called Cooperative Organization of Strategies for Oral Interaction (COSOI) program, specifically designed for the study, on the 45 Spanish students' use of clarification request, self- and other-repair, and appeal for help. The program included explicit strategy teaching, which focused on form and function, and a strategy practice. The study revealed that COSOI program was largely successful in encouraging the students to engage in more CSs. Next, Maleki (2007) compared the effects of language teaching with two different textbook (one with and one without specific CS activities) on 60 Iranian students' language use. The results of the written and oral tests, which were taken by the students after a four month teaching period, suggested that CSs are pedagogically effective. The students, who were taught with the textbooks incorporating CS training used CSs more effectively and intensively. Finally, a recent study by Teng (2012), investigated an effect of CS training on variety of achievement and reduction strategies. After a 15 week CS training, which included explicit instruction, awareness-raising discussions and role-play practices, the results of oral test suggested that Taiwanese EFL college students tended to use significantly more CSs after receiving a CS related instruction.

Factors Contributing to the Existence of CS Teachability Controversy

The existence of strongly opposing views on CS teachability naturally lead to the question of which factors contribute to such controversy. In his review of this matter, Dörnyei (1995) proposes three factors leading to CS teachability controversy: indirect evidence, variation within CSs and the notion of teaching.

Dörnyei argues that there is little research investigating systematic strategy training, and the research which does concern with CS training present 'indirect' or 'inconclusive' evidence either against, or in favor of CS teachability. Furthermore, he suggests that these studies do not present generalizable results, since they are too narrow in scope in terms of strategy selection, or number of participants.

Furthermore, the studies devoted to investigating the controversy of CS teaching often vary in the strategies chosen as a focus. Thus, the studies which focus on training of avoidance strategies are likely to present evidence against CS training, since the nature of avoidance strategies does not suggest learners' positive behavior for this type of CSs encourages learners to avoid coping with existing communication difficulties. This naturally leads to failing to reach communicative goal by interlocutors. In contrast, the studies focusing on for example circumlocution CS are likely to favor the strategy-related training, since the use of circumlocution strategy presumes the production of longer utterances, which may lead to a more successful meaning negotiation.

Finally, Dörnyei argues that the notion of teaching itself is too broad and can be interpreted in various ways. For example, some researchers may view teaching as raising learners' awareness about the nature and communicative potential of CSs. Some may refer to teaching as providing L2 models through demonstration, or teaching CSs directly by presenting the students with certain linguistic devices for CS use. Some investigators may think of teaching as highlightening cross cultural differences in the use of CSs. Others may simply view teaching as providing practice

opportunities. Therefore, the combination of some interpretations of notion of teaching may lead to positive and promising results of CS training, while others may lead researchers to argue against implementation of CS training.

Filling the Gaps in Previous Research

The controversy on CS teachability has not been resolved up to this day. To my best knowledge, there is still only limited evidence either against, or in favor of the CS teachability issue. Therefore, more conclusive empirical evidence is required in order to make a further step into the direction of resolving this argument. The existing empirical studies have research gaps that need to be filled for making generalizable conclusions. The studies reviewed in this chapter focus on several CSs, but fail to take into consideration various CS types, and include detailed description of the training course. For example, the study by Dörnyei (1995) only focused on self-solving strategies, ignoring the interactional nature of some strategies, and failed to provide detailed description of the incorporated CS training course. In addition, the investigation by Nakatani (2005), which included both self-solving and interactional strategies, did not describe the CS training course in details, thereby, making it impossible to replicate the study in different settings. In addition, very few studies, if any, focusing on CS training took into consideration the notion of LRE and investigated how the teaching of CSs influences on the transforming of CS episodes into the LREs. Furthermore, few CS studies incorporated various types of tasks in their research design, making it impossible to understand how different types of tasks influence the use of CSs. Finally, the existing theoretical articles, which review the notion of CS and argue about different CS taxonomies, have not viewed the different types of CSs in terms of the verbal engagement, which the use of particular CS requires. For example, it is obvious that CS such as mime requires minimum language use, while the circumlocution CS can involve learners in a very active verbal communication.

Therefore, the current study aims to provide evidence examining the effect of CS teaching by focusing on both self-solving and help-seeking types of CSs, though ignoring avoidance strategies, since this type of CSs obviously does not lead to better meaning negotiation. In fact, it is doubtful whether avoidance strategies can be considered as CSs at all, since they do not help speakers to reach communicative goals and solve interlanguage gaps. Next, the current study takes a closer look on the evolution of CS episodes into LREs, since this process may lead to further language learning in addition to simple meaning negotiation. Furthermore, the study incorporates three different types of task in order to address the issue of the task type influence on CS use. Finally, the study viewed the CSs in terms of the required verbal engagement of each CS use, since it is important to promote learners language use, thus, paying more attention to strategy types which lead to higher verbal engagement may benefit learners' speaking proficiency.

CHAPTER THREE

METHOD

Research Design

The current study employed a quasi-experimental design. The control group did not receive any treatment, while the experimental group received a course of CS training. The training course designed for the study aimed to increase the students' use of CSs which require higher level of verbal engagement. The participants in both groups took a pretest in order to measure the initial comparability of their use of CSs. The posttest was designed for measuring the effects of the treatment. The results of pretest and posttest were compared across two groups. By incorporating this design, the current experiment aimed to explore the effect of the CS related training on the participants' use of CSs to negotiate the meaning. More precisely, the study attempted to answer four research questions:

1) Does training influence the frequency of the use of CSs in total and by strategy type?
2) How many CS episodes are transferred to LREs before and after the training in total and by strategy type?
3) How do different types of tasks (i.e., highly controlled closed-ended task, less controlled closed-ended task, and minimum controlled closed-ended task) influence the frequency of CS use and transfer to LREs after the training?
4) What are learners' opinions about the CS training and its effectiveness?

Participants

The current study recruited 32 undergraduate and graduate students, who were receiving their Bachelor or Master's degree in two prestigious universities in Taiwan, to participate in the experiment. The participants included 20 Taiwanese students, and 12 international students. All the participants spoke a language different from English as their L1. The international participants were eight students from Ukraine, who speak Ukrainian and Russian languages as their L1; one student from Belarus, who speaks Russian as her L1; two students from Nicaragua and one from Guatemala, whose native language is Spanish. The ages of the students varied from 19 to 40 years old, with the mean age of 23.6 years old. They had a similar English proficiency level, i.e. high-intermediate or advanced, according to English proficiency tests such as TOEFL, TOEIC, or participants' self-report. Furthermore, none of the participants was engaged in English speaking related courses during the experiment to ensure the reliability of the results. The personal information of the participants, including their gender, age, educational background, years of English language learning, proficiency level, living in English speaking environment etc. was collected by a questionnaire (see appendix A) and partially presented in table 2.

Table 2

Demographic Information of the Participants

Information/ Group	Control group	Experimental
Total Number	16	16
Nationality (*n*)	Taiwan (10) Ukraine (4) Belarus (1) Nicaragua (1)	Taiwan (10) Ukraine (4) Guatemala (1) Nicaragua (1)
Gender (*n*)	Male (7) Female (9)	Male (10) Female (6)
Native language (*n*)	Mandarin Chinese (10) Ukrainian & Russian (4) Russian (1) Spanish (1)	Mandarin Chinese (10) Ukrainian & Russian (4) Spanish (2)
Self- reported proficiency level (*n*)	Average (4) Good (9) Excellent (3)	Average (13) Good (1) Excellent (3)

The participants were assigned to a control and an experimental group according to their availability and preference. Each group consisted of 16 students. The control group did not receive any treatment, and only participated in the pretest and the posttest of the study. The experimental group engaged in a course of CS training, specifically designed for the current study.

Procedure

The design of the current study included a pilot study, pre-experimental procedures, pretest, training course, posttest, and post-experimental interviews.

Pilot Study

A pilot study was conducted one month before the investigation in order to see whether the materials prepared for the pretest and the posttest were suitable for the purpose of the current study, in other words, whether they elicited sufficient number of CSs. In addition, the pilot study was expected to help the researcher to estimate the approximate percentage of data needed for transcription during the experimentation.

An additional pair of international students, who did not take part in further investigation, participated in the pilot study. They were asked to complete three tasks (map, spot the difference and assemble the story) designed for the pretest and the posttest. After the task completion, they were asked whether the difficulty of the tasks was reasonable, and whether they needed a break between the tasks. The results of the pilot study demonstrated that the tasks were completed in different time spans: the map task required the most time for completion (around 20 minutes), followed by the spot the difference task (around 15 minutes) and the assemble the story task (around 7 minutes). Since the assemble the story task was completed in 6 minutes and 43 seconds, while the first and the last 30 seconds of the conversation were devoted to organizational aspects, only 5 minutes from the middle of the task seemed to be representative for the analysis of the CS use. In addition, it was decided that 5 minutes from the middle of each task would be transcribed for data analysis, since the design of the study called for comparison of CS use in three tasks. The total of 35 CS episodes was elicited from 15 minutes of data collected in all three tasks. This number lead to an assumption that 16 pairs of participants would engage in around 500 CS episodes, which is satisfactory for quantitative and statistical analysis. Thus, the 5 minutes time

spans seemed to be appropriate for data analysis in further investigation. In addition, the participants suggested that a 5-minute break between the tasks would give them time to rest and prepare for the next task. The results of the pilot study were satisfactory and allowed the researcher to move forward to the actual investigation.

Pre-experimental Procedures

First, the recruited participants were asked to sign a consent form to participate in the research (see appendix A for the consent form). The consent form was distributed in English to both local and international students, since the proficiency level of the participants allowed them to fully comprehend the terms and conditions of the experimentation described in the form. In addition, the researcher answered all the questions that the participants had about the procedure of the investigation. Then, the participants filled in the questionnaire, which included items about their personal information and their English language learning background (see appendix B for the questionnaire).

Pretest

After the participants were assigned to control and experimental groups, they were divided into pairs for participation in the pretest based on their time availability. The control group consisted of two pairs of local Taiwanese students, five pairs of Taiwanese and international students and one pair of international students. The experimental group consisted of three pairs of local Taiwanese students, four pairs of Taiwanese and international students and one pair of international students. The participants were not aware of the research purpose in order to assure natural communication between them during the experiment.

The pretest consisted of three tasks: map task, spot-the-difference, and assemble the story. In the map task the pair of participants were presented with a set of two maps, one with a traced route and another one without a route. In addition, the maps in a set had some variations, for example,

some of the symbols on the maps representing the same location were different, while some of them were absent on one version of the map and present on another. One of the participants in the pair was instructed to describe the route to his/her partner, who had to trace the route on his/her version of the map according to the explanation. This task is a highly-controlled closed ended task, since its outcome is concrete – tracing the route on the map; moreover, the vocabulary used during the task completion is predicted by the symbols depicted on the maps, and the direction of the task completion is also predefined by the route traced on the map. The map (appendix C) used for the task was taken from Lindamann (2002), who adopted the task from Anderson et al. (1984). The second set of map was designed by the researcher based on the same approach.

In the second task – spot-the-difference the participants were given two pictures which illustrated the same setting, but included minor differences. For example, one picture depicted an object, which was not present on its counterpart, or one picture included more objects of the same type than the other one. The participants were instructed to find the exact number of differences without showing the pictures to each other. This task is also a controlled closed-ended task, since the outcome of the task is concrete – find a certain number of differences; in addition, the vocabulary used in the task is highly dependent on the content of the pictures. However, spot-the-difference task is less controlled than the map task, since the participants may begin their description from any spot of the picture, and take any direction they prefer. The pictures set (appendix D) used for the task were taken from REEP (2003) and Mackey and Gass (1995).

In the last task – assemble the story, the students from each pair were presented with two versions of the story strips. Some parts of the story strips were absent on one version, while others were deleted from another version. Thus, the participants were instructed to describe their strips of the story to each other and after that create a story based on the strips. This task is less controlled than the other two, since the participants may interpret the story unpredictably. They also might

use their imagination in different ways in order to complete the story. The story strips (appendix E) were taken from Wright (2010).

A barrier was placed between two participants during the completion of each task to prevent them from seeing each other's materials. The task completion by each pair of participants was audio recorded and observed by the researcher. The sequence of the task completion was randomized for each pair of students. There was a short break between each task in order to give participants time to rest. Each pair of participants finished the pretest within 40 minutes. Collection of the pretest data for all pairs took 10 days.

Training

After the pretest was completed, the experimental group engaged in a course of CS training, which aimed to increase the students' frequency of use of the CSs which requiring higher level of verbal engagement. The second aim of the program was to increase the transfer of the students' CS episodes to the LREs, meaning that the students were not only encouraged to reach the point of understanding, but also to collaboratively find the missing item in their interlanguage. The training program focused on 6 strategies varying in the level of verbal engagement: low – mime and asking for repetition, medium – approximation and appeal for help, and high – circumlocution and comprehension check. Mime CS was categorized as a low-verbal engagement strategy in this study, because it does not require speakers to use any language; asking for repetition CSs requires speakers to use language minimally, since the participants only say short phrases or sentences, such as "What?", "Can you repeat?" and so on. Compared to mime, approximation CS was considered to be medium-level engagement strategy, since the speaker utilizing it may use several words to substitute for an unknown language item. Appeal for help CSs requires speakers to produce longer complete sentences, such as 'How do you call …?" than asking for repetition CS. Circumlocution and comprehension check require the highest level of verbal engagement, since the students are

expected to produce long complex sentences. Moreover, these strategies consist of two types: the strategies serving as a mean for learners to solve their own interlanguage gaps which are less communicative in nature (i.e., mime, approximation and circumlocution), and the strategies which involve addressing to an interlocutor, thus, being more interactive in nature (i.e., providing active response, appeal for help and comprehension check).

