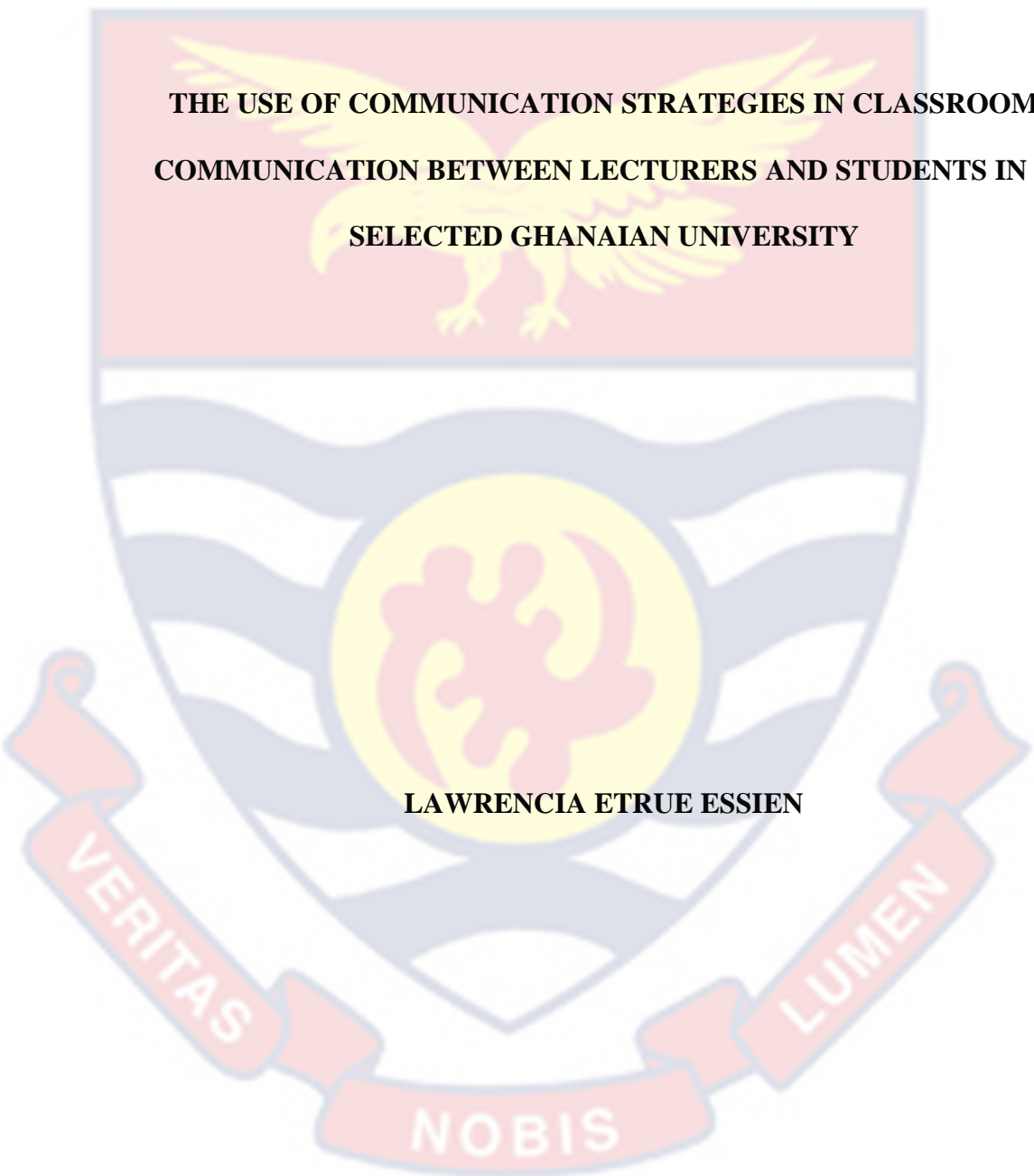UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

THE USE OF COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES IN CLASSROOM

COMMUNICATION BETWEEN LECTURERS AND STUDENTS IN A

SELECTED GHANAIAN UNIVERSITY

LAWRENCIA ETRUE ESSIEN

2022

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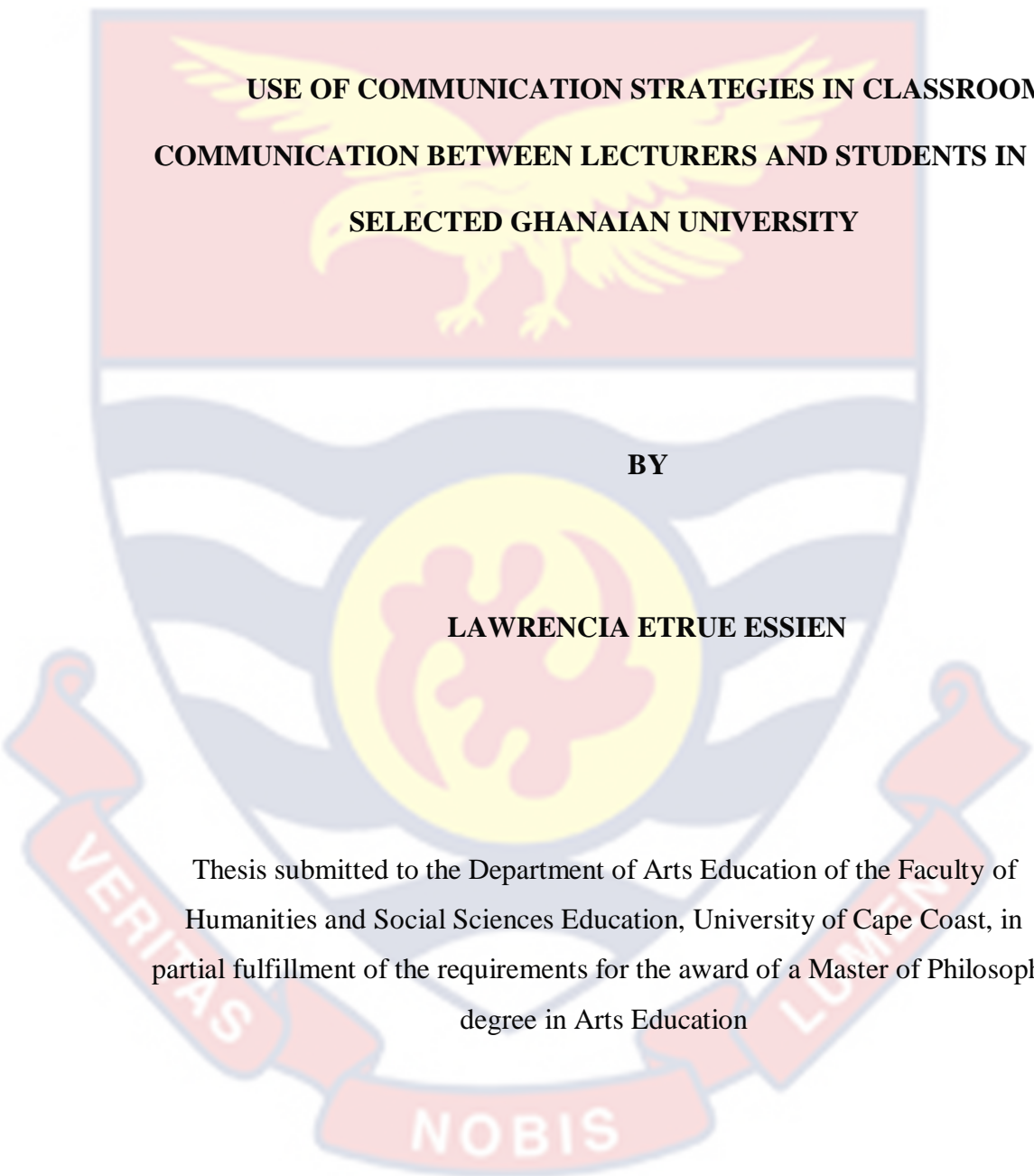
BY

LAWRENCIA ETRUE ESSIEN

Thesis submitted to the Department of Arts Education of the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences Education, University of Cape Coast, in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the award of a Master of Philosophy degree in Arts Education

JULY, 2022.

DECLARATION

Candidate's Declaration

I hereby declare that this thesis is the result of my own original research and that no part of it has been presented for another degree in this university or elsewhere.

Candidate's Signature:... Date:..........................

Name: Lawrencia Etrue Essien

Supervisors' Declaration

I hereby declare that the preparation and presentation of the thesis was supervised in accordance with the guidelines on supervision of thesis laid down by the University of Cape Coast.

Principal Supervisor's Signature:.................................. Date:.........................

Name: Dr. Eric Mensah

ii

ABSTRACT

In situations where the language of instruction is not the first language of speakers, they may encounter difficulties in expressing their communication intentions as a result of gaps in their linguistic repertoire. This situation requires them to adopt some communication strategies to help them express their intentions and enhance the effectiveness of their communication. To find out how university students deal with communication breakdowns in the classroom, this study employed the convergent mixed method approach to collect data from 128 students and 2 lecturers in the Department of Arts Education at the University of Cape Coast. Guided by Dornyei and Scott's (1995) taxonomy of CS, questionnaires, observation guide and interview schedules were constructed and used to collect data from students and lecturers on their use of communication strategies and the implications that have on teaching and learning and the acquisition of the second language. It was found out that the students prefer to use non-linguistic means (indirect strategies) to convey their meaning while the lecturers prefer to used strategies that engage the students in the conversation (interactional strategies). Fillers, self-rephrasing, and self-repetition were found to be the most frequently used strategies by the students and the lecturers. It was concluded that interactional strategies are often used by the lecturers as a teaching methodology, even though excessive usage of CS sometimes disrupts instructional hours and impedes proper acquisition of the English language. The study recommends that lecturers adapt the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approach in language classrooms.

KEYWORDS

Communication breakdown

Communication problem

Communication strategies

Competence

Coping mechanisms

Instructional hours

Interactional strategies

Interlocutors.