Training course content. The training course lasted for four weeks with one training session per week. Each session was 90 minutes. The students were informed about the aims and content of the course, notion of the CS and its types in session 1. In addition, session 1 activated students' existing knowledge about their use of CSs in both L1 and L2 by means of class discussion. It focused on the low-verbal engagement strategies: mime and asking for repetition. Thus, the students were trained to use non-verbal signals such as gestures and facial expressions in order to facilitate their meaning negotiation. They were also taught to ask an interlocutor for repetition by using various sentence patterns.

Session 2 focused on the strategies which required medium level of verbal engagement: approximation and appeal for help. Therefore, the students were taught to substitute the unknown language item for another one, which shares necessary semantic features to be correctly interpreted. The participants also learned different ways to ask an interlocutor for help in order to reach mutual understanding.

Session 3 focused on circumlocution CSs, which call for high level of verbal engagement. Therefore, after this session the participants were supposed to be able to effectively define or describe the characteristics of an unknown language item.

Session 4 focused on the comprehension check CS. In this session the students learned to check their comprehension with an interlocutor. This session also wrapped-up the knowledge received by students, summarized the six strategies learned in the course of training, as well as

discussed their effectiveness. A part of the class was devoted to the course effectiveness survey administration in order to discover students' opinions about the effectiveness of the course (see appendix F for the survey).

It is worth noting that the time devoted to CSs involving different level of verbal activity varied from one to two training sessions. The underlying rationale is to train students to use L2 in conversation as much as possible. Thus, CSs which require the highest level of verbal engagement, such as circumlocution and comprehension check, became a priority, since these strategies give speakers more opportunities for language use. On the contrary, CSs such as asking for repetition and mime received less attention, since they are viewed as means for supporting communication and do not involve much language use. Table 3 summarizes the content of the training course, and its aims.

Table 3

Content and aims of the Training Course

Session	Content	Aims
1	Introduction, mime and asking for repetition CSs	1. To inform the students about the aims and the content of the course. 2. To introduce the notion of the CS and its types. 3. To activate students' existing knowledge about their use of CSs in both L1 and L2. 4. To train the students to use non-verbal signals to facilitate meaning negotiation.

		5. To train the students to ask an interlocutor for repetition 6. To raise students' metacognitive awareness of mime and asking for repetition CSs.
2	Approximation and appeal for help CSs	1. To train the students to substitute the unknown language item for another one, which shares necessary semantic features to be correctly interpreted. 2. To train the students different ways to ask for help. 3. To raise students' metacognitive awareness of approximation and appeal for help CSs.
3	Circumlocution CS	1. To train the students' to define or describe the characteristics of an unknown language item. 2. To raise students' metacognitive awareness of circumlocution CS.
4	Comprehension check CS, wrap-up	1. To train the students to check their comprehension with an interlocutor. 2. To raise students' metacognitive awareness of comprehension check CS. 3. To wrap-up the knowledge received by the students. 4. To summarize the 6 strategies learned. 5. To discuss the effectiveness of CSs. 6. To find out students' opinions about the course by administrating the course effectiveness survey.

Stages of the Training Sessions and Activities. Each session involving the strategy training consisted of several stages: warm-up, strategy analysis, explicit teaching, presentation of vocabulary and sentence structures, metacognitive discussion, and practice.

In the warm-up stage the students were led to identify the strategy or strategies which were learned in the session. In the strategy analysis stage the participants were presented with videos related to the particular strategy use. The students, then, were asked to analyze the video and the CS in it. Next, the explicit teaching stage presented the students with the CS, its definition and examples, as well as its advantages, disadvantages and the difficulties related to the CS use. In the next stage, the participants were taught the useful vocabulary and sentence structures related to the strategy use, presented in a specifically designed worksheets. In the metacognitive discussion stage the students participated in group and class discussions to answer the questions related to the appropriate situations in which the CS can be used, and their own use of it. Finally, the practice stage required the students to participate in activities which facilitate their use of the strategy. During the metacognitive discussion and the practicing stages the participants often had to work in pairs. The pairs of students were changed in every class in order to give students as much variety in practicing as possible. These stages were designed to raise students' metacognitive awareness of the CSs, explicitly teach the CSs, provide the learners with opportunities to practice, and encourage their use of CSs. The stages of the training sessions and their procedures are summarized in Table 4.

Table 4

Procedures of the Training Sessions' Stages

Stage	Procedure
Warm-up	Identifying the strategy or strategies which will be learned in the session.
Strategy analysis	Watching and analyzing the videos related to the CS use.
Explicit teaching	Presentation of the CS, its definition and examples, advantages and disadvantages and difficulties related to the CS use.
Vocabulary and sentence structures presentation	Presentation of the vocabulary and sentence structures related to the CS use.
Metacognitive discussion	Discussing and analyzing the appropriate situations in which the CS can be used and the students use of CS.
Practice	Participation in the activities facilitating the use of the CS.

The activities varied according to the focus of the particular training session. For example, the tasks for mime strategy include charades and a show-what-you-say game. In the former activity, the students were asked to use their gestures and facial expression to show the concept to the other students without use of language. This game aimed to teach the students to use their non-verbal signals effectively when the item is missing in their interlanguage. The latter activity required students to use gestures as a support to what they were saying. The goal of this game was to train students to facilitate their language use with appropriate non-verbal signals. For the asking for repetition strategy, the participants were asked to participate in a role play in which they were asked to use the asking for repetition CSs. In the activities aimed to train students to use approximation strategy, they were asked to find synonyms or more general terms for the language items, while

the other students had to guess the correct language item. In the appeal for help activities, the students were asked to create a dialogue where one partner helped the other to resolve a problem. The activity for the circumlocution strategy required the students to describing the strange object or notion to the class, while the others had to guess the correct language item. In the activity for the comprehension check strategy the students were asked to engage in a paraphrase game, where each participant had to paraphrase a sentence said by the previous student.

Training Course Materials. During the course of CS training the participants watched several videos, which included the CS use, from YouTube. For example, a video "Asking for directions Part 1 – Lesson 16 – Vancouver English" (Vancouver English, 2012) demonstrated students the asking for repetition strategy, and "Mr. Bean Nonverbal Communication" (Atkinson, 2012) showed the students the use of the mime CS. Apart from the videos, students were also presented with dialogues for reading, which included the use of CSs (Appendix G). In addition, students received handouts with the definitions of the CSs and useful vocabulary at the end of each training session (Appendix H). Both the dialogues and the handouts were developed by the researcher for the CS training.

Posttest

After the experimental group finished the course of CS training, the posttest for both control and experimental groups was administered. The students completed the posttest in the same pairs as the pretest. Overall design of the posttest was identical to the pretest. Therefore, the students completed the three tasks again, but the materials used for the tasks were different from the posttest. Posttest procedures were finished within one week period.

Post-experimental interviews

After the data was collected on the pretest and the posttest, and the survey about the effectiveness of the course was administered, four students from the experimental group were asked

to participate in the interview. The participants chosen for the interviews were the students who improved in their strategy use the most and the least, as well as the students who evaluated the CS training as the most and the least effective. The students participating in the interview were asked to share their opinion about the training program and the CSs in general.

Data Analysis

A total of 20 hours of data was collected. Since the shortest time required for task completion was around six minutes, it was not reasonable to transcribe more than six minutes from each conversation. In addition, it was noticed that the first and the last 30 to 60 seconds of the conversations were usually used by the participants for getting to know each other, or to decide on some organizational moments such as which side of the picture to start or how to take turns during the task completion. Thus, only five minutes from the middle of each conversation of each task, which is 20 percent of data, were transcribed and coded by the researcher. The initial point of time of the data chosen for the transcription was calculated by the following formula: (T/2 – 2.5 minutes), where T stands for total time spent for task completion. Therefore, if the participants finished a task in 15 minutes, the data transcription for the task started at the fifth minute of the conversation (15/2 – 2.5).

The data was transcribed according to 'Jeffersonian' transcription conventions adapted from Schenkein (1978). The data coding followed a custom-made coding system designed for the current study based on the CS taxonomies used in Dörnyei (1995) and Nakatani (2005). If the transcribed conversations exhibited utterances which fit the definitions of CS types presented in the taxonomies, then the utterances were coded as one of the CS types. If one utterance contained more than one CS, then the CS use which required higher level of verbal engagement was counted. In addition, the turn following the CS use was taken into consideration. For example, if a speaker asked for repetition, but did not wait for a response, the utterance was not counted as asking for

repetition CS. The same principle was followed for appeal for help and comprehension check CSs (see Appendix I for coding examples).

In order to answer research question 1 (Does training influence the frequency of the use of CSs in total and specific to strategy type?), the total number of CS episodes and the CS episodes utilizing the six strategies investigated in the study was counted for each group at the pretest and the posttest. Then, these numbers were compared across two groups and two tests. In order to answer research question 2 (How many CS episodes are transferred to LREs before and after the training in total and specific to strategy type?) the number of LREs was counted in total and for each of six strategies on pretest and posttest for each group. Then, the percentage of LREs out of the CS episodes was compared across two groups and two tests. In order to answer question 3 (How do different types of tasks influence the frequency of CS use and transfer to LREs?) the number of CSs occurring in each type of task was counted at the pretest and the posttest for both groups. In addition, the percentage of CS episodes evolving into LREs was counted and compared for each type of task across two groups on a pretest and the posttest. . A paired sample t-test was carried out in order to evaluate whether the differences between the results on the pretest and posttest across two groups were significant, for the data which exhibited sufficient samples of CSs.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

The current chapter presents the results of the data analysis of the study. The chapter is divided into four sections. Each section aims to answer one of the four research questions of the study.

Research question 1: Does training influence the frequency of the use of CSs in total and by strategy type?

In order to examine whether the training influenced the frequency of the use of CSs in total and specific to strategy type, the overall number of CS use was counted for each pair of participants in the control and experimental groups at the pretest and the posttest. In addition, the quantity of occurrence of each CS type investigated in the study was counted separately for both groups in two tests.

Table 5 presents the descriptive statistics of overall CS episodes that occurred in the data. In addition, Figure 2 illustrates the differences in mean of CS use of the participants in the control and experimental groups in the pretest and the posttest. As can be seen in Table 5, the control group had a mean of 18.75 CS episodes in the pretest and 19.13 in the posttest. The experimental group had a similar mean of 18.25 CS episodes as the control group in the pretest, but a much higher mean of 31.25 in the posttest. Taking a closer look at the quantity of CS episodes which occurred in the conversations of each pair of participants in the experimental group at two tests, it can be noticed that some of the pairs had a greater improvement that the others. Thus, the level of increase in CS use in experimental group varies from the lowest increase of 1.5 times, as in EP7, to the highest of two times as in pair EP1. In order to examine whether these differences were statistically significant, a sample paired t-test was carried out. The analysis (see Table 5) demonstrated that the

difference in number of CS episodes in two tests of the control group was not significant (p = .528). On the other hand, the increase in CS use of the experimental groups from the pretest to the posttest was significant (p < .0001). Since the experimental group demonstrated a significantly higher improvement in the use of CSs from the pretest to the posttest than the control group, it can be inferred that the CS related training positively influences the frequency of CS use by the learners.

Table 5

Number, Mean and Standard Deviation of CSs for All Three Tasks in the Control and Experimental Groups at the Pretest and the Posttest

	Control group			Experimental group	
Pair №	Pretest	Posttest	Pair №	Pretest	Posttest
CP1	19	19	EP1	15	30
CP2	20	19	EP2	23	35
CP3	22	26	EP3	19	37
CP4	17	17	EP4	18	34
CP5	19	19	EP5	17	27
CP6	20	19	EP6	18	28
CP7	15	15	EP7	16	24
CP8	18	19	EP8	20	35
Total	150	153		146	250
Mean(*SD*)	18.75(2.12)	19.13(3.14)		18.25(2.49)	31.25(4.65)
p	.528			< .0001	

Note: Significant at $p < 0.05$ level

Figure 2

Mean of Overall CS Episodes in the Control and Experimental Groups at the Pretest and the Posttest

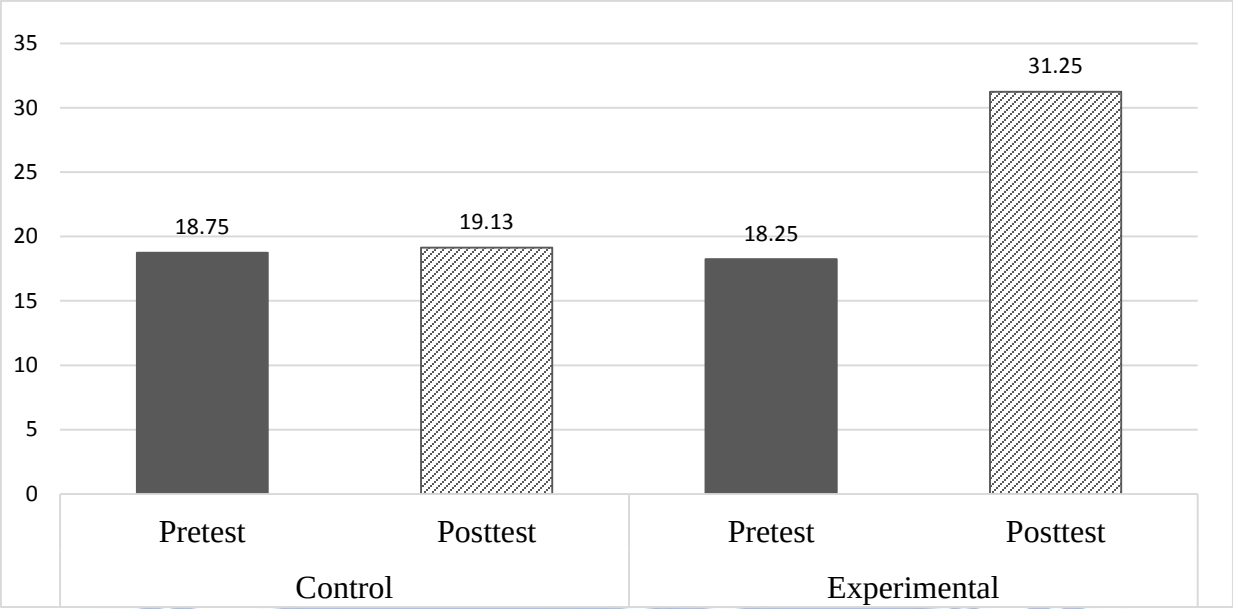


Table 6 presents the descriptive statistics of six types of CS episodes (asking for repetition, mime, appeal for help, approximation, circumlocution, comprehension check) that occurred in the data. It can be seen that the control group did not show any consistent pattern in difference of CS use from the pretest to the posttest. For example, the use of some types of the CSs, namely asking for repetition (pretest M = 1.5, posttest M = 2.75) and approximation (pretest M = 4.38, posttest M = 6.25) increased from the pretest to the posttest. In contrast, the number of occurrence of other types of CSs: mime (pretest M = 5.25, posttest M = 3.75), appeal for help (pretest M = 1.25, posttest M = 1.13), circumlocution (pretest M = 3.5, posttest M = 3.0) and comprehension check (pretest M = 2.88, posttest M = 2.25), – decreased. The experimental group, on the other hand, demonstrated a consistent pattern of increase in each type of CS use: asking for repetition (pretest M = 2.38, posttest M = 5.5), mime (pretest M = 4.0, posttest M = 5.25), appeal for help (pretest M =1.13,

posttest *M* = 1.88), approximation (pretest *M* = 4.25, posttest *M* = 9.88), circumlocution (pretest m = 2.75, posttest *M* = 3.38) and comprehension check (pretest *M* = 3.75, posttest *M* = 5.38). In order to test whether the differences between the CSs number in the pretest and the posttest were significant, a paired sample t-test was carried out. The analysis demonstrated (see Table 5) that the only significant difference in the results of the control group was the decrease in use of mime (p = .033). The difference in use of other types of CSs by the control group was not significant (asking for repetition p = .060, appeal for help p = .802, approximation p = 0.85, circumlocution p = .516, comprehension check p = .544). The experimental group demonstrated a significant increase in the use of asking for repetition (p = .032) and approximation (p < .0001). The increase in use of other types of CSs was not significant (mime p = .345, appeal for help p = .197, circumlocution p = .621, comprehension check p = .148). Thus it appears asking for repetition and approximation CSs were influenced the most by the CS training course.

Table 6

Number, Mean and Standard Deviation of Six Types of CS Episodes in the Control and Experimental Groups at the Pretest and the Posttest

		Control group		Experimental group	
		Pretest	Posttest	Pretest	Posttest
Asking for Repetition	Mean(*SD*)	1.5(0.93)	2.75(1.98)	2.38(2.13)	5.5(2.51)
	Total	12	22	19	44
	P	.060		.032	
Mime	Mean(*SD*)	5.25(2.92)	3.75 (1.83)	4(2.27)	5.25(2.25)
	Total	42	30	32	42
	P	.033		.345	

Appeal for help	Mean(*SD*)	1.25(1.04)	1.13(0.99)	1.13(1.13)	1.88(1.25)
	Total	10	9	9	15
	p	.802		.197	
Approximation	Mean(*SD*)	4.38(1.51)	6.25(2.12)	4.25(1.98)	9.88(2.36)
	Total	35	50	34	79
	p	.085		< .0001	
Circumlocution	Mean(*SD*)	3.5(1.69)	3(1.69)	2.75(1.91)	3.38(2.00)
	Total	28	24	22	27
	p	.516		.621	
Comprehension check	Mean(*SD*)	2.88(2.85)	2.25(0.89)	3.75(2.05)	5.38(2.39)
	Total	23	18	30	43
	p	.544		.148	

Note: Significant at $p < 0.05$ level

In sum, the results demonstrated a significant increase in overall use of CSs by experimental group, suggesting that the CS training course indeed had a positive influence on the frequency of CS use by the participants. In addition, it can be seen that although asking for repetition and approximation CSs were improved more than the others by the experimental group, suggesting that the course was particularly beneficial for developing these two CS types.

Research question 2: How many CS episodes are transferred to LREs before and after the training in total and by strategy type?

To examine how many CS episodes were transferred to LREs before and after the training in total and specific to strategy type, the total number of LREs was counted in the conversations of

control and experimental groups at the pretest and the posttest. In addition, the number of LREs was separately counted for each of the six types of CSs.

Table 7 presents the descriptive statistics of LREs and the percentage of CS to LRE transfer that occurred in the data. As can be seen in Table 7, the control group had a 17 % transfer of CS to LRE at the pretest and 16% at the posttest. Thus, the control group did not demonstrate an increase of CS to LRE transfer from the pretest to the posttest. The experimental group showed similar results. Although the mean of LREs increased from the pretest (2.75) to the posttest (4.75), the percentage of CS to LRE transfer remained the same before (15%) and after the training (15%).

In addition, taking a closer look at the number of LREs that occurred in the conversations of different pairs of participants, it can be seen that the control group did not demonstrate a consistent pattern in LREs occurrence in two tests. For example, two out of eight pairs (CP1 and CP7) showed the decrease in LREs occurrence, the other two pairs (CP4 and CP5) used the exact same number of LREs, while the remaining four pairs (CP2, CP3, CP6 and CP8) demonstrated a slight increase in LREs occurrence from the pretest to the posttest. The experimental group, on the other hand, showed a positive trend of increasing the number of LREs from the pretest to the posttest. Only one pair of participants in the experimental group (CP1) decreased the number of LREs after the training.

Table 7

Number, Mean, Standard Deviation of Overall LREs, and Percentage of CS to LRE transfer in the Control and Experimental Groups at the Pretest and the Posttest

	Control group			Experimental group	
Pair №	Pretest	Posttest	Pair №	Pretest	Posttest
CP1 (LREs)	5	3	EP1	4	2
CP2	2	3	EP2	4	7
CP3	4	5	EP3	3	10
CP4	2	2	EP4	2	6
CP5	4	4	EP5	2	3
CP6	1	2	EP6	3	4
CP7	4	2	EP7	1	2
CP8	3	4	EP8	3	4
Total CSs	150	153		146	250
Total LREs	25	25		22	38
Mean (*SD*)	3.13 (1.36)	3.13 (1.13)		2.75 (1.04)	4.75 (2.76)
Transfer	17%	16%		15%	15%

Table 8 presents the descriptive statistics of LREs and the percentage of six types of CS to LRE transfer that occurred in the data. These results suggest some interesting findings. First, both groups demonstrates similar percentages of CS to LRE transfer in pretest and posttest for five types of CSs: asking for repetition (pretest – control group 17%, experimental group 21%, posttest – control and experimental 9 %), mime (pretest – control 7%, experimental 6%, posttest – control

17%, experimental 19%), appeal for help (pretest – control 50%, experimental 56%, posttest – control 44%, experimental 47%), approximation (pretest – control 20%, experimental 21%, posttest – control 18%, experimental 19%), and comprehension check (pretest – control 13%, experimental 7%, posttest – control and experimental 0%). Only the circumlocution CSs did not follow this pattern (pretest – control 18%, experimental 9%, posttest – control 21%, experimental 15%). Second, it can be seen that the appeal for help CS resulted in the highest LREs transfer in both control and experimental groups at two tests (ranging from 44% to 56%).

Table 8

Number, Mean, Standard Deviation of LREs, and Percentage of six types of CS to LRE transfer in the Control and Experimental Groups at the Pretest and the Posttest

		Control		Experimental	
		Pretest	Posttest	Pretest	Posttest
Asking for	Total (CSs)	12	22	19	44
Repetition	Total(LREs)	2	2	4	4
	Mean(*SD*)	0.25(0.46)	0.25(0.46)	0.50 (0.76)	0.50 (0.76)
	Transfer	17%	9%	21%	9%
Mime	Total (CSs)	42	30	32	42
	Total(LREs)	3	5	2	8
	Mean(*SD*)	0.38(0.52)	0.63(0.74)	0.25(0.46)	1.00(1.41)
	Transfer	7%	17%	6%	19%
Appeal for	Total (CSs)	10	9	9	15
Help	Total(LREs)	5	4	5	7
	Mean(*SD*)	0.63(0.52)	0.50(0.53)	0.63(0.52)	0.88(0.64)

	Transfer	50%	44%	56%	47%
Approximation	Total (CSs)	35	50	34	79
	Total(LREs)	7	9	7	15
	Mean(*SD*)	0.88(0.64)	1.13(0.83)	0.88(0.99)	1.88(1.36)
	Transfer	20%	18%	21%	19%
Circumlocution	Total (CSs)	28	24	22	27
	Total(LREs)	5	5	2	4
	Mean(*SD*)	0.63(0.74)	0.63(0.52)	0.25(0.46)	0.50(0.76)
	Transfer	18%	21%	9%	15%
Comprehension	Total (CSs)	23	18	30	43
check	Total(LREs)	3	0	2	0
	Mean(*SD*)	0.38(0.74)	0.00(0.00)	0.25(0.46)	0.00(0.00)
	Transfer	13%	0%	7%	0%

In sum, none of the groups demonstrated a noticeable difference in overall CS to LRE transfer from the pretest to the posttest. It suggests that although the training increased the frequency of CS use, as was reported in previous section, it does not seem to cause the participants to transfer more CS episodes into the LREs. Therefore, although the training helped the learners to achieve mutual understanding in the conversation, it did not encourage them to engage in active language learning by trying to establish missing interlanguage items. In addition, it was found that both group demonstrated similar percentages of LREs in pretest and posttest for specific types of CSs. Finally, it seems that appeal for help CSs is more likely to be transferred into an LRE than other CS types.

Research question 3: How do different types of tasks influence the frequency of CS use and transfer to LREs before and after the training?

In order to investigate how different types of tasks influenced the frequency of CS use and transfer to LREs before and after the training, the number of CSs and the percentage of CS to LRE transfer was counted in each task for two groups in two tests.

Table 9 presents the descriptive statistics of CSs that occurred in three types of tasks (map task, spot the difference, and assemble the story) in the conversations of the control and experimental groups at pretest and posttest. In addition, Figure 3 illustrates the differences in mean of CS use in three types of tasks by the participants in the control and experimental group at the pretest and the posttest. As shown in Table 9, the control group had a mean of 7.13 and 7.75 CSs on the map task; 7.38 and 6.75 on the spot the difference task; 4.25 and 4.88 on the assemble the story task in the pretest and posttest, respectively. The experimental group had a mean of 6.13 and 12.25 CSs on the map task; 8.00 and 11.25 on the spot the difference task; 4.13 and 7.75 at the assemble the story task in the pretest and posttest respectively. It appears that the greatest improvement in CS use, was observed in the most controlled task – the map task. In order to test whether these results were significant, a sample paired t-test was administered. The analysis demonstrated (see Table 9) that the difference in CS use in the pretest and the posttest of the control group at three tasks was not significant (map task $p = .493$, spot the difference $p = .537$, assemble the story $p = .608$). The experimental group, on the other hand, significantly increased the number of CSs in each type of task at the posttest (map task $p < .0001$, spot the difference $p = .002$, assemble the story $p < .0001$).

Taking a closer look at the data, an interesting finding can be observed. The spot the difference task caused the participants of both groups to engage in more CS episodes (control group $M = 7.38$, experimental group $M = 8.00$) than the other two types of tasks on the pretest. However,

the situation changed in the posttest: the map task caused more CS episodes to occur than the other two types of tasks episodes (control group M = 7.75, experimental group M = 12.25). In addition, the assemble the story task caused the least CS episodes to occur in both groups in two tests (control group M = 4.24 and 4.88, experimental group M = 4.13 and 7.75).