iv

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

DEDICATION

To myself

TABLE OF CONTENT

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF ABBREVIATION

CAH   Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis

CLT   Communicative Language Teaching

CP   Communicative Problem

CS   Communication Strategy

EFL   English as a Foreign Language

SLA   Second Language Acquisition

UCC   University of Cape Coast
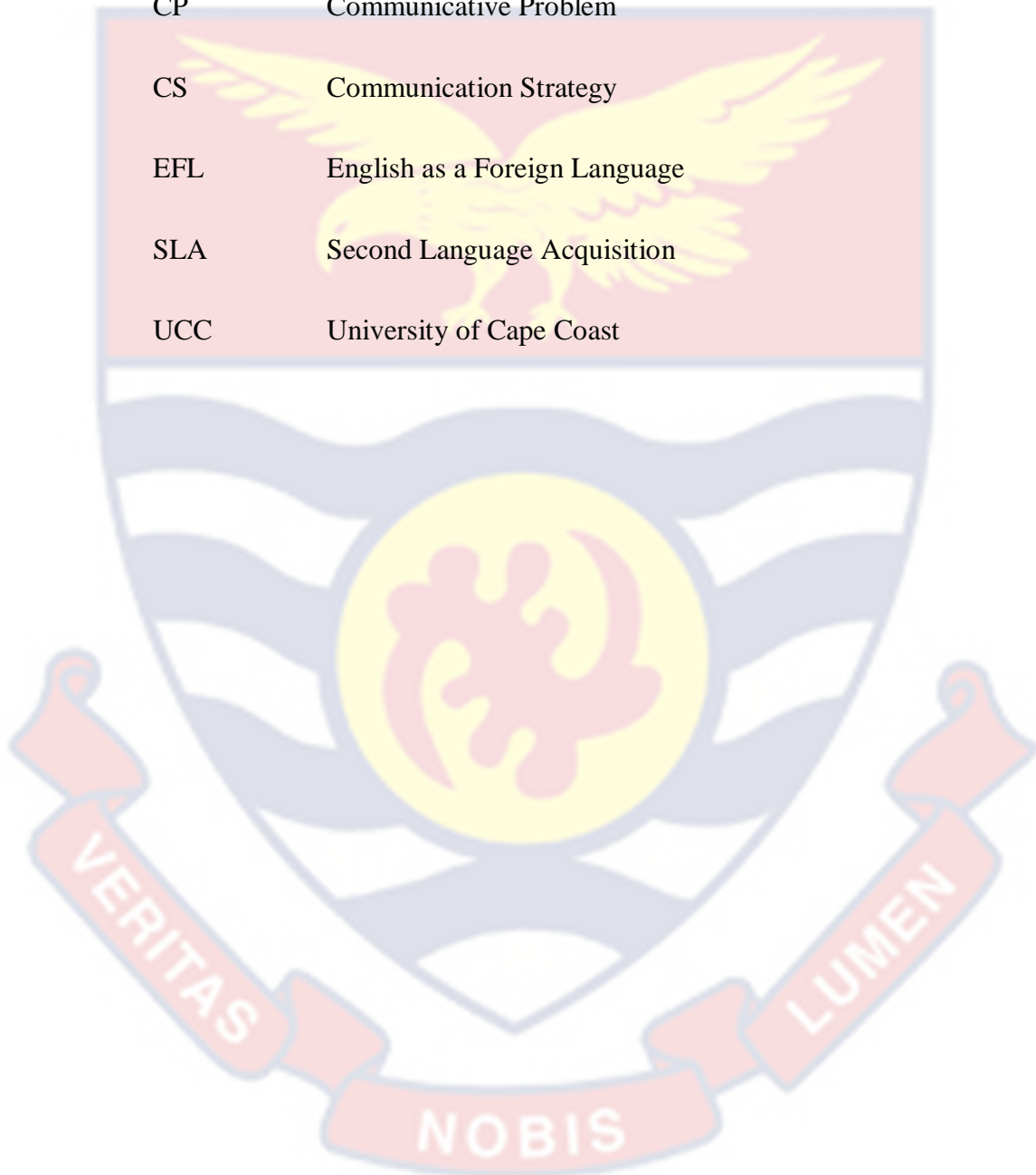
CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Communication is a fundamental aspect of human life. Hence, humans strive to put across their thoughts using all available means so that they may be understood by their interlocutors. In situations where the language of communication is not the first language of the speakers, they may encounter difficulties in expressing their communication intentions (Kern, 2000) as a result of gaps in their linguistic repertoire. Such a situation then requires them to adopt some communication strategies to help them express their intentions (Adegbile & Alabi, 2005). Communication strategies are the steps that language learners undertake in an attempt to enhance the effectiveness of their communication (Littlemore, 2003, cited in Guo, 2011). More light is thrown on the problem, purpose, research questions, limitations, etc. in this chapter.

Background to the Study

Communication allows humans to share their emotions, thoughts, and all other information among themselves (Anyidoho, 2018), thereby becoming one of the essential needs. Language is a tool that helps to express the culture, traditions, and values of a particular group of people who share a common identity (Sirbu, 2015). Thus, we cannot talk about language without mentioning society, culture or identity. Though the concept of language may mean the same thing, it is a diverse phenomenon that varies from society to society (sociolect/dialect), person to person (idiolect), or by gender (genderlect). For ages, humans have made the conscious effort to bridge language barriers by learning each other's language, hence the emergence of

1

English and French as the two most popular languages in the world. The English language has become a criterion for becoming knowledgeable, respectable, and communicable. It is the language of power and prestige (Ofori & Albakry, 2012).

Colonial history mentions the Portuguese as the first European country to sail the coasts of West African countries for trading purposes. The arrival of the colonial masters brought about changes in the cultural and linguistic sense of West Africans. The multicultural nature of the African continent does not permit for use of one language in a country (Guerini, 2007). However, the arrival of the English and French languages has bridged that gap. The history of the English language in Ghana cannot be talked about without the mention of the cultivation of the language in the Ghanaian culture and social structure. Since the arrival of the Portuguese in the 1550s, the English language has kept evolving (Pipkins, 2004), from the start of the castle schools through modern-day Ghanaian English.

The English language has gained very significant status in the lives of Ghanaians, with varying levels ranging from the broken English spoken by uneducated Ghanaians, the anglicized mother tongues (*Fanglish*), mostly spoken by Fante market women and youngsters, to the official standard spoken by educated Ghanaians. According to Afrifa et al. (2019), during the 2010 population census, 63% of Ghanaians were reported as people aged fifteen years and older (15+) who speak English in Ghana. In most West African countries, like Ghana, the English language assumes much power and prestige. Consequently, its acquisition and use spread to diverse forms of work. It is seen by many as the language of the elite and the gateway to

2

success (ibid.). As such, there is this unofficial premium put on the acquisition of the language by Ghanaians because of the educational, material, and status advantages that knowledge of it confers. Also, since the English language serves as a cohesive force in multilingual Ghana, it has been a part of the teaching curriculum, and as such, most Ghanaians want to have knowledge of it (Owu-Ewie, 2006).

The national curriculum and language policies in Ghana have been unstable due to various factors, most of them avoidable if the education system could be rid of politicisation. After assuming their official duties, most government administrations make the effort to change or amend the existing educational policies (most often, the language-in-education policy) since the introduction of western educational reforms in Ghana (Anyidoho, 2018).

The dual role language plays in formal education currently, as a subject and as a language of school instruction (Shefiu, 2018), accords the English language a very vital role in the lives of students. Students in Ghana are, thereby, expected to be proficient in their command of the English language (English syllabus for Ghana, 2017). Contrary to this supposition, most students seem to fumble in their oral communications done in the English language inside and outside the classroom. This may be resulting from lags in their linguistic repertoire or the result of other social and environmental factors like nervousness, speakers' physical or psychological condition, etc. To compensate for these lags, students may resort to using other linguistic and non-linguistic means to communicate (Adegbile & Alabi, 2005; Lehmann, 2007; Rydell, 2018).

3

Scholars have debated the general composition or characteristics of the language of second language learners, and most of them agree on the fact that a second language cannot be a replica of the target language. Contact linguists have explained the process of second language acquisition from diverse perspectives and angles. Nemser (1969) describes the language of second language learners as an *approximative system* learners use to communicate in the target language. That is, L2 speakers make estimations about the target language based on their L1 knowledge. Corder (1971) describes it as *idiosyncratic dialects,* looking at the language of the second language learner as a deviant from the norm but peculiar to every individual. Similarly, Selinker (1972) perceives such language as an *interlanguage* (a language between learners' first and second language), which keeps evolving until it gets to a point closer to the target language. Every second language is characterised by almost all of the terminologies associated with contact linguistics: code-mixing and switching, language convergence, linguistic borrowings, language transfer, language interference, etc., resulting in a local variety of the standard target language.

From the Ghanaian perspective, Owu-Ewie and Lomotey (2016) investigated the Akan interference errors in the English writings of Junior High School students and found transliteration, omissions, inappropriate usage of words, spelling errors influenced by the L1, etc. as errors students made in their writings, with transliteration errors being the most frequently occurring error found. To avoid such errors in communications, second language learners revert to the use of communication strategies that they believe will help them effectively communicate their intentions.

4

These strategies that L2 users employ to translate linguistic structures from their mother tongue into the target language are defined by linguists as the strategies that learners adopt to deal with the gaps in their communicative repertoire when they are faced with difficulties in expressing their communicative intentions (Adegbile & Alabi, 2005). Some of the communication strategies that L2 learners use include: word coinages, prefabricated patterns, circumlocution, appealing for help, strategies to gain time, message abandonment, topic avoidance, approximation, use of non-linguistic means, literal translation, use of fillers, code-switching, wrong term use, repetition, self-correction, etc. (Tarone 1977, 1981; Dornyei, 1995, 1997; Tarone et. al.,1976).

The imperfection in a language is not limited to only second languages but also all languages since no individual can have a perfect linguistic repertoire (Maleki, 2007). The general assumption is that every individual, in communicating, makes mistakes, if not errors, because of social or psychological factors. To avoid interruptions in communication, speakers use communication strategies to make do with the immediately available linguistic resources to communicate their intentions (Adegbile & Alabi, 2005; Lehmann, 2007; Rydell, 2018). While others may see the language of the L2 learner as mere interference of learners' first language or errors they make in the process of perfecting their learning, from another lens, these features can be seen as conscious attempts by speakers to communicate in the target language with the limited linguistic repertoire at their level of education and level of competence.

5

The importance of communication strategies in SLA has informed many studies on communication strategies worldwide. To find out the types of CSs students with different levels of communication apprehension use, Tiono and Sylvia (2004) investigated 30 EFL students from the English Department of Petra Christian University and found that participants with a higher level of communication apprehension (anxiety, nervousness, etc.) used more CSs than those with a low level of apprehension. Spromberg (2011) also observed 25 high school English language learners in public schools in New York to find out their use of CSs. Using Dornyei and Scott's (1995) taxonomy of CS, Spromberg found out that 47% of the total 557 CSs identified in the study were interactional strategies.

In Botswana, Chimbganda (2000) studied the use of communication strategies by EFL first-year students in answering biology questions and found out that the use of circumlocution, paraphrasing, etc. does not help the students perform well or communicate their intentions. Chimbanga attributes this shortcoming to the general nature of science, which demands the use of scientific registers or genres. In Malaysia, Hua, Nor and Jaradat (2012) studied the frequency and types of CS EFL learners use. The findings from the study indicate that code-switching was frequently used by the students and that the proficiency level of learners influences their choice of the types of CS to use.

In the Ghanaian context, Nti (2019), employing the case study design, investigated the use of CS by both college tutors and students and found that tutors and students used varied types of CS to negotiate meaning in the classroom. The results again indicate that the use of CS helps in reducing the

6

communication apprehension level of college tutors and students and helps them improve their state of communicative self-confidence.

The College of Education Studies of the University of Cape Coast, one of the five colleges of the university, trains teachers who teach at all levels of education. Embedded in the broad goal of the university, the core of the mission and vision of the Department of Arts Education, UCC is to train excellent teachers through effective teaching, research, support for learners, etc. (VC's annual report 2019/2020). These goals, however, cannot be achieved if there are breakdowns in classroom communication since lecture sessions are the major instructional platforms. At the university level, the language of instruction is the English language. As a graduate from the Department of Arts Education at UCC, my experiences as an undergraduate indicate that even though the students used diverse communication strategies in the classroom in an effort to understand and be understood, they were not aware of their usage of these strategies or why they used them. To ascertain the use of communication strategies and create awareness in the process, this study sought to investigate the use of communication strategies among the students and the lecturers of the Department of Arts Education of the University of Cape Coast.

Statement of the Problem

Although access to and dissemination of information has become easier in recent years, the teacher is still the primary source of knowledge and information in the classroom (Simpllico, 2002, as cited by Nazish, 2014). In the delivery of knowledge to students, teachers' communication skills are very

7

essential in the classroom (McCarthy & Carter, 2001); so are the students' communication skills, since communication goes both ways. Therefore, comprehension of communication intentions between and among lecturer(s) and students during the teaching process is of great importance.

Moreover, the active involvement and eagerness of students to participate in classroom engagements contribute to establishing a positive learning atmosphere (Davis, 2009). Actively participating in class helps students to build their communication competence and shape their identities (Jackson, 2002). The problem, however, is that teachers argue that students' low participation in language learning classrooms is deemed undesirable by teachers as it could have adverse effects on both the teacher's effectiveness and the students' learning outcomes in the acquisition of the second language (Petress, 2001). Low classroom participation has been attributed to factors such as the self-efficacy of students, their personalities, and a lack of linguistic knowledge, which leads to communication breakdowns in second language classrooms. (Abdullah, Bakar, & Mahbob, 2012).

To solve this problem, speakers resort to the use of communication strategies to deal with gaps in their linguistic repertoire (Adegbile & Alabi, 2005; Lehmann, 2007; Owusu, Agor & Amuzu, 2015; Rydell, 2018). These strategies have become a natural feature of second languages, so much so that most speakers are not even aware they use them in their conversations. Hence, researchers have looked into the types of communication strategies (CS) that second language learners use, the factors that influence the choice of a CS, the awareness of CS usage by second language users, and other aspects of CS (Houston, 2006; Hua, Nor, & Jaradat, 2012; Spromberg, 2011; Tiono &

8

Sylvia, 2004; Wannaruk, 2003). Though these studies share similarities in terms of theories and purpose, the linguacultural background context in which they are conducted makes them different, thereby creating a gap in this area of study.

In Ghana, a study conducted by Nti (2019) to ascertain the use of CS by college tutors and students in the Bono and Ahafo region came up with the findings that the use of CS by college students and tutors helps to reduce their communication apprehension level and improve their state of communicative self-confidence. Lomotey and Debrah-Amofah (2021), investigating the lecturers and students in two public universities in Ghana, also found that code-switching, literal translation and appeal for help were employed by the lecturers and the students to solve communication problems, to reach communicative goals, for clarification, or to reach language accuracy.

There are obviously gaps in the geographical setting, educational level, and linguacultural background of the published studies on communication strategies conducted in Ghana. These necessitate an in-depth exploration of the use of CS in a different setting, UCC, to find out if there are geographical or culture-related differences as compared to the studies conducted in other countries (New York, Botswana, Malaysia, Indonesia, Libya, etc.) and from other linguacultural backgrounds in Ghana (Bono and Ahafo region).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to explore the use of communication strategies in classroom communication between lecturers and students at the

9

University of Cape Coast, the factors that influence their use of CS, and the implications this may have on the teaching process.

Specifically, the study sought to find out:

1. The types of communication strategies (CS) that students and lecturers use during instructional hours.

2. The frequency of occurrence of the communication strategies that lecturers and students use in the classroom.

3. The factors that influence the choice to use a communication strategy (CS) by lecturers and students.

4. The implications (positive and negative) that communication strategies have on the teaching and learning of the English language.

Research Questions

1. Which types of communication strategies do lecturers and students use during instructional hours?

2. What is the frequency of occurrence of communication strategies lecturers and students use during instructional hours?

3. Which factors influence the choice to use a communication strategy by lecturers and students during instructional hours?

4. What implications does the use of communication strategies have for classroom interactions?

Significance of the Study

The study is significant to both theory and practices of Second Language Acquisition (SLA). To theory, the study will add to the existing

10

literature on second language acquisition, communication competence, communication strategies, and language education. Researchers may refer to this study in future research on Second Language Acquisition and communication strategies.

To practice, it will create awareness among students and lecturers about their use of CS, the factors that cause communication breakdown in the classroom, and the negative and positive implications of the use of CS, which will help them adopt and adapt learning strategies, teaching strategies, and appropriate measures that will enhance second language teaching and learning. Lecturers will gain insight into the teaching methodologies that work in second language classrooms and how to employ them to enhance classroom communication. Student-teachers will also become aware of the communication strategies they use and how to use them to promote their teaching in their respective schools. Since understanding between and among the lecturers and the students is vital in the teaching process, exploring how teachers and students negotiate meaning in the classroom will help promote the acquisition and use of the second language (English).

Delimitation

In terms of the respondents, this study covers only third-year undergraduate students from the Department of Arts Education at the University of Cape Coast. Moreover, the study concentrates solely on oral communications, not written forms of communication, which is considered a primary and natural aspect of the four basic communication skills. The justification is that oral communication is most often natural and spontaneous

11

as compared to written communication. Written communication gives communicators adequate time to think, to create, and to organise their thoughts, unlike oral communication. This does not deny the fact that communication strategies are used in written communications; they are, however, used more in natural and spontaneous oral communications.

The study again adapts Dornyei and Scott's (1995) taxonomy of CS, as listed and explained by Dornyei and Scott (1997). This taxonomy was adapted for its explicitness in classifying CSs into coping devices and interactional devices. Dornyei and Scott's taxonomy also includes strategies that listeners use, thereby covering the word communication in the whole CS concept.

Limitation

The current worldwide pandemic, COVID-19, affected the data collection process by imposing an unexpected time constraint on it. The observation period was supposed to be two months. However, because of the pandemic, universities in Ghana have adjusted their academic calendars to cover the hiatus. Therefore, the researcher had to manage and collect all the data within a month before the students started their mid-semester examination.

Organisation of the Study

The study was organised into five chapters. Chapter one (1) is the introductory chapter and gives information about the background, the statement of the problem, the research questions, and the significance of the study. Related literature and the conceptual framework underpinning the study are reviewed in chapter 2. The research design, the study area, the population,

the sample and sampling procedure, the data collection and processing procedures, and the analytical framework that was used in the study are also highlighted in chapter 3. This is followed by the analysis of data and the findings, summary, implications, conclusions, and recommendations of the study in chapters four and five.

Chapter Summary

This context in which the study is situated, the rationale behind the study, and the limitations and delimitations are presented in this chapter, thereby providing an overview of the study and its structure.

13
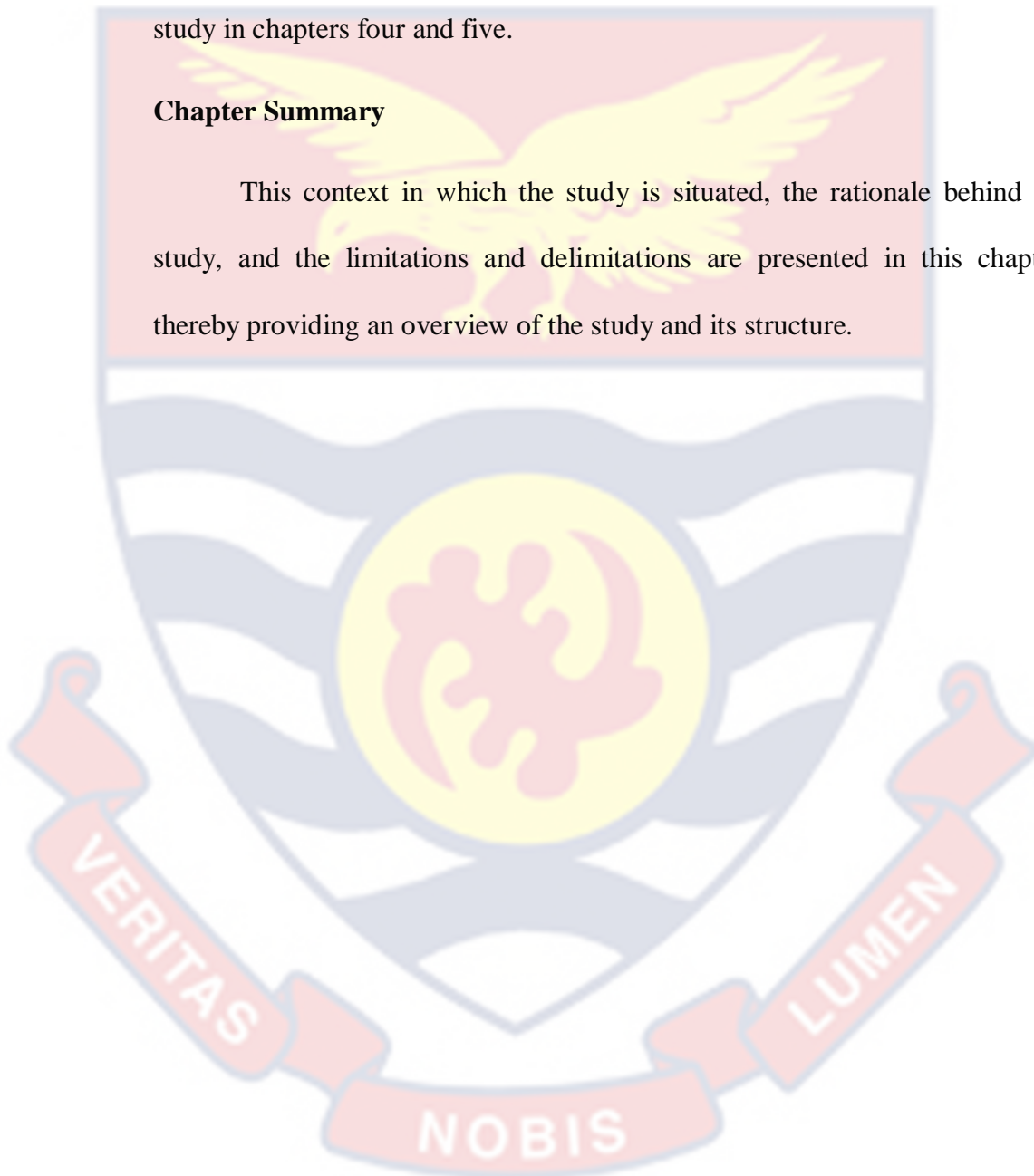
CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Introduction

Theories, concepts, and empirical studies on communication strategies used by second language learners, the factors that influence the choice and use of CS, and the possible implications the use of CS may have on classroom interactions are discussed in this chapter. The review starts with an overview of concepts in a sequence that leads to the research theme. This is followed by the theoretical framework that underpins the study, then a review of theories around the research theme, including definitions of CS, the criteria for classifying CS, and the various CS typologies. Empirical studies on the types, frequency of use, influencing factors, and implications of the use of CS are also reviewed in this chapter.

Conceptual Review

Perspectives of second language acquisition

The study is rooted in the broad concept of second language acquisition. Second Language Acquisition (SLA) is a complicated subject that has given room for diverse theories and hypotheses. The complexity of the subject does not allow a single definition or process for acquiring a language. Factors pertaining to the learner and the learning situation interacting together form the basis of SLA, making it subjectable to variability and individuality (Ellis, 1989). Hence, there have been different schools of thought on the theory of SLA, the prominent theories being the behaviourist, the constructionist, nativist and the integrationists' theories.

14

The behaviourists, led by B. F. Skinner are of the view that language is acquired through habit formation by listening to, imitating, and repeating input from the linguistic environment and receiving reinforcement for their correct utterances in the second language. This view of SLA favoured the learning of rules (the grammar aspect) while ignoring all other aspects of the target language. From the behaviourist theories came the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis, which predicts that learners acquire aspects of the target language which are similar to their first language (L1) with much ease, while the aspects of a learner's second language that are different from L1 are learned with much difficulty. They hypothesise that learners' errors in L2 are the results of their L1 habits interfering with their L2 habits. Thus, the learner is passive, learning solely through the environment s/he finds him/herself (Ellis, 1989; Menezes, 2013; Vlack, 2010).

Contrary to the behaviourists' view of second language acquisition, the nativist theory perceives language acquisition as an innate ability that every child possesses naturally. Naom Chomsky, the father of this theory, posits that every child has an inbuilt device, which he terms a language acquisition device (LAD), which already contains a general idea about language systems (universal grammar). As a follow-up to the cognitivist theory of SLA, which perceives language as a build-up of knowledge systems that can eventually be automated by the learner, Chomsky believes that there is a part of the brain that serves as a repository for language. The L2 learner learns the L2 based on the rules of the L1 (Ellis, 1989; Vlack, 2010).

Interactionist view SLA as a construct, and language is gained through interaction and negotiation of the ideas of others (Chen, 2014). The main focus

15

of the interactionist theory is the input that learners get from the environment and the ability of the receiver of such input to modify and apply it in other situations. That is, language development is both a mental and social process. The assumption is that SLA is influenced by cognitive, social, physical, and linguistic factors (Cooter & Reutzel, 2004). The interactions between native and non-native users of the target language help in the modification of input to make it more comprehensible by using modification checks, clarification requests and self-repetition or paraphrasing (Ellis, 1989).

As has been noted earlier, the second language is a broad and complex field that goes beyond its acquisition processes. The acquisition theories alone cannot exhaust everything the second language entails. Sarem and Shirzadi (2014) argue that these theories only highlight a section of the field. There are other issues in SLA, such as the influence of the mother tongue, second language competence and leaner errors. Regardless, the fact cannot be ignored that all these issues are, one way or another, rooted in the theories of SLA.

Language acquisition or language learning?

Attempts at defining what Second Language Acquisition entails have raised the controversy of whether a second language is learned or acquired. Linguists classify acquisition as a subconscious process of a second language through the environment, while learning a second language involves the conscious effort to learn another language. The processes of language learning mostly take place in an unnatural environment such as a classroom with a teacher present to guide the learning (Krashen, 1981; Ellis, 1989; & Hogue, 2017).