Table 9

Number, Mean and Standard Deviation of CS Episodes in Map, Spot the Difference and Assemble the Story Tasks in the Control and Experimental Groups at the Pretest and the Posttest

		Control group		Experimental group	
		Pretest	Posttest	Pretest	Posttest
Map Task	Total	57	62	49	98
	Mean(SD)	7.13 (1.73)	7.75 (2.05)	6.13(1.25)	12.25 (1.58)
	p	.493		< .0001	
Spot The Difference	Total	59	54	64	90
	Mean(*SD*)	7.38 (1.77)	6.75 (2.38)	8 (1.6)	11.25 (2.49)
	p	.537		.002	
Assemble the Story	Total	34	39	33	62
	Mean(*SD*)	4.25(1.91)	4.88(1.55)	4.13(1.73)	7.75(1.98)
	p	.608		< .0001	

Note: Significant at $p < 0.05$ level

Figure 3

Mean of CS episodes in Map, Spot the Difference and Assemble the Story Tasks in the Control and Experimental Groups at the Pretest and the Posttest

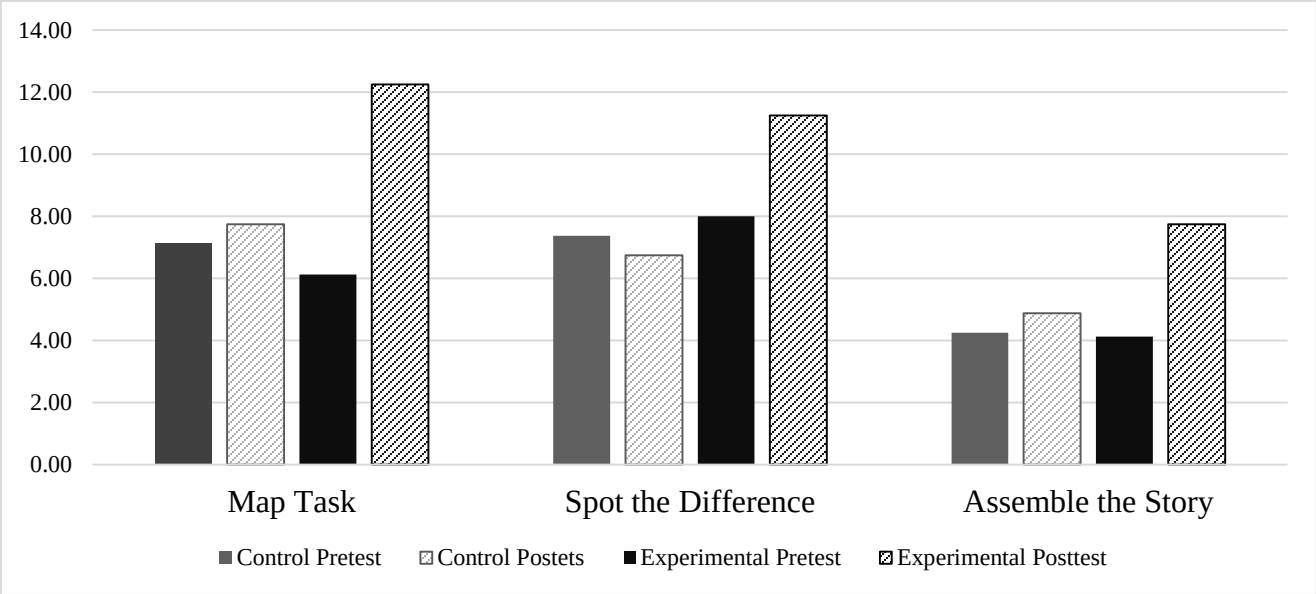


Table 10 presents the descriptive statistics of LREs and the percentage of CS to LRE transfer that occurred in the three types of tasks in the analyzed data. As the table shows, the control group had the CS to LRE transfer of 18% and 19% in the map task; 14% and 15% at the spot-the difference task; 21% and 13% at the assemble the story task on the pretest and posttest respectively. The experimental group had the CS to LRE transfer of 12% and 20% in the map task; 16% and 12% at the spot-the difference task; 18% and 11% at the assemble the story task on the pretest and posttest, respectively. Thus, it appears that the control group did not show a noticeable improvement in CS to LRE transfer at the posttest in any kind of task. The experimental group demonstrated a higher improvement in the map task than the control group. Interestingly, the spot the difference task did not result in a big change of CS to LRE transfer in neither control nor experimental group from the pretest to the posttest. In addition, it is worth noting that the level of

transfer of CSs into LREs dropped from the pretest to the posttest in both groups in the assemble the story task.

Table 10

Number, Mean, Standard Deviation of LREs, and Percentage of CS to LRE transfer in Map, Spot the Difference and Assemble the Story Tasks in the Control and Experimental Groups at the Pretest and the Posttest

		Control group		Experimental group	
		Pretest	Posttest	Pretest	Posttest
Map Task	Total (CSs)	57	62	49	98
	Total (LREs)	10	12	6	20
	Mean (*SD*)	1.25(0.89)	1.50(1.20)	0.75(0.71)	2.50(1.31)
	Transfer	18%	19%	12%	20%
Spot the Difference	Total (CSs)	59	54	64	90
	Total (LREs)	8	8	10	11
	Mean (*SD*)	1.00(1.07)	1.00(0.76)	1.25(0.46)	1.38(1.30)
	Transfer	14%	15%	17%	12%
Assemble the Story	Total (CSs)	34	39	33	62
	Total (LREs)	7	5	6	7
	Mean (*SD*)	0.88(0.64)	0.63(0.74)	0.75(0.89)	0.88(0.83)
	Transfer	21%	13%	18%	11%

To conclude, the control group did not show a significant improvement in the use of CSs in any of the three types of tasks on the posttest. On the other hand, the experimental group used

significantly more CSs in all three types of tasks on the posttest than the pretest. These findings suggest that the training course positively influenced the use of CSs in all three types of tasks. However, it was also found that the participants of experimental group demonstrated the greatest improvement on the most closed task – the map task, and the least improvement in the least closed task – the assemble the story task. In addition, it seems that the most controlled type of task also causes more CSs to transfer into the LREs.

Research question 4: What are learners' opinions about the CS training and its effectiveness?

In order to examine the learners' opinions about the CS training and its effectiveness, the results of the survey on the course effectiveness were quantified. In addition, the qualitative data collected in the post-training interviews is reported in this section.

Table 11 presents the descriptive statistics of the answers given by the participants on each question of three section (course organization and effectiveness, CS effectiveness, overall course enjoyment) of the course effectiveness survey. The survey conducted after the CS training was a 5 point Likert scale, where strongly disagree = 1 point, and strongly agree = 5 points. As can be seen Table 11, the participants for the experimental group evaluated the course highly. More precisely, the mean of the grade given for each question of the survey varied from 4.00 (question 10) to 4.81 (question 12) out of 5.

Table 11

The Mean and Standard Deviation of the Score Given by the Participants on the Course Effectiveness Survey

		Mean	*SD*
Course organization and effectiveness	1. The course is well organized.	4.38	0.50
	2. The contents of the course are adequate.	4.50	0.63
	3. The topics of the course motivate me.	4.25	0.68
	4. The explanations in the course were clear.	4.38	0.72
	5. The time arrangement of the contents is effective.	4.25	0.68
CS effectiveness	6. I am more aware of the CSs the course taught me now.	4.50	0.73
	7. I will use these CSs in my English communication.	4.63	0.50
	8. The CSs will help me to improve my English communication.	4.63	0.62
	9. The CSs encourage me to use English more in my daily life.	4.25	0.77
	10. The CSs make me more confident in my English speaking.	4.00	0.82
Overall course enjoyment	11. Overall, I liked the course.	4.75	0.45
	12. I enjoyed the activities of the course.	4.81	0.40
	13. The content of the course was interesting.	4.63	0.50
	14. I enjoyed to learn about the CSs.	4.63	0.50
	15. I would recommend my friends to participate in this course.	4.56	0.63

Four students of the experimental group participated in the post training interviews (one participant who gave the highest grade to the course, one participants who gave the lowest grade to the course, one participant form the pair who demonstrated the highest improvement, and one

participant from the pair who demonstrated the lowest improvement). The results of the interview showed some interesting findings. First, three out of four interviewees had a positive attitude to the course organization:

"There was a structure in every class.. and.. furthermore.. there was an overall structure of the course.. and it was very easy to see.. very easy to get the pattern." (E1)

"The time arrangement was effective… it was good because give you time to think about every time.. after you learn you can go and think about it without introducing any new ideas.. so you can not get confused." (E2)

"I think is.. aa.. it a good system to tell you how to.. to tell you several methods to.. how to express.. express your meaning step by step for every method.. yea so I think it's well organized." (E12)

One of the four interviewees had a difficulty commenting on her satisfaction with course organization:

"Because I didn't attend in this kind of courses… so I really don't know what can be a good time arrangement or organization." (E13)

Second, three out of four participants reported that they felt motivated by the course:

"Definitely.. first because it was something useful something that I knew I was gonna use.. it motivate me to learn." (E1)

"I say yes because it helps me improve some stuff.. because I am lazy when I can't say something I just give up.. so now it improved the communication" (E2)

"Yes it motivates me.. because I think I can improve.. it really helps me to express my English speaking abilities." (E12)

However, one of the participants commented that she did not feel motivated and in fact she did not think it was necessary to teach the CSs:

"Actually I think the strategies you teach us actually we were very common use in our daily life.. maybe in our language.. so I think you.. maybe you don't have.. teach us these strategies." (E13)

Third, all four participants commented that they were more aware of the CSs after the training, even though one of them originally marked 'no opinion' in her course effectiveness survey:

"As I was telling you before.. I was already using and misusing some of the strategies and thanks to the course now I am aware of them.. I am aware of these strategies." (E1)

"First of all I know the definition and the name of these things.. maybe in the past I noticed, but I didn't know what was that.. so now that I know I can notice the differences and I can differentiate them." (E2)

"Sometimes we used that method but we really don't know how to use it at some time.. so after I went to the class and I know I can use this method on what timing." (E12)

"This is weird.. I chose no opinion that time but actually I think I am more aware of the now.. Sometimes I ask some people questions and I think that I use what this course taught me." (E13)

Fourth, three interviewees implied that the CSs make them more confident in their English speaking abilities:

"As I was telling you before.. like before maybe I would have.. I would have felt.. I don't know ashamed or shy about using them.. but now I don't really feel that way.. I know this is strategy.. I trying to achieve something" (E1)

"Since I am a bit lazy when I can not say stuff.. with these strategies I know I can think of new ways of saying something." (E2)

"I have some confidence to express of what should I say and how should I ask some people questions." (E12)

One of the students, however mentioned, that English speaking skills have to be improved separately, thus, she did not feel more confident in her English communication:

"Here I chose no opinion because I think English speaking skill is your own speaking ability.. So I think strategies only can help you how to ask other people question, but it doesn't make you more confident, because I feel your English skill should be improved by yourself." (E13)

Fifth, two of the participants mentioned that approximation was the most useful CS for them, while the other two chose circumlocution CS.

"The approximation.. I think is more effective.. because is more shorter.. and shorter is like more directly.. you don't have to explain or do mime to say other things" (E2)

"I think the approximation is very good to use.. Because I use to ask foreign people but I can't describe very clearly before.. But after I participated in the course I can say precisely, so I can say more clear of what I want to say" (E12)

"Circumlocution is very useful.. sometimes I don't know how to explain things.. It's very often actually.. I don't know how to explain things that I am thinking about and I use circumlocution" (E1)

"Circumlocution, because you can use many words and you can also I think other people will not misunderstand you if you use this strategy" (E13)

Sixth, when the participants were asked why they did not focus on the language and attempted to establish the missing language item, they answered that it was not necessary for the purpose of the task. One of them also mentioned that she did not focus on the meaning because she assumed that her partner did not know the word either:

"The purpose of the task sometimes it was to arrive something or to achieve something.. so knowing the word in specifically this case was not critical." (E1)

"Because sometimes I am more concerned about the meaning of the word.. not the word.. so if I can make someone understand what I mean, it is not important the word." (E2)

"Because sometimes I think you don't really want to know.. sometimes you don't really need to know the word." (E13)

"I think maybe he doesn't know the word either.. so even if I told him.. because I looked at his response and I see maybe he didn't know." (E12)

Finally, when inquired about why the participants used less strategies in the story task, one of the participants made an interesting observations. He mentioned that the story task required less collaboration than the other tasks:

"So I think I didn't use many strategies because I feel in this task it was more about giving each other information than collaboration. In the case of the map task we needed to collaborate" (E1)

To sum up, the participants rated the course effectiveness and enjoyment highly in the course effectiveness survey. These results suggest that the participants of experimental group perceived the course and CSs as very effective tools for improvement of their English language, and enjoyed being a part of the course. It was also found that the course seemed to motivate the students and make them more confident in their English speaking abilities according to their interviews. In addition, it seems that the approximation and circumlocution were perceived as the most useful CSs by the students. Another interesting finding suggests, that the student did not transfer many CSs into the LREs because they thought it was not necessary for the purpose of the tasks, or because they did not perceive their partners as more competent speakers. Finally, an interesting observation was made by one of the participants which suggested that the story task required less collaboration than the other two tasks, and as a result it caused the participants to use less CSs.