16

Some researchers do not agree with making a distinction between acquisition and learning, viewing them as the same or an inter-related phenomenon. Rather than a distinction between the two, Watson-Gegeo and Neilson (2003) argue that language acquisition does not happen exclusively in a natural environment. Citing Ellis (1989), Watson-Gegeo and Neilson agree that language acquired and language learned are similar in nature. To them, the field of SLA should rather be termed Language Socialisation (LS) which encompasses both acquisition and learning. Their theory of language socialisation, I believe, is more realistic as opposed to the acquisition vs. learning theory.

In most countries that use English as the second language, like Ghana, the second language setting is never natural, be it the classroom or the home, in the sense that speakers and teachers of the second language are themselves second-language speakers. Therefore, in such settings, attaining a second language, whether at home or in the classroom involves conscious and subconscious attempts of the learner and the teacher. This does not imply that non-native teachers and speakers of English or any other second language do not teach it well. Canagarajah, as cited by Richards (2010), posits that teachers of second languages do not necessarily need a native-like command of the target language to be able to teach it well. That is, Ellis' (1989) definition of SLA as the conscious and/or subconscious processes through which another language is gained in a natural or classroom setting seems like a more appropriate definition.

Mistakes or errors?

The concept of 'learning' and formal instruction in SLA subjects the language of the L2 learner to errors. Brown (2002) views errors as noticeable deviations from the native language by adult L2 users, which reflect their language competence and result in gaps in the speakers' linguistic repertoire. According to Corder (1967), most linguists treat the errors second language learners make as 'possibly annoying, distracting, and an inevitable by-product of the learning process, which is corrected over time as the L2 learner develops his/her second language. Corder distinguishes between systematic and non-systematic errors, asserting that unsystematic errors are errors of performance that result from physical and psychological conditions such as tiredness, memory lapses, strong emotions, etc., and speakers are immediately aware of such slips. Systematic errors, on the other hand, are termed by Corder as errors of competence, as such errors reveal "transitional competence".

While some linguists perceive learner errors as a process or learning aid, others see errors as an impediment to learning the second language. Behaviourists perceive errors as habits of the first language interfering with the learning or acquisition of learning a second language. The behaviourist approach is linked to the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (CAH), which predicts that second language learners acquire a second language with ease if the systems of the first and second languages are similar whereas the target language is learned with difficulty if the systems of the first and second languages are different (Ellis, 1989; Kocieniewska, 2016). This view on errors is criticised by linguists on the basis that some of the errors that CAH predicts

18

are not committed by L2 learners, while other errors learners commit is not predicted by them (Ellis, 1989), considering every error as bad and unwanted.

The behaviourists dismiss second language errors, terming them as L2 interference, which can be corrected by comparing languages (contrastive analysis), finding the pit holes and then, avoiding the gaps. In contrast, cognitivist see errors as evidence of learning, which indicates the level of advancement of the learner (Kocieniewska, 2016). They view learners' incorrect utterances as evidence of their learning and such errors are seen as systematic by nature (Corder, 1967).

The cognitivists again distinguish between competence and performance, viewing competence as the cognitive capacity of a learner to retain the rules and systems of grammar or a language, and performance as the linguistic ability of a learner to apply the systems of grammar in their day-to-day conversations (Chomsky, 1965). On this basis, Corder, in *the significance of learner's errors*, classifies learners' errors into two categories: errors of performance, which are also known as *mistakes* and errors of competence, which are simply *errors*.

Communication competence

The notion of communication competence started as a reaction by Dell Hymes to Naom Chomsky's distinction between competence and performance. Later models and theories of communication competence describe it as the ability of L2 learners to function well within a natural communicative situation, viewing competence as not just the knowingness of the rules but the ability to apply the rules of a language (Adegbile & Alabi,

19

2005; Rydell, 2011). Hymes (1972) identifies three forms of competence: grammatical, sociolinguistic and strategic competence. Perceiving the main reason for learning a second language to be for communication purposes, Canale (1983) and Canale and Swain (1980) expanded the concept of competence, terming it as *communicative competence*, given it its four main properties: *grammatical competence* which means knowledge of words and rules; sociolinguistic competence which refers to the ability to communicate in a socially accepted manner; *discourse competence* which is the knowledge of coherence and cohesion; and *strategic competence* which is the suitable use of CS (Kern, 2000; Rydell, 2011).

If learner's communicative competence is deficient, they look for other ways to communicate their thoughts by the use of communicative strategies. The sociolinguistic competence and discourse competence aspects of the emerging models of communication competence elevate the whole idea of competence from being linguistic knowledge to the ability to communicate and interact with other speakers (native or non-native) of the second language (Williams & Kemper, 2004).

Adegbile and Alabi (2005) assert that variations in the language competencies of L2 speakers result from individual and other social factors. They cite Myles (2004), who believes that the negative attitude of learners towards the target language, continuous lack of progress in learning the second language, the lack of motivation to acquire the target language, and a wide gap between the first and the target language and culture can affect learner's level of communicative competence in the second language.

20
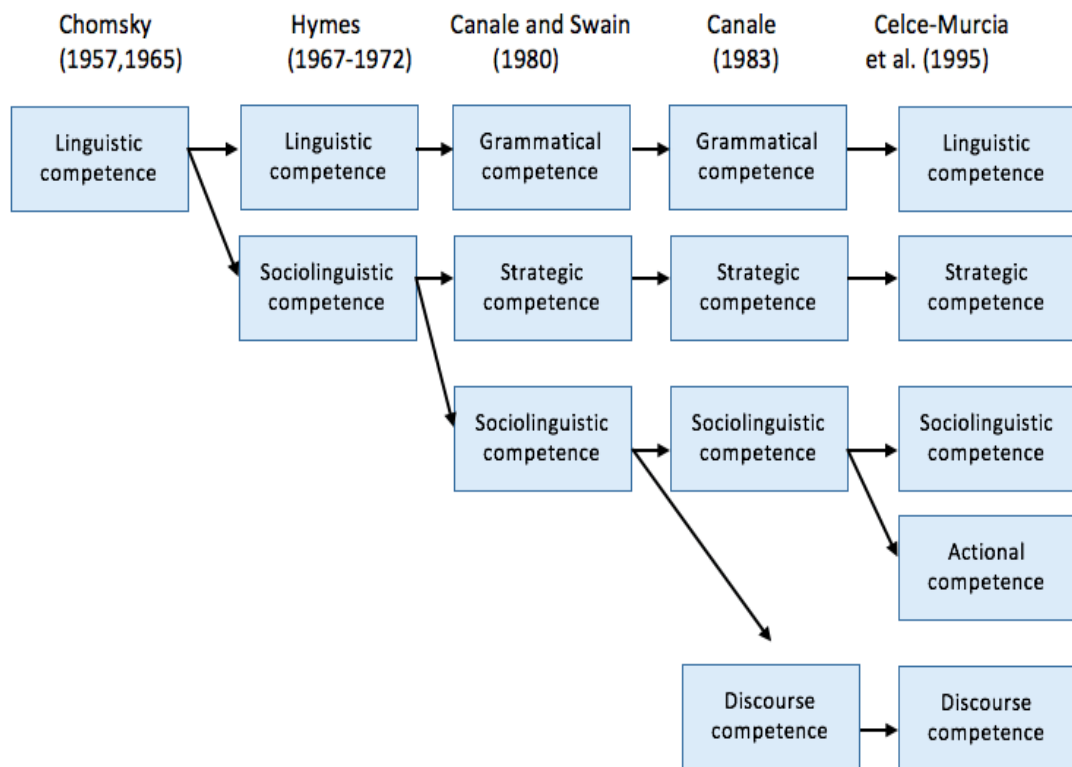
Figure 1:Celce Murcia et al. (1995) typology of communication competence

Background to communication strategies

The essence of communication is to pass on meaningful messages to others. When speakers are unable to articulate their communication intentions to listeners or when listeners are unable to convey meaningful feedback during an interaction, there is a communication problem (Williams & Kemper, 2004). These communication problems may result from the communication situation, communicators' performance problems or gaps in communicators' L2 knowledge. In such situations, L2 users recourse to using communication strategies to help convey their intentions to other interlocutors (Bialystok, 1990; Ellis, 1994; Tiano & Sylvia, 2004). Interacting in a second language is characterised by the likelihood of prevalent use of meaning negotiation techniques and communication strategies, especially in situations where

21

communicators are not from the same language background (Yule & Tarone, 1991, cited by Spromberg, 2011).

The concept of *communication strategies* is claimed to have been coined by Selinker in 1972 as one of the central processes of second language acquisition (Maldorado 2016). Since then, CS has eveolved from simply being a way to solve communication problems to being a way of enhancing second language communications and teaching pedagogy in the second language (Yule & Tarone, 1991; Dornyei, 1995; Dornyei & Scott, 1997).

Littlemore (2003) views CS as the processes L2 learners undergo to improve or promote effective communication (Guo, 2011). Speakers used CS as a problem-solving mechanism when they become aware of gaps in their linguistic knowledge (Adegbile & Alabi, 2005; William, 1984, cited by Kern, 2000) and as an effective L2 interactional mechanism (Guo, 2011; Tiano & Sylvia, 2004; Tarone, 1980, cited by Houston, 2006). Communication strategies do not account for the appropriateness or correctness of forms. The focus is on the meaning of an utterance to the listener. That is, speakers modify their output in the way that it becomes a meaningful expression of their communicative purpose to the listeners.

Criteria for defining CS

The approaches that have been used to define CS over the years have rendered different definitions to the conceptualisation of CS. Hence, researchers such as Bialystok (1990) and Dornyei and Scott (1997) have put together certain criteria for defining CS by comparing various definitions and taxonomies. Almost all the definitions of CS are characterised by three main

22

features: "*problematicity*, *consciousness*, and *intentionality*" (Bialystok, 1990). Dornyei and Scott (1997), on the other hand, indicate two criteria: problem-orientedness and consciousness, putting Bialystok's intentionality as a sub-category of consciousness.

Problematicity

The problematicity or problem-oriented criterion is primal in defining CS (Dornyei & Scott, ibid.). This, according to Bialystok (1990) is the notion that speakers employ strategies only when they perceive a problem likely to discontinue communication. Abdelati (2019) asserts that problematicity appears in most of the definitions of CS. The differences that show up in all the problem-oriented definitions of CS, according to Dornyei and Scott (ibid.) is a result of the focus of different researchers on specific problems. Citing Mariani (2010), Abdelati (2019) mentions that "the traditional view of CSs as problem-solving behaviour suggests that a deficiency or limitation in the linguistic   system   (phonological,   lexical,   syntactic, sociolinguistic/sociocultural, or pragmatic) makes communication difficult or even impossible to accomplish" (p. 25).

L2 communicative problems, as discussed in earlier paragraphs, have been categorised by Dornyei and Scott (1995, 1997) into four: resource-deficit problems, own-performance problems, others performance problems and time processing pressure. Researchers have however found issues with the problematicity criterion for defining CS. Dornyei and Scott (1995) point out that, with a lack of specificity, the problem-oriented criterion leaves the exact type of problem undefined, and this has resulted in diverse problem-oriented

23

definitions of CS. Thus, defining CS based on problematicity alone renders the definition vague, incomplete and inexhaustive of the phenomenon.

Consciousness

Consciousness is linked to the definition of CS on the premise that speakers are aware of their communicative problem and this awareness forms the basis for opting for alternative ways to communicate to others their intentions. CS definitions that hinge on consciousness disregard problem-oriented definitions on the basis that without the recognition of a problem, there will be no problem-solving mechanism (Mariani, 2010). To them, speakers must be aware of their communicative problems and make conscious efforts to use appropriate CS to resolve the problem they have encountered.

Dornyei and Scott (1997) compile three (3) forms of consciousness in relation to CS from their (1995) study. These aspects of consciousness are:

1. *Consciousness of a problem*. This is the awareness of communicative problems (breakdown) thatre related to language processing problems that the speaker consciously recognizes, and as such, are distinguished from mistakes.

2. *Consciousness as intentionality*. These are deliberate use of Communication Strategies by speakers that are separated from other verbal behaviours that speakers may employ in their communication unintendedly.

3. *Consciousness as awareness of strategic language use.* This is when L2 speakers realise that they are using more problem-oriented CS to avoid blockages in their communication. They perceive their utterances to be

less than perfect, which urges speakers to find other means to reach a mutual understanding among themselves.

Using consciousness as a criterion does not stand well with Bialystok (1990) as she argues that viewing CS as awareness of a problem implies that only speakers who are aware of CS employ CS in their interactions. She claims that in some situations, speakers may not be aware of their CS use and asserts that some L2 speakers may employ communicative strategies even when they are not aware there is a communicative problem (Bialystok, 1990, cited by Nti, 2019). That is to say that whiles some L2 speakers may use CS as problem-solving mechanisms, some may use CS because they think that is the correct target language structure their utterances must follow, or speakers may intentionally use CS to create certain effects in their conversations.

Consequently, Bialystok (ibid.) mentions *intentionality* as a major criterion for defining CS referring to it as the control a speaker has over the choice of a strategy. Hmaid (2014) indicates that the intentionality criterion of CS implies a relationship between a communicative problem (level of proficiency, communicative situation and intention, etc.) and the use of specific CS. Moreover, some researchers argue that some speakers use CS not because they are faced with communicative problems but because they use CS routinely in their day-to-day interactions (Bialystok, 1990; Tarone, 1997, cited by Nti, 2019).

Definitions of CS

Communication strategies have been defined from different angles of approach and situations. Some scholars define it from the psycholinguistic

25

perspective, others define it from the interactional approach or the communicative continuity approach. Again, CS has been defined on the basis of the competence level of L2 users or the error resources approach, with the common aim of solving speakers' communicative problems and enhancing L2 communication (Hmaid, 2014; Nti, 2019).

Various definitions of CS from diverse perspectives were adapted and compiled from Nti (2019), Abdelati (2019), Dornyei and Scott (1997), Spromberg (2011), Lin (2014), Hmaid (2014) and Guo (2011) and have been put together in the table.

Table 1: Various definitions of Communication Strategies

RESEARCHER	DEFINITION OF CS
Littlemore (2003)	They are steps language learners undertake as a means of enhancing effective communication
Tarone (1980)	The attempt by interlocutors to come to a consensus on the meaning of situations when the meaning of messages is covert
Corder (1983)	The techniques L2 speakers employ to express themselves in the face of communication problems
Williams and Burden (2000)	They are the strategies use by interlocutors when faced with communication problems that result from gaps in their linguistic knowledge.
Tarone (1977)	Mutual attempts by individuals to overcome communication crises when knowledge of language structures is inadequate

26

Canale and Swain (1980)	They are verbal and nonverbal strategies speakers use to compensate for communication breakdowns that are due to lack of competence in a language.
Farch and Kasper (1983)	They are the conscious plans that are used by individuals to solve communicative problems which prevent them from attaining their communicative goal.
Poulisse (1987)	CSs are strategies that a speaker uses to solve communication problems which are caused by lack of appropriate lexical forms.
Cohen (2004)	CS is a systematic attempt by the learner to express meaning by a target language in which the suitable systematic target language rules have not been formed.
Ellis (1994)	CS are procedural skills that learners use to overcome the inadequacies of their interlanguage resources.

Nti (2019)

CS Taxonomies

The different approaches to CS and criteria for defining it have resulted in different taxonomies from different studies depending on their orientation on the phenomenon. Table 2 presents taxonomies by Tarone (1977), Willems (1987), Bialystok (1990) and Dornyei and Scott (1995) adapted from Dornyei and Scott (1997). The avoidance strategies from Tarone, the reduction strategies by Willems and the analysis-based strategies from Bialystok seem to correlate to the idea of speakers' decision to avoid or abandon their communicative intention at the planning stage of speech.

27

Paraphrase, mime, appeal for assistance, conscious transfer in Tarone's Taxonomy maps to Willems' Achievement Strategies and Bialystok's Control-based Strategies. These three taxonomies seem to come from a psycholinguistic perspective.

Dornyei and Scott's (1995) Taxonomy comes from a different approach: the *direct strategies* category seems to be a combination of both avoidance and achievement strategies. They are problem-solving strategies learners employ when they encounter communication problems. Indirect strategies are non-linguistic means that are used to help express meaning by preventing communication breakdowns and achieving a mutual understanding of the communication situation (Dornyei & Scott, 1997). They continue that those indirect strategies do not necessarily solve communication problems but manage communication problems. Also, Dornyei and Scott (1995) add *interactional strategies*, which involve both interlocutors (speaker and listener) finding ways and means to present intentions or understand intentions.

28

Table 2: Taxonomies of CS adapted from Dornyei and Scott (1997)

Tarone (1977)	Willems (1987)	Bialystok (1990)	Dornyei & Scott (1995a, 1995b)
Avoidance	**Reduction Strategies**	**Analysis-based strategies**	**Direct Strategies**
-Topic avoidance	*Formal reduction*	-Circumlocution	-Message abandonment
-Message abandonment	-phonological	-Paraphrase	-Message reduction
	-morphological	-Transliteration	-Message replacement
Paraphrase	-syntactic	-Word coinage	-Circumlocution
-Approximation	-lexical	-Mime	-Approximation
-Word coinage	*Functional reduction*	**Control-based strategies**	-Use of all-purpose words
-Circumlocution	-message abandonment	-Language switch	-Word-coinage
Conscious	-meaning replacement	-Ostensive definition	-Restructuring
Transfer	-topic avoidance	-Appeal for help	-Literal translation
-literal translation	**Achievement**	-Mime	-Foreignizing
-Language switch	**Strategies**		-Code-switching
Appeal for	Paralinguistic strategies		-Use of similar-sounding words
Assistance	Interlingual strategies		-Mumbling
	-borrowing		-Omission
Mime	-literal translation		-Retrieval
	-foreignizing		-Mime

Intralingual strategies	**Interactional strategies**
-approximation	**-**Appeals for help
-word coinage	-Comprehension check
- paraphrase	-Own-accuracy check
* Description	Other-performance problem-related strategies
* Circumlocution	
* Exemplification	-Asking for repetition
Smurfing	-Asking for clarification
Self-repair	-Asking for confirmation
-appeals for assistance	-Guessing
* Explicit	-Expressing non-understanding
* Implicit	-Interpretive summary
* Checking questions	**Indirect Strategies**
-initiating repair	-Use of fillers
	-Repetitions
	-Lengthened sound
	-Self-confirmation
	-Feigning understanding

Dornyei and Scott (1995)

30

Theoretical Framework

This section of the literature review presents the theoretical framework that underpins this study. It explains theories that have been developed regarding defining communication strategies. The theoretical framework that underpins this study hinges on both the Psycholinguistic and Interactional approaches to communicative strategies.

There is this general assumption that interactions in the second language are never rid of communication problems or negotiation of meaning (Yule & Tarone, 1991). Therefore, interlocutors tend to use CS in their daily interactions (either from the psycholinguistic approach to CS, the interactional approach to CS) which aids in meaningful delivery of communication intentions. There is an integrated approach, thus combining both the psycholinguistic and interactional approaches when the situation demands.

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                  ┌──────────────────────────────────────┐
                  │  Communication Breakdown/ Problem    │
                  └──────────────────────────────────────┘
                     ↙                              ↘
   ┌────────────────────────┐        ┌────────────────────────┐
   │ Psycholinguistic       │        │ Interactional Approach │
   │ Approach               │        │ (Factors)              │
   └────────────────────────┘        └────────────────────────┘
                     ↘                              ↙
        ┌──────────────────────────────────────────────────┐
        │ Communication Continuity Approach to Communication│
        └──────────────────────────────────────────────────┘
                              ↓
           ┌──────────────────────────────────────┐
           │   Meaningful Classroom Communication │
           └──────────────────────────────────────┘
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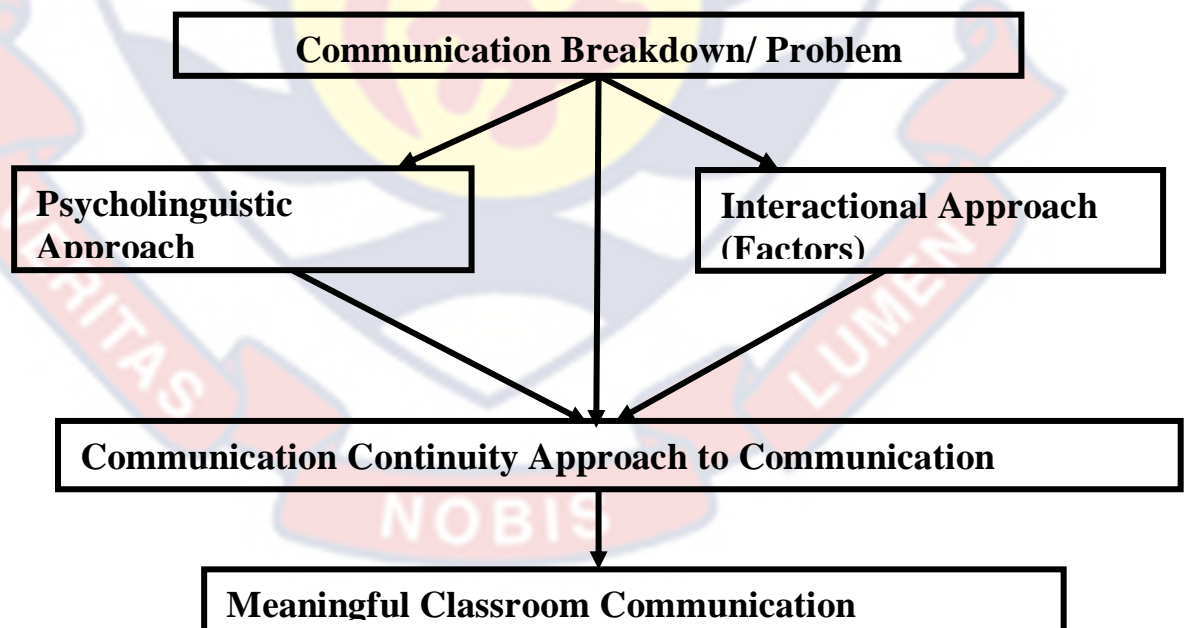
Figure 2: Theoretical framework

31

The psycholinguistic approach to CS

This is the traditional approach to CS which views CS as *problem-solving mechanisms* employed by L2 speakers to bridge the gaps in their linguistic knowledge (Nakatani & Goh, 2007, cited by Abdelati, 2019). Also known as the intra-individual approach, the psycholinguistic approach to CS focuses on the mental processes of L2 speakers in an interaction. From the problem-oriented view, CS is perceived as one of the L2 problem-management mechanisms like meaning negotiation, repair mechanisms, etc. However, CS is different from these other mechanisms in that they are pre-repair mechanisms that occur at the planning phase of communication (Dornyei & Scott, 1997).

At the planning stage of speech production, before the actual execution of speech, Farch and Kasper (1983) argue that speakers have the choice to change their original communicative event (avoidance strategies) when they foresee a communicative problem, or they can go ahead and find other ways to present their original communicative intention (achievement strategies). Farch and Kasper further assert that this choice to either use avoidance strategies or achievement strategies is dependent on both the nature of the problem and the speakers' underlying behaviour. This is summarised in Poulise's (1987) definition of CS as the strategies speakers employ to resolve problems they face during communication which result from deficiencies in their linguistic repertoire by reconceptualising or finding alternative ways to communicate their intentions. The idea that communicative problems can be resolved at the

32

pre-production stage of speech production is flawed if the spontaneity of oral communication is considered. Moreover, Bialystok (1990) mentions that because of some gaps in the linguistic knowledge of second language speakers, sailing from one idea to another is not as easy and fluent as when learners speak their first language, implying that planning and deciding to use 'avoidance' or 'achievement' strategies will make interaction in the second language boring, unnatural and time-consuming.

The interactional approach to CS

From the opposing school of thought, the interactional approach to CS bridges the differentiation gap between meaning negotiation and communication strategies, looking at them as one phenomenon (Dornyei & Scott, 1997). Their view includes repair mechanisms and meaning negotiation mechanisms, making CS an interactional attempt between two or more interlocutors to arrive at a communicative goal (ibid.). The interactionist believes that to arrive at a comprehensive presentation of communication intentions, all parties involved have to mutually agree on a goal, especially when one interlocutor does not have any knowledge of such a communicative goal (Tarone, 1980, cited by Nti, 2019).