Summary of the Results

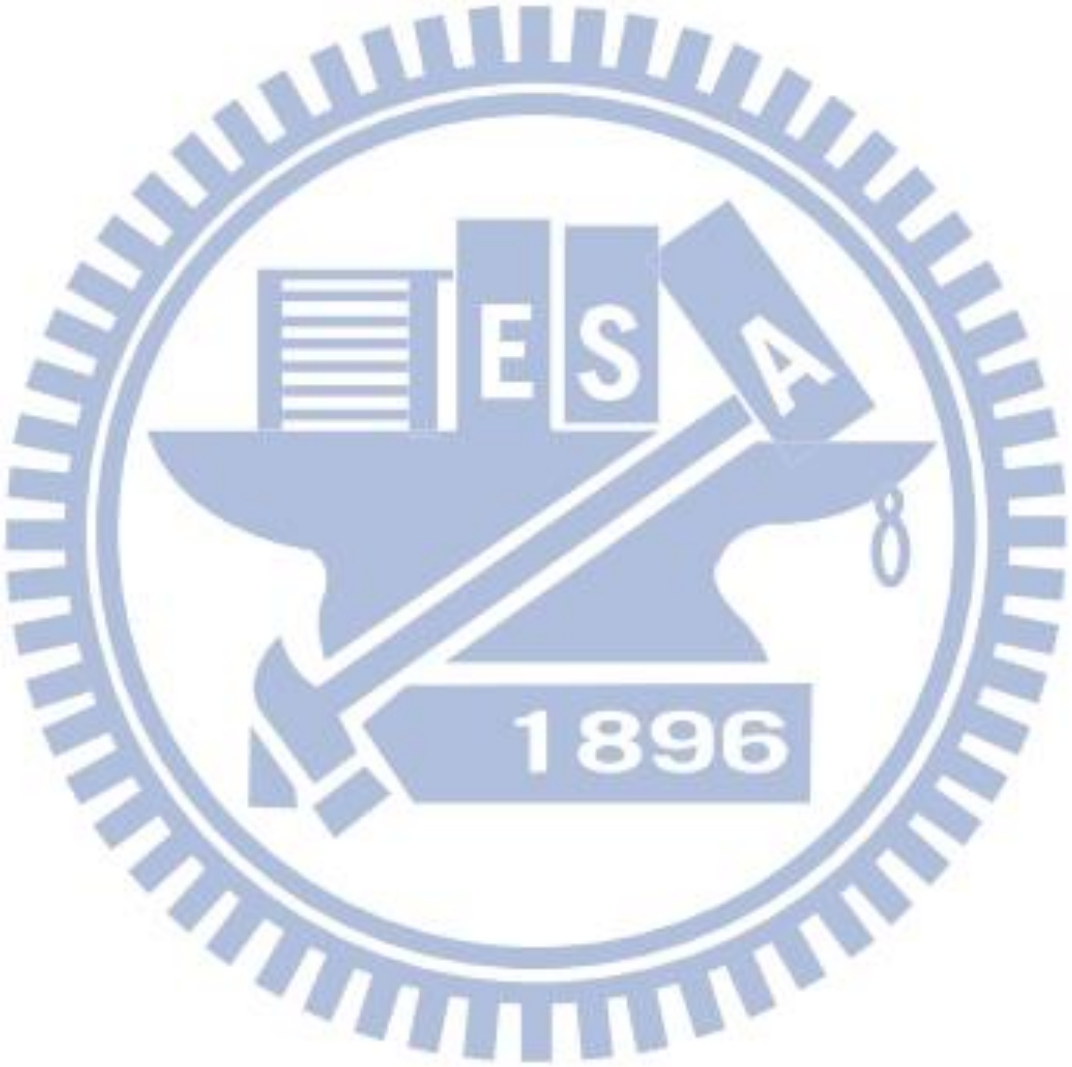
First, the results suggest that the training course positively influenced the frequency of learners' use of CSs, since the experimental group demonstrated a significant improvement from the pretest to the posttest. In addition, although the improvement was noticeable for all the CS types, asking for repetition and approximation CSs seem to be influenced the most but the training.

Second, none of the groups demonstrated an increase in CS to LRE transfer. Thus, the training course did not have a positive influence on the CS to LRE transfer. It did not seem to encourage the participants to focus not only on the meaning negotiation but also on the language itself.

Third, the experimental group demonstrated a significant increase of CS use on all three types of tasks: map, spot the difference and assemble the story. The level of training influence on

the participant's use of CSs, however, dropped when the task became less controlled. In addition, the most controlled type of task caused more CSs to transfer into the LREs.

Finally, the course effectiveness survey demonstrated that the learners gave a high grade to the course. It suggests that the learners viewed the course as effective and interesting.



CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION AND COLNCLUSION

The purpose of the current study was to investigate the effects of CS related training on the EFL college students' use of CSs. In addition, the study investigated the CS to LRE transfer, the influence of task type on CS use, and students' opinions about the CS training.

Thirty-two university students participated in the experiment. They were divided into two groups – control and experimental. The control group did not receive any treatment, while the experimental group attended a four-week course of CS training. Both groups participated in the pretest and posttest, which included three types of tasks.

The current chapter concludes the study by summarizing the key findings of investigation, providing examples and possible explanations of the findings and discussing the relationship between the study and the existing literature in the sequence of research questions. After that, limitation and suggestions for further research, as well as pedagogical implication are provided.

Discussion of the Findings

In order to investigate the effects of CS training on the participants CS use, the frequency of CS episodes occurring in the participants' speech was measured before and after the training. The results of this investigation showed that the participants of the experimental group significantly increased their use of CSs after the training, while the control group did not demonstrate a noticeable improvement. These findings were in line with number of studies on CS instruction. Dörnyei (1995), who investigated the effects of CS related training on the Hungarian EFL students' use of fillers and circumlocutions, found that the overall CS use by the students increased after the training. The study by Nakatani (2005), who investigated a variety of different types of CSs,

including both achievement and reduction CSs, revealed similar results. It was found that the students, who received CS training, tended to use significantly more CSs at the posttest than the pretest. Naughton (2006) also noticed that a CS training program encouraged Spanish EFL learners to employ more CSs (including clarification request, self- and other-repair, and appeal for help) after the treatment. Maleki (2007) found that a CS course of training caused Iranian EFL students to use strategies more extensively and effectively. Finally, the recent study by Teng (2012), investigating a variety of achievement and reduction strategies, suggested that Taiwanese EFL college students tended to use significantly more CSs after receiving a CS related instruction. Thus, the results of the current study support the previous research and suggest that a CS related training has a positive influence on students' CS use and is helpful for encouraging students to use CSs more extensively.

The current study also investigated the influence of training on specific CS types – asking for repetition, mime, appeal for help, approximation, circumlocution and comprehension check. The results showed that the experimental group demonstrated a significant increase in asking for repetition and approximation CSs after the training. The greatest improvement was observed in the use of approximation CSs. This result contradicts the previous research. The study by Teng (2012) reported that the participants, who received a CS training, did not demonstrate a significant improvement in the use of approximation CSs from the pretest to the posttest. In addition, Nakatani reported in the 2005 study, that the students did not show a significant increase in self-solving strategies, which include the approximation strategy after the training. The increase in the use of the approximation strategy may be explained by the participants' preference. Two out of four interviewed participants reported that approximation CSs seemed the most effective and easy to employ for them:

"The approximation.. I think is more effective.. because is more shorter.. and shorter is like more directly.. you don't have to explain or do mime to say other things" (E2)

"I think the approximation is very good to use.. Because I use to ask foreign people but I can't describe very clearly before.. But after I participated in the course I can say precisely, so I can say more clear of what I want to say" (E12)

Indeed, it is not surprising that the approximation strategy is viewed as the most effective by these participants, since it was the strategy which was used the most in the experimental group not only in the posttest, but also in the pretest. This interpretation of the participant's increase in the approximation CS use is supported by the study by Littlemore (2001), which suggests that the participants tend to choose CSs that reflect, to some extent, their personality. Furthermore, participants' personalities might not only influence the CS choice, but also the dynamics of conversation. For example, the pairs of Taiwanese students were less active, and tended to produce shorter utterances. In the pairs where an international student was present, it was possible to observe a more active conversation with the use of longer utterances. Moreover, it seems that the international students were more active in the beginning of the conversation, but towards the end of the task completion, the Taiwanese students tried to catch up and participate in conversation as actively as their partners. This might be attributed to their personalities, as it is widely believed that different cultures exhibit different character traits. For example, the Asian speakers are considered shyer and less outgoing than the Latin or European people (e.g., Gartstein et al., 2006; Rubin et al., 2006).

The increase in the use of asking for repetition CSs was an expected result, since it seems that the educators and language researchers view this CSs as easily teachable. For example, in the study by Faucette (2001), who examined different teaching materials on the presence of CSs, it was found that 14 out of 16 English language teaching materials included the asking for repetition

CS. This, suggests that asking for repetition CS is viewed by educators as a potentially teachable CS. In addition, the increase in the use of asking for repetition CSs is in line with the results of the study by Teng (2012). This study examined the influence of CS related training on the students' use of various CS groups. One group of CSs investigated by Teng was referred to as "appeal for assistance"; it included such CSs as direct and indirect appeal for help, asking for repetition, asking for confirmation and asking for clarification CSs. It was found in the study that the students particularly increased the use of CSs in "appeal for assistance" group. However, the increase in the use of asking for repetition contradicts the result of Nakatani (2005), who also investigated the group of CSs referred to as "help-seeking strategies"; it included two CSs – appeal for help and asking for repetition. In the study by Nakatani, the students did not demonstrate a significant increase in the "help-seeking strategies" at the posttest. In contrast to these two studies, which investigated the groups of CSs (appeal-for assistance and help-seeking strategies), the current study employed a different approach by examining each CSstype separately rather than in a group. Thus, it is difficult to completely rely on this comparison. If the current study also viewed asking for repetition, appeal for help and comprehension check CSs as a group, the results of the CS use at the pretest and the posttest might have been different.

Since there was a particular increase in the use of approximation and asking for repetition CSs after the training, it is reasonable to assume that some CS types are more easily developed than the others. The CS training course in this study set a priority for developing CSs which require high level of verbal engagement (circumlocution and comprehension check), i. e., more time was devoted to teaching and practicing these CS types than the others. However, this priority did not result in the significant improvement of participants' use of circumlocution and comprehension check. A possible explanation is that the CSs with low and medium level of verbal engagement are more easily developed through the training; on the other hand, the CSs which require more

language use by the students may need to be paid more attention to and require much more time for development.

When investigating the influence of CS related training on the students CS to LRE transfer it was found that there was no noticeable difference in the percentage of CSs transferred to LREs on the pretest and the posttest in the control and experimental group. Thus, it appears that CS related training does not encourage the students to focus more on the language and attempt to obtain missing knowledge. This result can be explained by two possible interpretations: the similarity in participants' proficiency level and the goals they set when completing the tasks. First, since the study specifically recruited the participants with similar proficiency levels, most of the students completed the tasks with the participants of similar level of English. If the participants do not perceive their partners as more competent speakers, they are not likely to engage in many LREs. This was indicated by one of the participants during the post-training interview:

> "I think maybe he doesn't know the word either.. so even if I told him.. because I looked at his response and I see maybe he didn't know." (E12)

This phenomena is supported by the Fernández Dobao's (2012) study, who suggested that the participants' proficiency level may influence their CS to LRE transfer. More precisely, Fernández Dobao suggested that the students with similar proficiency levels are likely to focus on meaning negotiation more than on establishing the correct language item, since they may lack linguistic knowledge to fill the gaps in their interlanguage. Therefore, if the students in the current study were paired with more advanced learners, they would be more eager to engage in LREs. The influence of the differences on proficiency level on the students' language development can be also supported by Vygotsky's zone of proximal development (ZPD) theory. According to Vygotsky (1980) a student can gradually develop an ability which has not matured yet by examples set by more competent peers. Thus, if a student interacts with a person who has a higher proficiency level,

his or her language development is likely to be scaffolded by the more competent language speaker. However, if the language proficiency level is similar between the partners, they can not assist each other in learning new language items. This theory seems to explain the result of the current study: the students who were paired for completing the tasks during the pretest and the posttest did not engage in many LREs, because the similarity in their proficiency level did not let them to scaffold each other for further language learning. However, it is impossible to verify this explanation, because the design of the study did not implement a universal method for measuring students' proficiency level. More precisely, some of the students presented the results of different proficiency tests (TOEFL, TOEIC, GEPT), while others only gave a self-report on their proficiency level, which is not completely reliable.

Another possible explanation of low percentage of CS to LRE transfer is the goals which participants set for themselves while completing the task. CS and LRE may be viewed as an integral construct; in other words, LRE may be seen as byproduct of the meaning negotiation and, therefore, naturally transfer from a CS episode. However, it seems that the goals set by the participants may intervene with the process of CS to LRE transfer. According to students' interviews, some of the participants focused more on the meaning negotiation rather than establishing correct language form, because they thought it was not necessary for task completion:

> "The purpose of the task sometimes.. it was to arrive something or to achieve something.. so knowing the word in specifically this case was not critical." (E1)
>
> "Because sometimes I am more concerned about the meaning of the word.. not the word.. so if I can make someone understand what I mean, it is not important the word." (E2)
>
> "Because sometimes I think you don't really want to know.. sometimes you don't really need to know the word." (E13)

If the learners set the goal to reach the mutual understanding rather than find missing language items, they are not likely to engage in many LREs. This interpretation is supported by the study of Fernández Dobao (2012). She found that those participants who reported to set the goal to achieve mutual understanding rather than fill the gap in the interlanguage, engaged in less LREs than those student who also set the goal to achieve high linguistic accuracy. Storch (2004) also explained that different goals and motives can result in different patterns of collaborative behaviors between the participants. Thus, the low level of CS to LRE transfer may be due to the participants' goals.

In addition, it was found that appeal for help strategy is more likely to transfer into an LREs. It is logical since by employing the appeal for help strategy, the participants directly ask their partners to help them to establish a missing language item. This can be seen from the collected data. In the first example, one of the participants (E5) did not know the meaning of the word 'sack', and asked his partner (E4) to explain the meaning to him. After the explanation, the participant started to use the word in his repertoire.

Example 1

E4: sack?

E5: you know sack… s a c k ((spelling the word))

E4: s a c k.. what is it?

E3: It's like a bag but only big one made from cloth

E4: oh

E3: you know like a bag can be plastic but the sack is like a huge sack

E4: so you say the Santa Clause has a sack

In the example 2 one of the participants (C6) used a wrong word 'sway' when talking about the 'swing'. Her partner (C5) did not understand the word and asked for its meaning. After the

explanation provided by the first participant, they could establish the correct language item together.

Example 2

C6: yea maybe just a little right to the table there is a.. there is a sway right..? there is a sway.

C5: sway..? what is that?

C6: is like.. is like the entertainment.. entertainment stuff for children you can..

C5: ah ok

C6: swing swing?

C5: swing yea I think it's a swing.

Thus, if the participants directly ask their partners for help to establish a missing language item, they are more likely to engage in the LREs, since their partners are prompted to give them feedback. This is supported by the study by Maleki (2007), who indicated that a request from participants for clarification of assistance would lead to feedback and assist the development of interlanguage.

When investigating the influence of task type on participant's CS use it was found that each type of task elicited different number of CSs. For example, the participants tended to use more CSs in the map and spot the difference task than in the assemble the story task. This result is in line with Poulisse and Schills (1989) who found that their subjects used different CSs with different frequencies in three communication tasks: picture description, story retelling and interview. The study by Ghout-Khenoune (2012) also indicated that the participants tend to use different number of CSs in different types of tasks: picture description and free discussion. Thus, it can be assumed that task type influences the participants' use of CSs: some tasks elicit more CSs than the others. This phenomenon can be explained by the different level of collaboration required by each task.

One of the participants mentioned in his interview that he used less CSs in the story task because it required less collaboration:

> "So I think I didn't use many strategies because I feel in this task it was more about giving each other information than collaboration. In the case of the map task we needed to collaborate" (E1)

Indeed, the map task and spot the difference tasks require more collaborative interaction than the assemble the story task, since in these two type of tasks the students are both responsible for completing the task as a whole. In the assemble the story task each participant is responsible for certain part of story strips, which makes the task less collaborative in nature. This may lead to different number of CSs in three types of tasks. This interpretation is supported by Fernández Dobao's (2012) study, which indicates that the learners tend to engage in more CSs if they demonstrate a more collaborative behavior. In addition, the map task and the spot the difference task were more controlled than the assemble the story task. Thus, it seems that the controlled tasks result in a more collaborative pattern of behavior between the students and higher frequency of CS use. In addition it seems that more controlled tasks are more easily influenced by the training course. Indeed, the map task in this study not only encouraged the students to use more CSs, but also was the task in which the students improved the CS use the most. Thus, it is possible to assume that the CS use is more easily to be developed in the more controlled tasks, because they provide learners with more opportunities for collaboration and meaning negotiation.

In addition, it was found that there was a pattern of CS to LRE transfer between different task types. More precisely, both groups demonstrated similar percentage of CS to LRE transfer in the pretest and the posttest for each type of task. More precisely, both groups engaged in more LREs in the map task than in the other task types. Thus, it appears that the task itself may influence the CS to LRE transfer. One possible explanation can be the task type. According to several studies

different types of tasks encourage students to focus on language more than the others. The study by Storch (1998) indicated that learner's attention to form varied quantitatively across type tasks. Later, in 2001 Storch found that the students tended to focus on form more in the cloze and text reconstruction tasks than the text composition task. Although these two studies focused on grammatical LREs, it is reasonable to believe that the task type may also influence other LRE types. In addition, the results demonstrated that the CS to LRE transfer increased for both groups at the posttest in the map task, remained similar at the spot the difference task, and dropped at the assemble the story task. Another possible factor of different CS to LRE transfer during task completion may be task difficulty. According to Kim (2009) high-proficiency language learners tend to engage in more LREs in more complex tasks. Although the current study did not measure the difficulty of the tasks, it is reasonable to believe that the task difficulty varied from the pretest to the posttest. It is possible that the students engage in different LREs number at the same type of task at the pretest and the posttest because the task difficulty was different. For example, the map task might have been more difficult at the posttest than in the pretest, which may explain why the students engage in more LREs at the map task in the posttest. The difficulty of the spot the difference task might have been similar, resulting in similar CS to LRE transfer in both groups at the pretest and the posttest. The assemble the story task, perhaps, was easier at the posttest and resulted in the drop of CS to LRs transfer.

Finally, although most of the results suggest the benefits of the CS training on the students CS use, an interesting finding was observed during the post-training interviews. One of the students commented that there was no need in CS teaching, since the CSs are already used extensively by the students in their daily life and their L1:

"Actually I think the strategies you teach us actually we were very common use in our daily life.. maybe in our language.. so I think you.. maybe you don't have.. teach us these strategies." (E13)

This comment is supported by some researchers who hold a so-called conservative point of view toward CS teaching and argue against it. For example, Stern mentioned in the study of 1987 that since CSs are already present in learner's L1, they would gradually transfer into his or her L2 with more meaningful practice. Therefore, CSs are more likely to be acquired through real-life communication situations, rather than meaningless classroom practices. It suggests that there is no necessity for CS training, and more attention has to be paid to the language teaching. Bialystok (1990) and, Kellerman, (1991) also have similar opinions that the primary goal has to be language teaching itself, and CSs will gradually develop by themselves.

Pedagogical Implication

The findings of the current study lead to several pedagogical implications for the EFL teachers who work with students of intermediate and high proficiency levels. First, the current study found that college students tended to increase the use of CSs after the CS related training. Thus, the teachers and educators can consider incorporating CS related activities in English language classrooms. More precisely, the course of the training in the current study aimed to increase students' awareness of the CSs and encourage the CS practice. Thus, the teachers might explicitly instruct the students on CSs, introduce sentence patterns relevant to each CS type, and discuss situation when the specific CS types can be used with the students. In addition, the teachers might organize various activities which scaffold students' CS use. This can help teachers to increase students' use of CSs and encourage them to find ways to solve their communication difficulties.

Second, the CSs, which require high level of verbal engagement, such as circumlocution and comprehension check, provide students with more opportunities to use their language and practice their speaking skills. However, they seem to be more difficult to develop for the learners. Thus, the teachers can allow more time for practicing these CS types. In addition, more scaffolding when dealing with high-verbal engagement CSs can assist the students in their development. For example, the teachers can organize activities where the use of high-verbal engagement CSs is the most effective way to complete the task. In addition, worksheets with useful sentence patterns can be provided during the activities in order to assist students' use of high-verbal engagement CSs.

Third, the results of the study suggest that CSs are not easily developed in less controlled tasks. Although these tasks resemble the real life situations more closely, they are not the best choice for promoting students CS use. The teachers might create more controlled closed ended tasks for CS practicing.

Fourth, it appears that the tasks which require students to engage in more collaborative interactions, are more likely to encourage students to use CSs. Thus, the teachers may design the tasks, which scaffold collaborative behavior, in order to prompt students' CS use. Various jigsaw puzzles, where students lack certain parts of information and need to engage in a collaborative dialogue in order to find it during the task completion, are suitable for this purpose. For example, a map task where one student needs to explain to another how to get from one point to another was found to be effective in eliciting a big number of CS episodes. In addition, it is important to remember that CSs are devices which are used by the speakers to fill the gaps in the interlanguage. Thus, it might be helpful to engage students' in the tasks which require higher knowledge of the language than their current proficiency level. A more difficult task is more likely to engage students in a conversation where they have to use unknown language items, prompting the students to use more CSs in order to overcome linguistic difficulties. If the task is too easy for the students, then

they are not likely to encounter many difficulties than need to be solved and will not have a necessity to use many CSs.

Fifth, the study implies that the students often tend to focus exclusively on meaning negotiation if language focus is not necessary to complete a task. Thus, if the teachers' goal is not only meaning negotiation between the students, but also language learning, it is important for the teachers to set specific goals, such as reaching high linguistic accuracy. If the students are explained that they need to help each other to establish missing language items they are more likely to engage in LREs.

However, even specifically set goals will not necessarily work if the students' proficiency level is similar – the students are not likely to engage in LREs if they do not perceive their partners as more competent learners. Indeed, it is pointless to expect the students to find a missing language item, if none of them is familiar with it. Moreover, the students might establish a wrong language item, which can lead to misuse of the words or grammar and cause further misunderstandings. Thus, it might be helpful to pair the students with more proficient learners, who can scaffold the learners with lower language abilities.

Limitations and Suggestions for Further Research

There are number of limitation in the current study, which can be addressed in the future research. First, only 32 students participated in research. This sample size is small, thus it is not reliable to generalize the results to the bigger population. The future research may investigate the influence of the similar training on the bigger number of students. Second, the current study only recruited participants with intermediate and advanced proficiency levels. The future research is needed to take into consideration different proficiency levels. In addition, not all of the students who participated in the research passed proficiency level tests before the experiment. Thus, some of the participants' proficiency level was assessed by the means of self-report, which is not

completely reliable. The future research might implement a proficiency test for all participants before the investigation. Third, the current study did not investigate the long term influence of the CS related training on the participants' use of CSs. Thus, it is impossible to conclude that the effects of the training will not decrease after the longer period of time. The future research may implement a retention test in order to test the long-term effects of the training. Fourth, the study did not take into consideration the students' personalities and their preferences for CS use. The future studies might address this issue in order to get another insight for interpreting CS use. Finally, the current research only investigates one type of CS training. It is not possible to judge whether a similar training with different time frame, or with different organization will result in similar findings. The future research is needed to investigate whether different training courses have different influence on students' CS use.

Conclusion

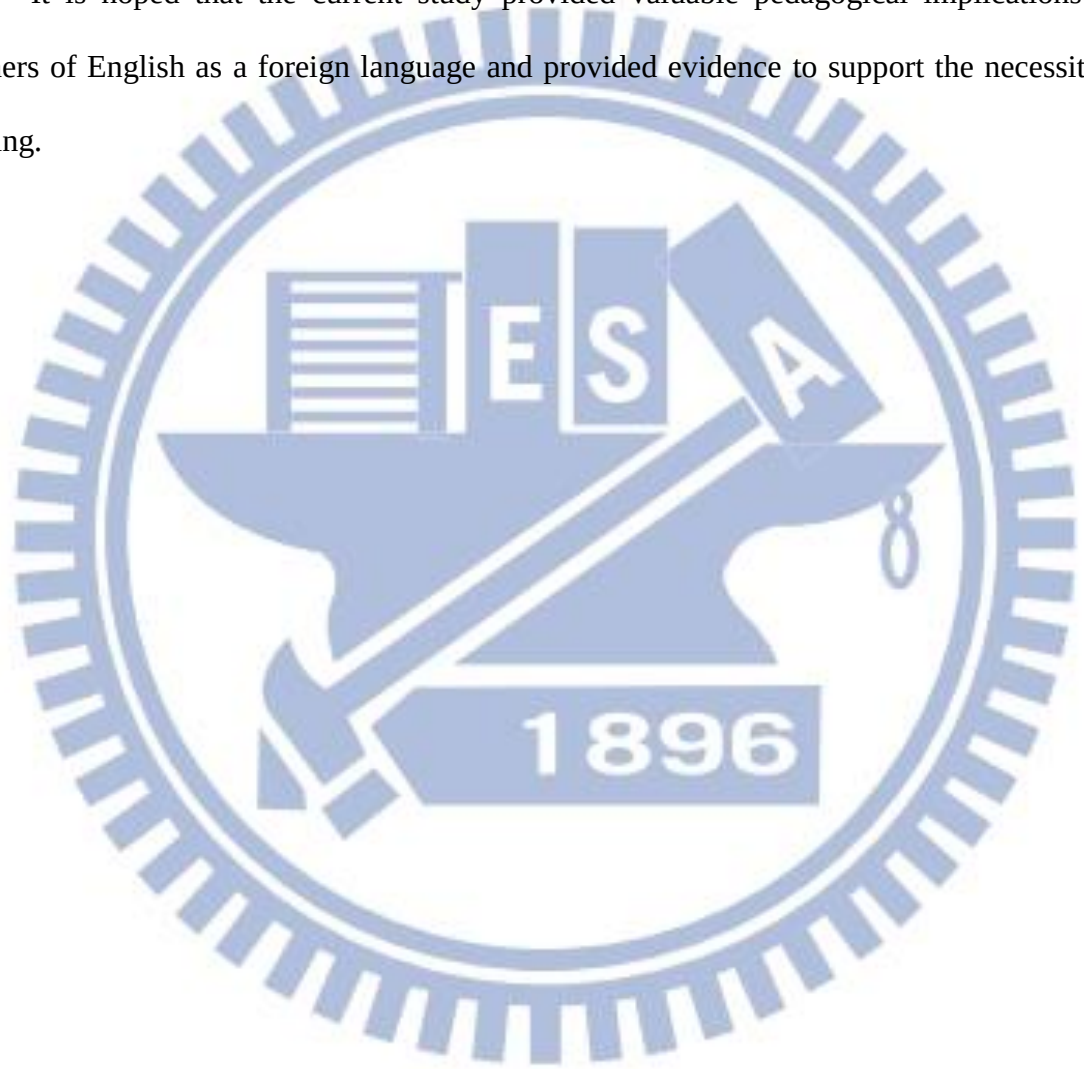
The goal of the current study was to investigate the effects of CS related training on the EFL college students' use of CSs, CS to LRE transfer, the influence of task type on CS use, and students' opinions about the CS training.