That is, the focus is on the communication situation and reaching the communicative goal by using all available means (linguistic and paralinguistic) to put a message across or to comprehend the message that is put across. In this approach, it is a shared responsibility by speakers and listeners to make attempts to communicate (to understand and/or to be

33

understood). The focus of this approach is on both the linguistic realisation of CS and their function as meaning enhancements (Nakatani & Goh, 2007). Tarone considers all mechanisms employed during communication as CS on the condition that such mechanisms are intended to clarify the original intentions of communicators rather than correcting grammatical forms (Tarone, 1980 cited by Dornyei & Scott, 1997). Dornyei and Scott define communication strategies as the action(s) interlocutors adopt to better understand or be understood in an interaction (Hmaid, 2019).

The communication continuity approach to CS

The two approaches to CS have resulted in the generation of various conflicting CS taxonomies and controversial result leading to a call for a more comprehensive approach to investigating CS (Sin-Yi, 2015 cited by Abdelati, 2019). Also cited by Abdelati (2019), Uztosun and Erten (2014) call for an integration of the two approaches to CS, claiming that interlocutors undergo both speaker experiences and cognitive processes which are mainly modified during interactions, implying that adopting just one of the approaches in a study renders the result of the study incomplete or skewed to one line of thinking.

Celce-Murcia, Dornyei and Thurrell (1995), cited in Spromberg (2011: 10), propose a communication continuity approach or a maintenance perspective. Their perspective suggests CS as time gaining processes used by speakers in order to find alternative solutions to their communication problems. They adopt a pragmatic stance toward communication strategies by

34

suggesting the use of all other means necessary to keep the communication going, be it the conscious use of achievement/avoidance strategies (the psycholinguistic approach), by negotiating meaning during interactions (the interactional approach) or by employing both approaches (the communication continuity/integrated approach). The integrated approach regards CSs not only as problem-solving mechanisms used to resolve communication problems but also as a pragmatic-discoursal mechanism that is used to enhance the meaning of messages (Nakatani & Goh, 2007).

Theoretical Review

Dornyei and Scott's theory of communication strategies

From a pragmatic point of view, Dornyei and Scott (1995) conceptualise communication strategies as the main elements in the description of communicative problem management. They view CS to be every intended attempt by second-language users to resolve problems they may encounter in the course of interacting with others. They do this by comparing and integrating different problem management mechanisms from previous researches (Dornyei & Scott, 1997).

Their 1995 classification involved (1) classification of the strategies according to *the problem management manner* and (2) relating the elements in this classification to the types of communication problems. That is, they first look at how CS is used in solving communicative problems to achieve mutual understanding, coming up with three (3) categories. They later related these categories to the *four types of language problems* that arise in the course of

35

conversations that they have identified (Dornyei & Scott, 1997; Spromberg, 2011).

Referring to the works of other researchers in the field, Dornyei and Scott (1997) stipulate that CS have shifted from the resource-deficit problem management orientation to a broader conceptualisation resulting in three communication problems in addition to the traditional resource-deficit problem which are: Resource-deficit problems: these are the gaps in speakers' linguistic knowledge that prevents them from verbalising their communication intentions; Own-performance problems-the problems that result from a speaker's incorrect or partly correct speeches which are detected by continuous monitoring of speech by the speaker; Other-performance problems- problems perceived to be erroneous, not anticipated or lacks certainty and decreases the success rate in comprehending messages and *Processing time pressure*-the frequent need for more time to process and plan speeches by second-language users which, in any natural communication, would not have been needed (pg. 183).

Dornyei and Scott (1995) continue to categorise CS into 3 major problem-management mechanisms. These mechanisms are stipulated in Dornyei and Scott 1997: 200) to include; *Direct strategies* which are problem-solving strategies that learners employ to overcome communication problems they encounter by modifying meanings or giving alternative means of presenting their messages; *Indirect strategies* -which are the indirect mechanisms that facilitate communication. Such strategies create room for

36

interlocutors to arrive at a consensus on the meaning of utterances just to keep the communication channel. They are not necessarily problem-solving mechanisms. Dornyei & Scott (1995) assert that indirect strategies are very important in *problem management in L2 communication* even though they are not meaning-related and *Interactional strategies* -which involves interlocutors in an interaction cooperatively taking turns in carrying out trouble-shooting exchanges to attain a state of mutual understanding.

There have been a number of studies that have been conducted using Dornyei and Scott's taxonomy of CS. Ugla, Adnan & Abidin, (2013) studied the kinds of communication strategies (CS) used by Malaysian ESL students and found that that Malaysian students did not face many difficulties or breakdowns during their communication in English because they use most of CS in low level. Chang and Liu (2016), also using Dornyei and Scott's taxonomy, studied eight EFL Junior High School learners in Taiwan and found that the use of strategies was at times problem-oriented for avoiding or solving communication breakdowns.

The inclusive and broader conceptualisation of CS in Dornyei and Scott's (1995) Taxonomy covers almost all subcategories of communicative strategies and actions from both the psycholinguistic and the interactional perspectives (repair mechanisms, meaning negotiation mechanisms, trouble-shooting mechanisms, etc.) that actors in a communicative event (both speakers and listeners) employ to keep the communication channel open. These defining characteristics in Dornyei and Scott's (1995) Typology are the

37

reasons for choosing their theory as the theoretical and analytical background for this study. According to Dornyei and Scott's taxonomy s employed in this study because it is an extension of Tarone's (1977) and Faerch and Kasper's (1983) taxonomies, by engaging speakers to attain mutual understanding through meaning negotiation.

Empirical Review

The empirical review is grouped under four sub-topics based on the research objective, which are the types of CS, the frequency of use, factors that influence the choice and the implications that CS has on teaching and learning.

The types of CS that L2 learners of English use

Houston (2006) examined the communication strategies used by teachers and the students in an EFL classroom using data from an Introductory Spanish class and found that ESL learners rely heavily on avoidance strategies. Spromberg (2011) investigated twenty-five High School English language learners in New York by observing them. Using Dornyei and Scott's (1995) taxonomy of CS, Spromberg identified 557 CS from the transcripts of the observation video. She found that the students used direct coping devices like rephrasing, repairs and mime, and indirect coping devices such as repetitions, codeswitching. Wei (2011) also investigated the relationship between Chinese English learners towards the use of CS. Using questionnaires and interviews, Wei reported the use of reduction and achievement strategies among Chinese learners of English.

38

In 2012, Abunawas studied CS usage by Jordanian EFL Learners and concluded that EFL students from the study used more *approximation* and *circumlocution*. Also, the students who used literal translation mostly tended to use less mime while the students who resorted to the used of achievement strategies tended to use topic avoidance and message abandonment. Still, on CS use by EFL students, Hua, Nor and Jaradat's (2012) study investigated how and when international students used oral CS at Kebangsaan University in Malaysia. The findings indicated that participants used a variety of CS including self-repair, word coinages, code-switching and the use of all-purpose words.

Nazish (2014) studied teachers and students' use of CS to avoid communication breakdown in an English language classroom at an intermediate level of education and came up with the findings that most of the students studied preferred to use L1 and L2 base CS like time stalling strategies, use of mime, circumlocution, approximation topic avoidance, message abandonment., expressing non-understanding, omission, mumbling, appeal for assistance, clarification, repletion and comprehension checks, self-correction, and repetitions repetition.

Using a case study design, Nti (2019) investigated 3 tutors and 500 college students from the Bono and Ahafo region of Ghana and found that the types of CS used by tutors and the students in their classroom in the colleges of education are: questions, pauses, code-switching, message abandonment,

39

literal translation, restructuring, use of all-purpose words, appeal for help and repetitions.

The types of CS found from these studies are direct strategies, indirect strategies, coping strategies, problem-oriented strategies or communication-oriented strategies depending on the taxonomical theory or the approach the researcher adapted or adopted for the study.

The frequency of use of CS

Spromberg (2011) reports interactional coping devices (response confirm, rephrasing, confirmation and clarification checks) to be the most frequently used CS, taking 47% of the total 557 instances of CS that participants of the study used. She also reports the use of direct strategies such as mime (23% of the total 557), and 4% instances of self-rephrasing. Hua, Nor and Jaradat (2012) found in their study that code-switching and word coinages are the most and least frequently occurring strategies respectively, both of which are interlingual strategies. The results again indicate that self-repair was the most frequent CS the respondents used, taking up a frequency of 47 instances (19.92%). Coinages, on the other hand, occurred in I7 instances (2,97%), as the least occurring CS.

The factors that influence the choice of CS

Tiono and Sylvia (2004) studied the types of CS students used in relation to their communication apprehension level. Participants were to retell pictorial stories during which their CS usage and other necessary data were recorded. Tiono and Sylvia found out that respondents with a high level of

40

communication apprehension used more CS (taking 638% of the total CS from the data collected) than those with low communication apprehension levels (taking up 361% of the total CS from the data collected) and concluded that nervousness, lack of vocabulary and too much hesitation are some of the reasons speakers with a higher communication apprehension level employed more CS. Miriani (2010), cited by Abdelati (2019) indicates that the choice to use a particular CS is influenced by; *The type of communicative problem*: communication problems may occur at the speech planning stage, speech execution stage or even after these stages when receiving feedback from other interlocutors; the context and situation: such communication problems arise from psycholinguistic stress like nervousness, anxiety and mindfulness of their own language inadequacy, etc. Unfamiliar situations and interlocutors may bring tenseness which may lead to communication problems which in turn calls for the use of CS; personality of interlocutors: interlocutors who are prone to observe the correctness of their performance had a greater awareness of the problems they are facing (Miriani, 2010 cited in Abdelati (2019).

Nazish (2014) lists geographical background, Schooling background, Weakness of English syllabus, medium of instruction, lack of individual attention, Students' competence, lack of confidence and fear of being wrong, as causes of communication breakdown in English language classrooms which results in the use of CS to communicate efficiently. Abunawas (2012) also indicates that the proficiency or competence level of speakers influence their choice of CS. Wei (2011) concludes that the level of learners' language

41

proficiency, their attitude, personalities and the communication context inform the attitude of learners towards the use of CS and the frequency of use. It was also identified by Nti (2019) that to avoid breaks and stoppages in the second language communication process, deepen interactions between students and tutors, develop learner autonomy and correct/reduce errors to reach communication goals, both tutors and students resort to the use of communication strategies.

Rosas (2018) also studied the possible effects of the task type on learners' communication strategies used during face-to-face interactions with other interlocutors by using 24 English speakers learning Spanish. Participants were given two tasks, a free conversation and a jigsaw to collect data. The findings showed that task types influence the choice of certain types of CS. The findings showed that in the jigsaw, participants used more approximation since the focus of the task was on lexical achievement while participants used more grammatical substitution in the free conversation class. Thus, the task type and the focus of a task type determines the choice to use a particular CS.

The implications that CS have on teaching and learning

Nti's (2019) study revealed communicative strategies helps to reduce both tutors and students' communication apprehension level and helps them to achieve a higher perception of communicative competence, thereby improving their state of communicative self-confidence. He indicated that the effects of the use of CS included the enhancement of speakers' fluency, enhancement of the students' willingness to communicate, improvement in speakers' self-

42

confidence, etc. Hmaid (2014) studied the impact of teaching CS in oral communication in a Libyan university and reported that the use of CS by the students reflects positively on their in speaking the English language. The study observed an increase in learners' self-confidence when performing a speaking task and oral interviews. The reported results from the study present the teaching and usage of CS as a good way to encourage speaker autonomy and foster effective communication in the English language.

Chapter Summery

This chapter has discussed various approaches to CS, some taxonomical theories of CS, the theory which underpins this study which is Dornyei and Scott's (1995) Taxonomy. Concepts that relate to the research topic and some empirical studies have also been reviewed. The literature review situates the study in a framework that helps readers to establish the context of the study.

43

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This chapter presents the research paradigm, which informs the choices of the methods and methodology used in the study. Key methodological issues are also discussed, with justifications as to why these methods are used in the study. The research approach, the research design, the population, the sampling procedure, the instruments used for data collection, validity and reliability of the instruments and data collection are discussed in this chapter.

Research Paradigm

According to Khaldi (2017), research paradigms determine the choice of appropriate research methodology by researchers, therefore making research paradigms very important to researchers. The three most common research paradigms are positivism, interpretivism and pragmatism (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017). The positivists believe that there is a single reality that is measurable. Their perspective aligns them with the use of quantitative techniques and methodologies to uncover a single research problem (Cohen et al., 2007). The interpretivists or constructivists believe that there are multiple realities that must be interpreted based on the person viewing them. Interpretive research lends itself to the collection and analysis of qualitative data.

44

Criticisms from both positivists and interpretivists have shifted attention to pragmatism with the major assumption being that reality changes and therefore needs to be debated, interpreted or negotiated. It is argued that the truth about a phenomenon cannot be accessed using a purely scientific method or otherwise, a purely interpretive method, but by the method that works for the situation (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017). On this supposition, most pragmatists tend to use mixed methods in their studies. However, Creswell (2009) argues that though pragmatism and mixed methods use both quantitative and qualitative approaches to research, they do not share a common philosophy. That is, while the mixed method is a combination of both qualitative and quantitative methods in one study, pragmatist research will either employ a qualitative, quantitative or a mixture of the two approaches.

Research Approach

The present study employed the pragmatic paradigm and applies a combination of both quantitative and qualitative methods to collect, analyse and present the data. Khaldi (2017) posits that mixed methods are used in educational research in most cases because of their merits which stem from the combination of these two methods. As argued by Creswell (2009), pragmatists focus on the research problem and find the appropriate approach for the study. Consequently, a quantitative approach was used to collect some of the needed data and qualitative approaches were also used to collect others.

The problem of this study is that some students do not participate in classroom interactions for personal and linguistic reasons such as low language self-efficacy and lack of linguistic knowledge to express themselves, which may result in the use of certain strategies to compensate for gaps in classroom communication. Literature reviewed suggests that speakers may not be aware of their use of CS or, the type they may presume to use may not be what they actually use in regular communication. Therefore, a pragmatist approach was adopted for this study in order that appropriate methodology could be employed to gather the needed data. For instance, the observation data and interview data came from and were analysed from different perspectives to give a more complete and accurate data.

Research Design

This study employed the convergent parallel mixed methods design. When using such a design, both quantitative and qualitative data are collected and analysed separately, but the two data sets are merged at the interpretation stage of data analysis to help make meaning of the results (Creswell, 2012). As such, both qualitative and quantitative data are collected concurrently within a set data collection time frame. In this study, both quantitative and qualitative data were collected during the observation period. The convergent design gives equal weight to both the qualitative and quantitative components of the data.

Both quantitative and qualitative data were collected at the same time, analysed and presented separately, but merged at the interpretation stage. The

46

qualitative data was used to support quantitative results, to give the study a complete value. Thus, the main rationale for using a convergent parallel mixed methods in this study was for complementarity purposes. Citing Greene *et al.* (1989), Johnson and Onwugbuzie (2004) discuss complementarity as one of the five major purposes of using mixed methods. They explain complementarity as the quest to elaborate, clarify and/or heighten the results of one data set with another data set (in this case, quantitative data with qualitative data). Again, the nature of the research questions demanded a mixture of both quantitative and qualitative methods to obtain data for the study. Research questions play big roles in making methodological decisions in mixed methods as they determine mixing and timing decisions (Ponce & Maldonado, 2015). The quantitative and qualitative research questions also influenced the choice to use mixed methods in this study.

Study Area

The study area was on the University of Cape Coast (UCC) campus, located in the Cape Coast Metropolis in the Central Region, Ghana. UCC has six main colleges: the School of Graduate Studies, College of Education Studies, College of Distance Education, College of Health and Allied Sciences, College of Humanities and Legal Studies and The College of Agriculture and Natural Sciences. A university is considered by most as a repository of all knowledge which explains how the members of all university communities (students and lecturers especially) are respected in their respective families and societies. At the university level, the language of

47

communication is English unless a social group (friends, roommates, etc.) decides to use any other indigenous language for communication. Moreover, the empirical studies I reviewed seemed to have been done at the high school level or the college level (Spromberg, 2011; Ntsi 2019, etc.), and this pegs my curiosity to find out the case at the university community. As such, I deemed it right to explore the use of communication strategies among university students and lecturers during instructional periods. The University of Cape Coast Community was selected out of the top four public schools in Ghana to be the study area.

The Population

Johnson et al., (2016) define the population of a study as a well-defined set of units of analysis. The population for this research is the level 300 students and the lecturers of the Department of Arts Education of the University of Cape Coast. The students, 275 in number, are aspiring teachers or people with the desire to have more knowledge as or to be educators. As language students aspiring to teach English language at the high school level, the students will have been exposed to the second language. Again, as this study is situated in Second Language Acquisition, the study was interested in potential second language teachers. Their knowledge of their communication strategies usage and the factors that influence their CS use will go a long way toward helping them equip themselves on effective ways to communicate in the second (English language) which will promote teaching and learning.

48

The study was again interested in the lecturers of the Department of Arts Education who teach general departmental courses. These lecturers, 10 in number, who teach departmental courses are professional educators who are well versed in the knowledge to teach students-teachers to also become professionals. As the main authority in classrooms, the lecturers know the strengths and weaknesses of the students, and the effectiveness or otherwise of the use of communication strategies during classroom interactions.

Sample and Sampling Procedures

Sample size

Of the 275 level 300 undergraduates of the Department of Arts education, only English majors, 87 in number and Religion majors, 52 in number, were selected for this study making a total of 133 students. This information was taken from the Registration and Exams Office of the Department of Arts Education. During data collection however, only 128 students were accounted for, 81 and 47 English and Religion majors. The lecturers the study was interested in were those who lectured in the classes that were observed during the observation phase. The sample size was 128 students majoring in English (81) and Religion (47), and 2 of the lecturers, making a total of 130 participants.

Sampling Procedure

The purposive sampling was used to draw a sample out of all undergraduates in B.Ed. Arts students of the University of Cape Coast. In this study, and the lecturers of the University of Cape Coast, specifically, level 300

undergraduate students in the Department of Arts Education majoring in English and Religion, and the lecturers who take them through general departmental courses were sampled.

There are five academic majors within the department of Arts education: English language, Religion, Ghanaian Language, French and History. Out of these five, French and Ghanaian languages were purposefully left out of this study because the study was interested in the use of the second language (English) in the classroom. Since this study is situated in Second Language Acquisition, the study was interested in the English Major group. However, for the purposes of comparison, the Religion major group was also purposively selected for this study. All English majors and Religion majors present during data collection became the sample size.

The Instruments for Data collection

The research instruments used in this study are a semi-structured interview guide, a questionnaire and an observational schedule. The nature of the research questions and the research approach adopted in this study requires the use of a variety of research instruments in order to obtain the needed data for the study. Questionnaires were used to collect quantitative data from the students. An interview guide was used to collect qualitative data from the lecturers. An observation schedule was used to collect quantitative and qualitative data on both the students and the lecturers.

50

The research instruments used in this study, the research question for which it was created, and the corresponding respondents are illustrated in table 3 as follows:

Table 3: Outline of How Each Research Instrument Is Employed

RESEARCH QUESTIONS	RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS / DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURE		
	Questionnaire (students)	Interview (lecturers)	Observation (students & lecturers)
Q1: THE TYPES OF CSS			+
Q2: FREQUENCY OF USE	+		+
Q3: FACTORS THAT AFFECT THE CHOICE OF CSS	+	+	
Q4: THE IMPACT OF CSS		+	

(Field data, 2021)

Observation

In studies relating to human behaviour and attitude, observation is the commonly used instrument for data collection (Kothari, 2004) possibly because data gathered using observation is more authentic and natural, providing a reality check of human behaviour (Cohen *et al.*, 2007). Kothari categorises research observation into three, based on the setting of the observation (controlled or uncontrolled environment), the observer (participant or non-participant) and the structure of the observation schedule (structured or unstructured). This study employs an uncontrolled, non-participant and

51

structured observational schedule to collect original and unrestrained data directly from respondents on the types of CS the lecturers and the students employ during instructional hours. Structured observation is characterised by pre-planned factors, including units to be observed, standard conditions and an agenda. They are mostly to test hypothesis, confirm findings or used to check the reality (Kothari, 2004; Cohen et al., 2007).

Both quantitative and qualitative data were collected during the observation session. A structured observational guide was used to collect quantitative data whereas a recorder was used to record the lecture session which were later transcribed and used as quotes during the data analysis and interpretation. The structured observational guide used in this study had 3 columns: one each for the types of CS, frequency of use by the lecturers and frequency of use by the students. The observational guide was put together using Dornyei and Scott's (1995) taxonomy of communication strategies adapted from Dornyei and Scott (1997). Indications were made on the observational guide, the date and time for data collection, course title at the time of data collection and the class group being observed.

Questionnaire

Questionnaires were also administered to collect data from the students on the frequency of use and the factors that affect their choice of CS. Following Dornyei's (2012) recommendation, the questionnaire was designed to be as simple and unambiguous as possible. As student size was relatively large, it would have been difficult to interview each one of them so

52

questionnaires were administered since questionnaires economise time, materials and money (Denscombe, 2010, cited by Hmaid, 2014).

The questionnaire was in four sections: the first section was on the lingo-geographical background of respondents which included their L1 background, language proficiency and educational background. The second section was a collection of statements put together on a three-point Likert scale (agree, disagree and undecided) using some factors that influence the choice of CS, gathered from the literature reviewed in this study. Using a five-point Likert scale (all the time, usually, sometimes, occasionally, rarely), the third section of the questionnaire was on the frequency of use of CS by the students. The fourth section included open-ended questions on the implications of CS.

Interview

A semi-structured interview guide was also used to interview the lecturers. Kothari (2004) claims that interviews can be done personally (face to face) or via a telephone, structured or unstructured. Kothari asserts that structured interviews are rigid and do not give room for respondents to express themselves well as opposed to unstructured interviews which are more flexible. However, the flexibility of unstructured interviews may result in a lack of comparability if there is not just one respondent to the interview questions. Hence, I opted for a semi-structured interview which is flexible yet systematic and controlled. The semi-structured interview guide gives participants of the interview the chance to discuss topics in detail since it

53

involves open-ended questions about the topic of interest (Matthers *et. al.,* 1998). The questions on the interview schedule were based mainly on research questions 3 and 4 of this study, resulting in a 2-sectional interview guide.

Validity and Reliability of Instruments

Validity

As claimed by Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007), validity now is determined by the alignment between the principles of the research paradigm adopted for the study and the research instruments, data collection and analysis and all aspects of a study. As such, this study mixed quantitative and qualitative research questions and methodologies to ensure the validity of the research. To avoid becoming too attached to the respondents, instead of participant observation, a more passive observation to collect data from respondents was adopted.

Also, to ensure face validity, that is, the situation where an instrument measures what it is meant to measure, the first draft of the questionnaire and observation schedule were given to colleagues to go over and check for ambiguity and the wording. After their feedback had been considered, I took the draft to my supervisor for review and discussion after which all necessary corrections were made. My supervisor's opinions were also sought to help shape the instruments.

Piloting

The instruments were piloted in a level 300 Bachelor of Education (Maths and ICT) class. After a six credit hours observation, questionnaires

54

were administered to 30 of the students. And the observation data was collected from the lecturer and 10 students, 5 each from the two groups that did their presentation the day of the observation. Upon analysing the questionnaires, certain questions were edited to make them suitable for the research purpose. For instance, the question of the mother tongue for respondents was replaced with childhood settlements, as most respondents were confused as to which ethnic group they belonged to and the language spoken by the group. Since that particular question was to determine the geographical background of respondents to check if the geographical background influenced their proficiency level or their use of communication strategies, the item was replaced.

Reliability

Reliability in research is an indication of the consistency of a measuring instrument (Cohen et al., 2007). Before administering the questionnaire, the concepts of the CS listed by Dornyei (1997) were thoroughly explained to respondents to make sure that respondents had acquainted themselves with the subject matter before they started answering the question. This was done to ensure consistency in the responses and to avoid the situation where respondents guess the answers or just put any answer there without actually understanding what the question or statement demands.