Thirty-two university students participated in the experiment. They were divided into two groups – control and experimental. The control group did not receive any treatment, while the experimental group attended the course of CS training. Both groups participated in the pretest and posttest, which included three types of tasks.

The results of the current study suggest that the CS related training has a positive influence on the frequency of learners' CS use. It appears that the approximation and asking for repetition CSs are particularly influenced by the training. The findings also suggest that the training course did not have a positive influence on the CS to LRE transfer, since participants were not encouraged

to focus on language and improve their English level through collaboration. The findings also suggested that task type can influence the students CS use and CS to LRE transfer. Finally, the course effectiveness survey demonstrated that the learners viewed the course as effective and interesting.

It is hoped that the current study provided valuable pedagogical implications for the teachers of English as a foreign language and provided evidence to support the necessity of CS training.



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APPENDICES

Appendix A

Consent to Participate in Research

Project Name

To teach or not to teach: The effects of communication strategies training on EFL university students' meaning negotiation

Investigator Yuliya Liatambur **Telephone** 0921455315

E-mail liatambur.yuliya@gmail.com

Introduction

You are invited to participate in the research study. This form will provide information about the research study and explain you rights as a participant. The decision whether to participate is yours. If you decide to participate, please sign and date last line of this form.

Explanation of the study

The participants can make a decision whether to be part of control or experimental group. As part of the study, the participants in control group will be divided into pairs and then they will meet the researcher twice to complete three tasks. All three tasks will take 30-40 minutes to complete. The participants of experimental group, in addition to competing the three tasks in pairs, will attend an English speaking course. The course will last for four weeks, there will be one class per week, each class taking approximately 90 minutes. A tape recorder will be used to record what you are saying during task completion, but not during the course.

Confidentiality

All of the information collected will be confidential and will be only used for research purposes. Thus your identity will remain anonymous. Whenever data from this study are published, your name will not be used. Only the researcher will have access to the data.

Your participation

Participating in this study is voluntary. If at any point of the research you decide that you no longer want to participate, you can tell the researcher. If you have any questions about the research, you can contact the researcher by telephone or e-mail mentioned above. You can also contact my thesis advisor Fang-Ying Yang (fyang224@gmail.com; 03-571-2121-50130).

Investigator's statement

I have fully explained this study to the participant. I have discussed the activities and answered all the questions the participants asked.

Signature of investigator _____ Date _____

Participant's consent

I have read the information provided in this consent form. All my questions were answered to my satisfaction. I voluntary agree to participate in this study.

Your signature _____ Date _____

Appendix B

Personal Information Questionnaire

Please fill in your personal information.

Nationality: _____.

Gender: ☐ male ☐ female

Age: _____.

What is your major in university? _____.

How long have you studied English? _____ years.

How do you rate your English proficiency: ☐ poor ☐ average ☐ good ☐ excellent

Have you ever passed any English proficiency test? Test name_____.Your score:_____.

Have you ever lived in English speaking county? How long _____

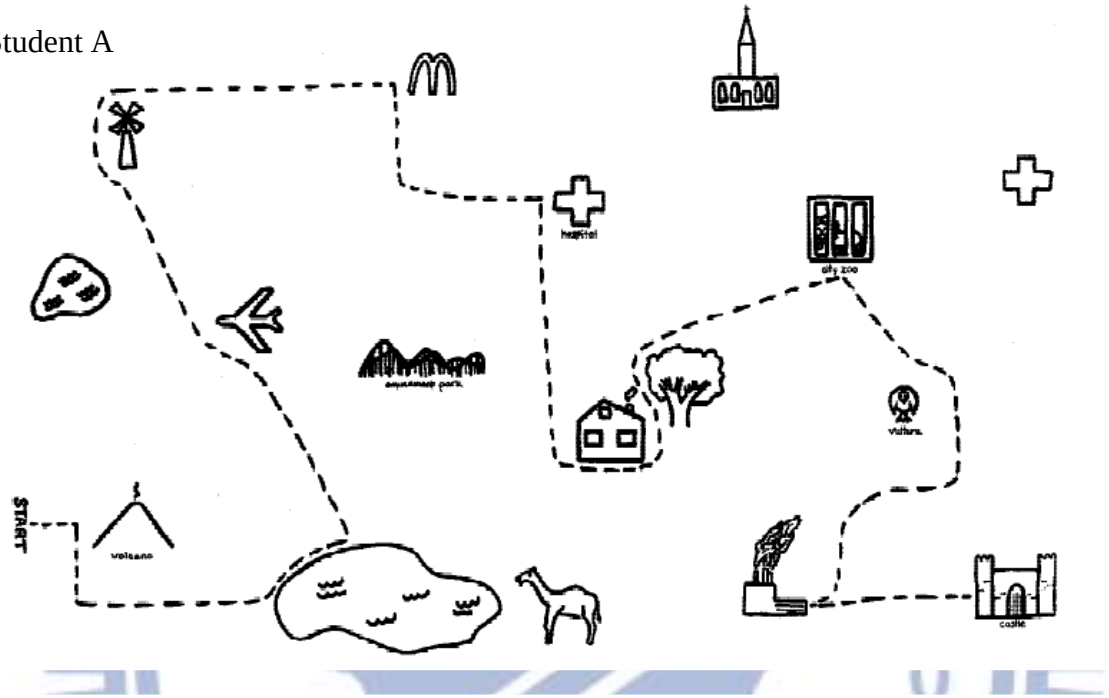
Are you attending any English speaking classes? ☐ Yes, ___ hours per week ☐ No

Appendix C

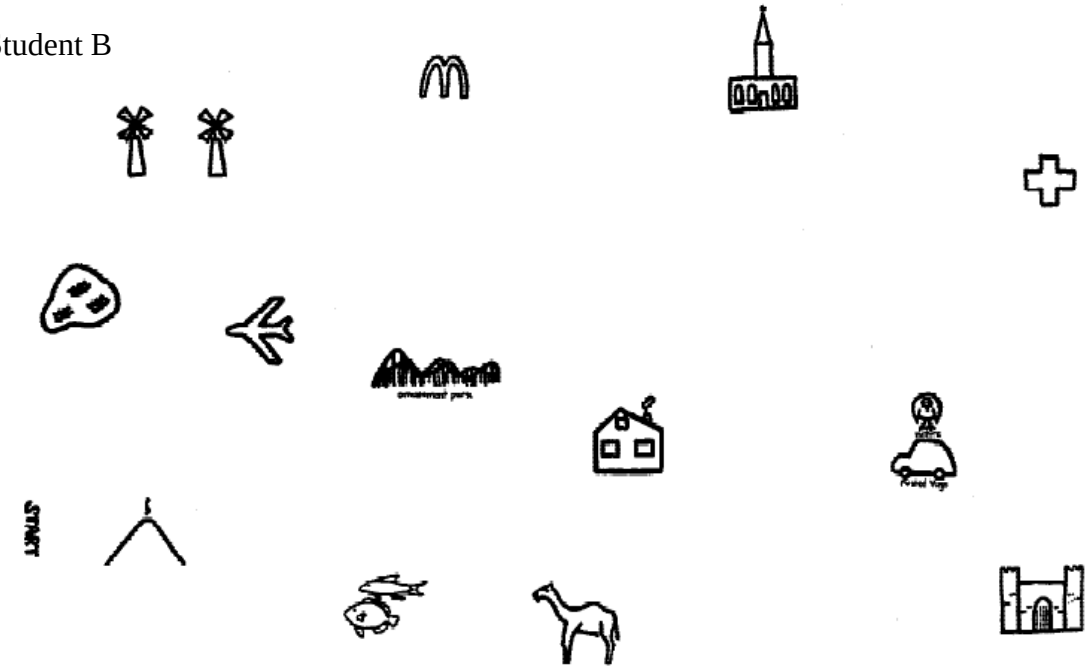
Map Task

Set 1 Pretest

Student A



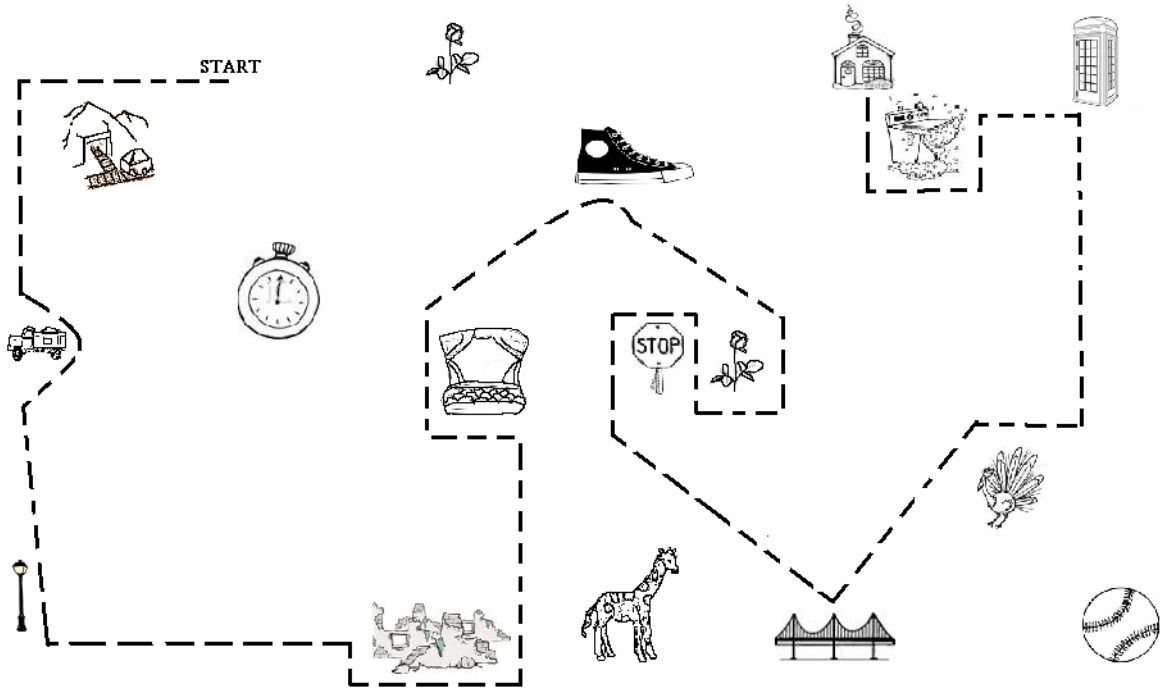
Student B



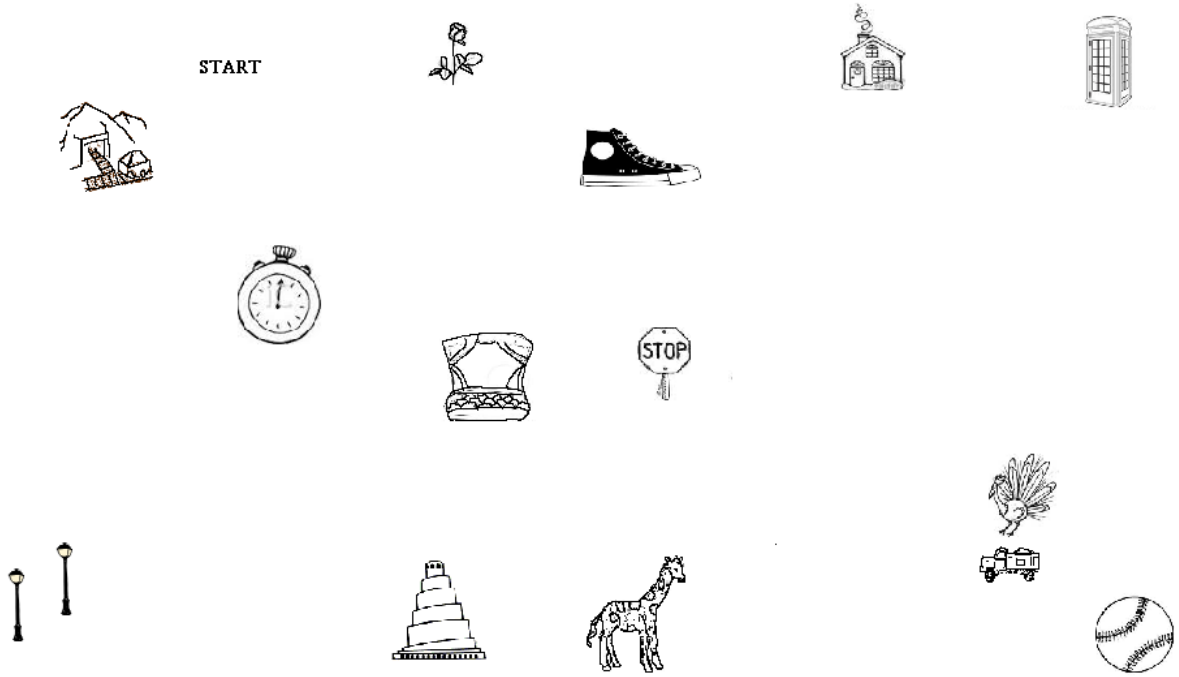
Source: Lindemann (2002, p. 440)

Set 2 Posttest

Student A



Student B



Appendix D

Spot-the-difference Task

Set 1 Pretest

Student A

Student B

Set 2 Posttest

Student A

Student B

Sources: REEP (2003); Mackey & Gass (2005, p. 68)

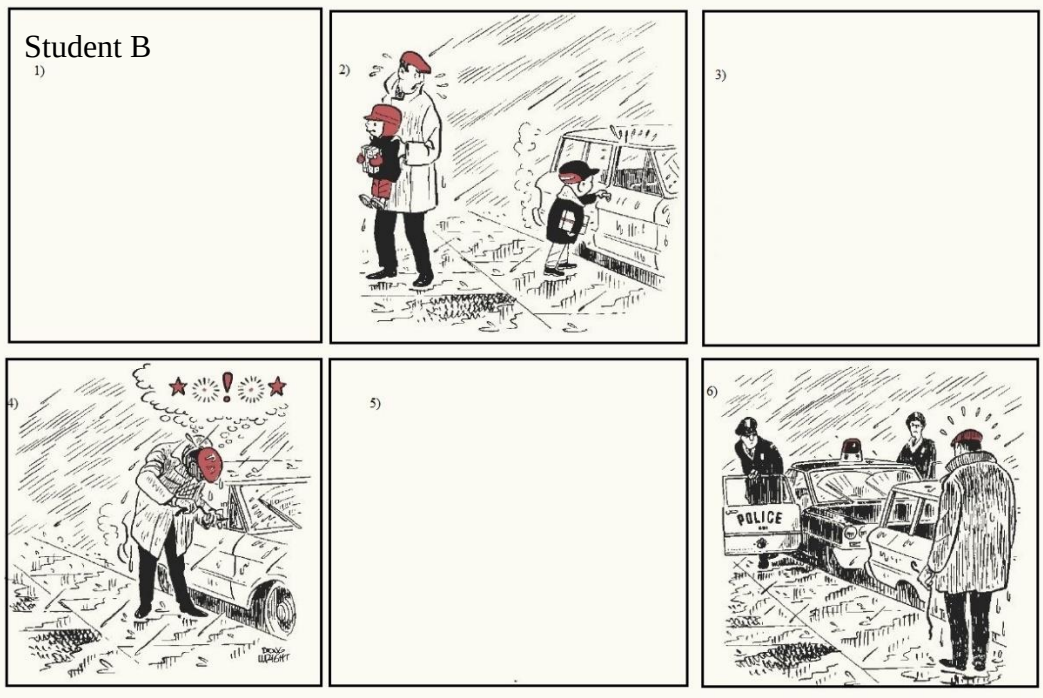
Appendix E

Assemble a Story

Set 1 Pretest

Student A

Student B



Source: Wright, D. (2010)

Set 2 Posttest

Student A

Student B

Appendix F

Course Effectiveness Survey

Please fill in the following questionnaire, mark if you agree with the following statements.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	No opinion	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. The course is well organized.					
2. The contents of the course are adequate.					
3. The topics of the course motivate me.					
4. The explanations in the course were clear.					
5. The time arrangement of the contents is effective.					
6. I am more aware of the strategies the course taught me now.					
7. I will use the strategies in my English communication.					
8. The strategies will help me to improve my English communication.					
9. The strategies encourage me to use English more in my daily life.					
10. The strategies make me more confident in my English speaking skills.					
11. Overall, I liked the course.					
12. I enjoyed the activities of the course.					
13. The content of the course was interesting.					
14. I enjoyed learning about the strategies.					
15. I would recommend my friends to participate in this course.					

Comments:

Appendix G

Course Materials: Dialogues

A: Hello! You look quite happy! Did something special happen?

B: Oh yeah, kind of, my parents got me a very cool present for my birthday!

A: That's awesome! What is it?

B: Hm, I don't know how to say it in English… It's like this musical instrument..

A: A piano?

B: No, it has strings, and it's very popular in rock bands. Do you know the word for it?

A: Oh yea, I think you mean a guitar.

A: Why do you look so angry?

B: I have this English test on synonyms.

A: So?

B: I was preparing for it for the whole night, and I can't remember one word..

A: Oh yes, that's bad, definitely.

B: I don't want to lose any points. Do you know another way to say "earphones"?

A: "Headphones" maybe?

B: That was the word I could not remember. Thank you so much!

A: Have you seen Stephanie?

B: No.. why?

A: She got a new… a new… Oh my god, I can't remember a word!

B: A new what?

A: Kind of clothes that you wear around your neck when it's cold… It is usually so warm and soft..

B: Oh oh.. I know, a scarf. So what's about it?

A: Well last time when we went shopping I wanted to buy this scarf, but she told me it looked ungly, and now she has is!

Cellphone ringing

A: Where are you?

B: in the supermarket

A: Great I need you to buy something.

B: What?

A: the vegetable which I always put in salads?

B: Tomatoes?

A: No, the green one.

B: Cucumbers, I got it.

A: So are we going to meet for coffee?

B: Of course, it's been a while since we met. Are you free tomorrow?

A: Yes we could meet tomorrow at 9 o'clock in the Starbucks.

B: I think you mean 9am, is that right?

A: Yes of course, 9 in the morning.

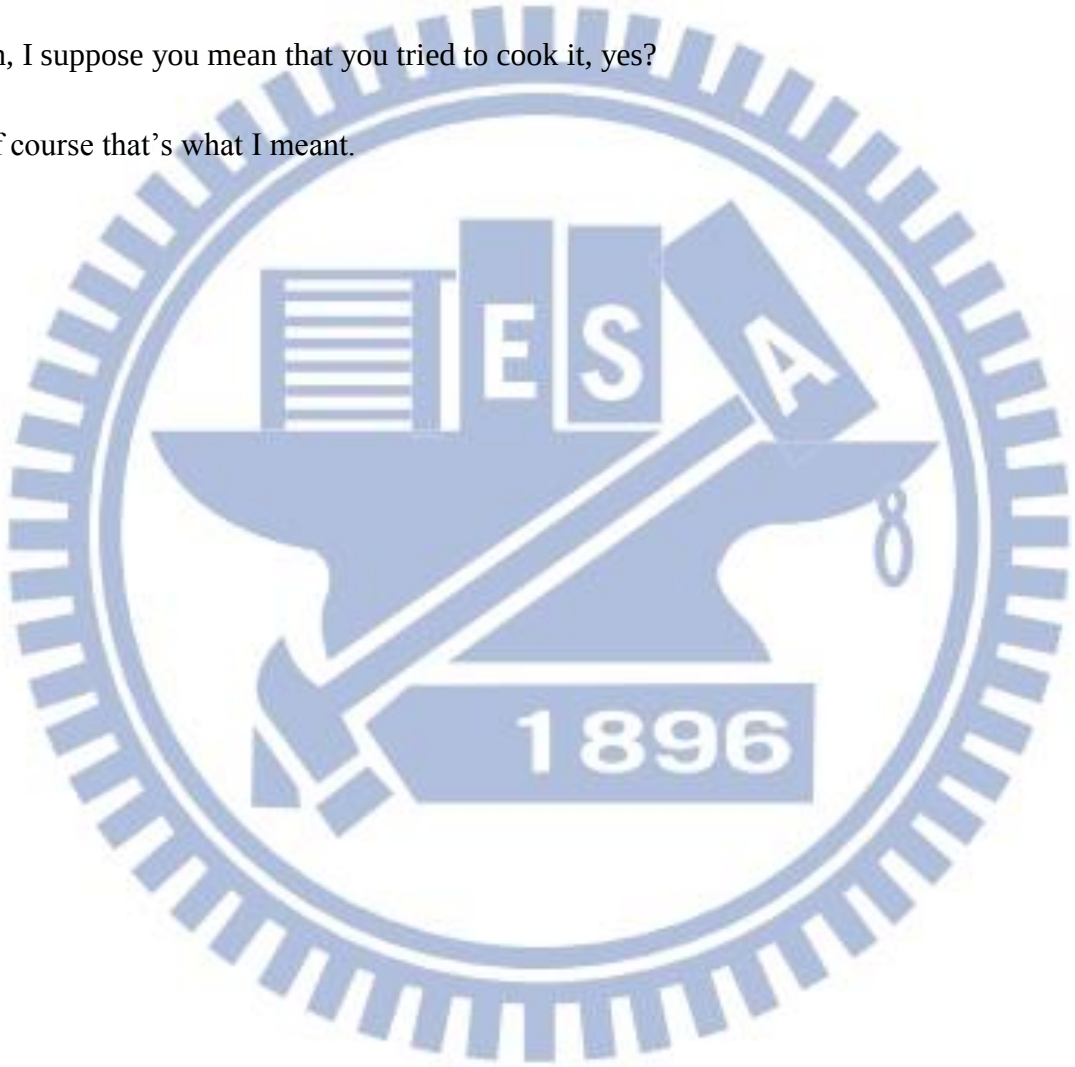
A: Yesterday I tried that chicken baked in pesto sauce you've been telling me about.

B: Cool! How was it?

A: I failed. I kind of burned it, and the sauce was a bit bitter.

B: Oh, I suppose you mean that you tried to cook it, yes?

A: Of course that's what I meant.



Appendix H

Course Materials: Handouts

Handout – Class 1

Asking for Repetition and Mime

Asking a repetition – a speaker asks another speaker to repeat the previously said sentence/phrase/word once again.

Mime – using body language (non-verbal signals) to convey the meaning of an unknown word or to express emotions.

Useful phrases:

- What?
- Sorry?
- Excuse me?
- I beg you pardon?
- Could/Can you repeat that?
- Could/ Can you say it again?
- What did you say?
- What was that (again)?
- I didn't catch that/the last part?
- What did you say _____ was?
- I can't hear you very well
- I didn't hear that.
- Come again?

Handout – Class 2

Approximation and Appeal for Help

Approximation – use of alternative word or phrase which not necessarily expresses the exact meaning.

Useful phrases:

- Kind of
- Sort of
- Something like
- More or less
- Similar to
- Not exactly

Appeal for help – asking another person for help to find out a way to say something

Useful phrases:

- How do you say _____?
- How is _____ called?
- What is the name of _____?
- Do you know the word for _____?
- What is another way to say _____?
- Do you know how to say _____?

Handout – Class 3

Circumlocution

Circumlocution - a speaker describes an object or action instead of using a language item that is unknown.

Useful phrases:

- Thing/object (It's a thing used to write)
- Person/people (It's a person that gives knowledge to students)
- Place (It's a place where food is cooked)
- Action (It's an action we do when we want our body to be in shape)
- General words: animal, building, fruit…
- Shape – triangle, square, oval, circle, moon-shape, heart-shape
- Color – red, blue, green…
- Size - small, big, as big as…
- Material - it is made of wood/ plastic/ glass…
- Function - it is used for/ by, it is used to, people use it to
- Condition – we use it when…, it can be used when….

Handout – Class 4

Comprehension check

Comprehension check – a speaker asks partner for clarification of the previously said phrase or sentence in order to make sure that he/she understood it correctly.

Useful phrases:

- Do you mean that….?
- Are you saying that….?
- In other words, ……
- I think you mean …..
- I guess you mean …..
- I am not sure I fully understand you. Do you mean….?
- If I understand you correctly, you are saying that …..
- So is it correct that ….. ?

Appendix I

Coding Examples

Asking for repetition CS

In the following example the E16's use of "can you say again?" was coded as asking for repetition CS, since the participant asked the interlocutor to repeat the previously said utterance and waited for a reply:

E15: only four left… ok next to the door it has a little thing beside the door..

E16: can you say again?..

E15: uhh.. is aaa.. I don't know how to describe it.. it's like a post next to the door… is the door is there and the post is little..

In the following example the C5's use of "what?" was not coded as the use of asking for repetition CS, since the participant asked the interlocutor to repeat the previously said utterance, but did not wait for a reply:

C6: and there is also a bottle on the table right?

C5: what? a bottle.. no no..

C6: I have a bottle on the table..

Mime CS

In the following example the use E3's gesture (horizontal) is coded as mime CS, since the participant solely relied on body language to transfer the meaning of the word to the interlocutor:

E4: this.. there is church..

E3: if you put the paper like this ((GESTUREING "HORIZONTALLY"))..

E4: you see the church

In the following example the use of E15's gesture (circle) is not coded as mime, since the participants used body language to support the description of the shape of the fence, rather than to substitute for an unknown word:

E15: drinking machine.. ok let me describe for you… the tree is here.. and here is the fence.. circle.. ((GESTURING CIRCULAR MOVEMENT))

E16: yes

E15: and outside the fence.. is a girl..

Approximation CS

In the following example, the E8's use of "seesaw" was coded as the approximation CS, since the participant substituted the word "swing" for an alternative term "seesaw" which does not have the same meaning, but shares semantic features to be correctly interpreted:

E7: oh I have two kids..

E8: two kids.. one of them is pointing towards the seesaw ((talking about the "swing"))?

E7: one..

Appeal for help CS

In the following example the E11's use of "what is cage?" was coded as the appeal for help CS, since the participants explicitly asked the interlocutor for the meaning of the unknown word "cage" :

E12: cage..

E11: cage.. what is cage?

E12: it's a building.. with lion..

Circumlocution CS

In the following example the C8's utterance "your husband might use it at home when he is trying to repair something" is coded as the circumlocution CS, since the participant described the function of the object instead of using the term "hammer":

C8: and two dwarfs sitting upside and trying to cut one piece of wood.. ok and two are trying to use the.. how to say it?.. your husband might use it at home when he is trying to repair something

C7: the hammer

Comprehension check CS

In the following example the E11' utterance "you mean giraffe or kangaroo?" is coded as the comprehension check CS, since the participant aimed to check whether she understood her partner correctly:

E11: so did you see the kangaroo?

E12: kangaroo… you mean giraffe or kangaroo?

E11: giraffe.. oh my goodness