Also, the reliability of the piloted data was tested using Cronbach's Alpha in SPSS. An alpha coefficience of .838 was achieved which Kline (2005) suggests to be an indication of a very reliable instrument.

55

Table 4: Reliability coefficience from pilot test and actual study

Subscale	No. of items	Pilot test	Actual study
Factors influencing the choice of CS	22	0.865	0.942
Types of CS	25	0.723	0.793

(Field data, 2021)

Trustworthiness

It is essential to employ established criteria for trustworthiness in qualitative research to gauge the quality and rigor of instruments (Johnson, Adkins & Chauvin, 2020). Lincoln and Guba (1985) propose an enduring criterion for establishing trustworthiness in qualitative research, encompassing credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability. Trustworthiness in educational research involves ensuring that research is conducted with integrity, transparency, and adherence to ethical standards to provide a solid foundation for evaluating the reliability and validity of a study (Turbin & Berkley, 2004).

Credibility

Credibility is crucial in research, and Guba (1981) emphasized the importance of recognizing experiences and ensuring a fit between respondents' views and the researcher's representation. Credibility poses the question of whether there is an establishment of the researcher's confidence in the truth of the findings generated for the participant and the context of the study. It depicts how much confidence the researcher has in the truthfulness of the findings as a result of

56

the participant's involvement, the research design, and the context. Credibility is achieved when correct descriptions of the experience are given and people with the same experiences who were not part of the study can easily identify the descriptions. In this study, the researcher establishes credibility through prolonged engagement with participants. Again, the researcher established rapport with participants through phone calls before the day of the interview. Credibility was further reinforced by reformulating questions to enhance participant comprehension. Additionally, peer examination was employed, involving colleagues well-versed in qualitative research to scrutinize the research process and findings. This approach aligns with Crafton (1991) and the framework proposed by Lincoln and Guba (1985).

Dependability

Dependability in research is enhanced through a logical, traceable, and well-documented process (Koch, 1994). This aspect considers the consistency of study findings, allowing for method replication and understanding the study's peculiarities. Detailed descriptions of data collection methods, analysis, and interpretations are crucial for achieving dependability. In this study, the researcher provided in-depth information on data collection locations, methods, analysis through reflexive thematic analysis, and interpretation of findings.

Confirmability

Confirmability is vital for ensuring that research interpretations and findings directly stem from the data. Lincoln and Guba (1985) emphasize that achieving confirmability is linked to successfully addressing credibility,

transferability, and dependability. This criterion focuses on ensuring that results are verifiable by other researchers. Confirmability implies that, with the same data and methods, another researcher should reach similar conclusions. To achieve confirmability, a qualified individual in qualitative methods should access the data, research procedures, findings, interpretations and recommendations (Koch, 1994). In this study, the researcher sought confirmability by presenting data-generated themes, findings, interpretations, and recommendations to a supervisor and a colleague. Both experts provided interpretations and understandings consistent with those of the researcher.

Transferability

This concept involves generalizing study findings to different contexts or assessing the applicability of results. Transferability or applicability is attained by offering detailed data for comparison by other researchers (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). In this study, the researcher ensured transferability by providing comprehensive data on the phenomenon, participant characteristics, study sites, and interview content.

Data collection procedure

Data was collected on the UCC campus during lecture sessions of the sampled classes throughout a period of six (6) weeks. Before the observation, I introduced myself to the students and the lecturers as a researcher and introduced them to my study, its purpose and its importance. I then asked for their corporation before data collection officially commenced. The

58

respondents were informed of their right to participate or not, and they were allowed to ask questions during the data collection period.

The observation data was first collected. Both qualitative and quantitative data was collected during classroom observation. The questionnaire was administered to the students at the end of the third week of observation after the observational data had already been collected. Before administering the questionnaires, printouts of a list of communication strategies were distributed to the students to read over and familiarise themselves with the technical terms of the communication strategies they may or may not be using. I did this on the supposition of the researcher that some of the students may not be aware of the types or the technical terms of some communication strategies. Hence, to enhance the reliability of the data collected, the researcher made sure that respondents understood the concepts before they were given the questionnaires to answer.

At the same time, with their consent, I conducted an interview with the lecturers. The interview sessions were recorded and later transcribed by the researcher. On the day of the interviews, respondents were assured of the use of their responses -purely for academic purposes-and the assurance of anonymity. Also, the interviews, lasting for 40 minutes were all conducted in the English language.

Data Processing and Analysis

As important as data is in every scientific research, raw data is worthless if it is not organised, analysed or interpreted. It must be processed or

59

analysed to ensure that the data that is used to draw conclusions and make comparisons is authentic and relevant to the purposes of the study (Kothari, 2004). Three processing operations that are mostly applied in quantitative data analysis include editing, coding and classifying, where editing is the process of detecting errors and omissions within the data collected, coding being the assignment of numbers or symbols to help with the classification of the answers in a questionnaire or survey, and classification being the process of categorising the data under themes or research questions for an easier analysis of data (Kothari, ibid).

The quantitative data collected using questionnaires was edited, coded, keyed, classified and analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). Instead of manual coding and classification, the SPSS version 22 was very productive in the analysis of the quantitative data from the questionnaires. Using the same software, the researcher generated tables which were used to present and illustrate the findings from the data. Percentages, means and standard deviations were used to measure the direction of the data.

The quantitative data collected using the observation schedule was coded and categorised manually by the researcher and also presented on a table. The table had three major columns, the name or type of CS, the tally mark and the total frequency of occurrence by the lecturers or by the students.

Unlike quantitative data analysis which involves coding and assigning numerical values to data, qualitative data analysis according to Cohen *et. al.*

(2007) involves the organisation, recounting and explanation of raw data from the field so as to make sense of the respondent's definition of the situation. First, as recommended by Taylor-Powell and Renner (2003) on the steps to follow when analysing qualitative data, I familiarised myself with the data by reading and rereading the responses. Then, under each research question, I focused on the topics and the groupings within my sample frame. Rather than using a pre-set categorisation of data, I presented all relevant information from responses.

The qualitative data was transcribed manually by the researcher. The results were presented in narratives and themes to support the analyses of the results from the quantitative data. In order to ensure that there are no biases in the interpretation of the transcribed data, a narrative approach was used to present the qualitative data from the interviews and the questionnaires with an emic focus, that is, from the point of view of the interviewees. Using the same prose form, the qualitative data from the observation were also transcribed and presented, this time with an etic focus on the researcher's point of view.

Table 5: Summary of Data Analysis Procedure

Research questions	Instrument(s)	Analytical tool (s)
One	Observation schedule	Manual
Two	Observation schedule/ Questionnaire	Manual / SPSS
Three	Interview schedule/ Questionnaire	Narrative Analysis/ Thematic analysis
Four	Interview schedule	Narrative analysis

(Field data, 2021)

61

Ethical Considerations

Researchers are responsible for protecting the privacy of those participating in their study. Cohen *et. al.*, (2007) aver that making a mutual concession between a researcher's responsibility to find out the truth and protecting the rights and values of the participant is a major ethical dilemma. To come to such a consensual point, the data was not collected in a day, so participants familiarised themselves with the researcher. Responses were accurately reported and confidentiality was ensured in the study.

After getting the go-ahead from my supervisor to collect the data, I took an introductory letter from the Department of Arts Education to the Heads of Departments of the two departments I collected data from, and the Department of Arts Education, for appropriate authorisation to conduct the study. Introductory letters were also given to the participating lecturers and the course representatives of the two class groups. A consent form was also given to participants, introducing them to the general nature of the study, their rights and what is expected of them, and to seek their consent to participate in the study (Cohen *et. al.*, 2007; Jackson, 2009). On the first day of data collection, participants were again informed about the study, and their rights as respondents were clearly explained to them before the data collection commenced.

To ensure confidentiality, pseudonyms were used to represent respondents when the need for identification of respondents became necessary during my analysis. Audio recordings were deleted a week after data

62

collection, and no aspect of the data was shared with other people without the permission of the respondents, and, even then, the data will remain anonymous.   Jackson (2009) referring to the American Psychological Association (APA)'s ethical guidelines, lists a number of ethical guidelines a researcher can follow including the following:

1. Fidelity and responsibility- establishing trust and following the societal norm

2. Integrity- Being honest and presenting an accurate interpretation of data.

3. Justice- giving reasonable and unbiased judgement.

4. Respect for people's rights and dignity.

5. Ensuring the protection of participants' privacy.

These and all other research ethics protocol approved by the Institutional Review Board was followed by the researcher.

Chapter Summary

The research paradigm and key methodological issues such as the research design, the research instruments, validity and reliability, the data collection processes, ethical considerations have been elaborated in this chapter to enable readers to understand the processes the research was underwent to come to the conclusions in the study.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULT AND DISCUSSION

Overview

This study was undertaken to explore the use of communication strategies employed by the lecturers and students in the University of Cape Coast, the factors that influence their use of CS, and the implications this may have on the teaching process. To achieve this purpose, Dornyei and Scott's (1995) typology of CS was adapted in this study for classification and identification of the strategies used by respondents. Twenty-four (24) types of CS, categorised into three main groups-*direct, indirect and interactional strategies*-were used to identify the types of CS used by respondents in this study. All instances and frequency of use of CS between and among learners and instructors during instructional hours were recorded and analysed. The sample for this study was 130: 2 lecturers from the Department of Arts Education of the University of Cape Coast, 89 students majoring in English education and 39 students majoring in Religion education, all from the Department of Arts Education.

Both quantitative and qualitative data analysis procedures were employed in this study to analyse the data from the observation, the survey and the interviews. All qualitative data were analysed manually using narrative and/or thematic analysis and the quantitative data were analysed using SPSS version 22 (questionnaires) and manually (observation). This chapter presents the results and discussion from the data collected and is presented in tables, frequencies, means and standard deviations. Before the

64

presentation of the results, the lingo-geographical background of the respondents is first presented. Then the rest of the results are presented under themes in accordance with the research questions.

Lingo-Geographical Background of Students

Data was collected on the geographical background of respondents (the students) which, according to literature reviewed in this study, influences the use of communication strategies by second language speakers. These included the childhood settlement of the students, the type of high school attended and their language proficiency.

Table 6: Lingo-Geographical Background of Students

Lingo-geography	Subscale	No.	%
Childhood settlement	Rural	43	33.6
	Sub-urban	52	40.6
	Urban	33	25.8
JHS background	Public	69	53.9
	Private	59	46.1
SHS background	Public	123	96.1
	Private	5	3.9
Level of proficiency	Basic	5	3.9
	Intermediate	48	37.5
	Advanced	68	53.1
	Mastery	7	5.5

(Field data, 2021)

It is evident from Table 6 that 40.6% of the students lived in sub-urban communities where they probably picked their first and/or second language(s). Also, 33.6 % of the students are from a rural childhood settlement, suggesting

65

that the English language is not their first language or the first choice of language they use for communication. The likelihood of using the English language as the first language in rural communities and sub-urban communities seems relatively rare as compared to the chances in urban communities.

In terms of High School background, most of the students (53.9%) reported to have attended government JHS, with only a 7.8% difference as compared to those that went to private JHS (46.1%). However, at the SHS level, most respondents went to Public SHS. This may be because there are more Public SHS in Ghana than private ones. Also, whereas private JHS are presumed to perform better than public JHS, at the SHS level, public SHS are preferred to private JHS as there are more trained and qualified teachers in public SHS than private ones.

Most students, (53.1%), have advanced level of proficiency in the English language. This is followed by 37.5% of the students who believe to have an intermediate level of proficiency in the English language. Only twelve (12) out of the 128 students believed to have a basic (3.9%) and mastery (5.5%) level of proficiency in the English language.

Research Question One

The first research question of this study asked, "what types of communication strategies do the lecturers and the students adopt during instructional hours? An observation schedule was used to acquire such information from respondents. The schedule was put together using Dornyei and Scott's (1995) typology of CS.

66

Table 7 presents the results on the types of CS used by the respondents of this study. The results show all the strategies used by the lecturers and the students during the observation under the three categories of communication strategies as listed in Dornyei and Scott (1997).

Table 7: Types of CS Used by the students and the lecturers

Rank	Strategy	FS		FL		Total
		ENG	REL	ENG	REL	
1	Use of fillers	24	26	7	4	61
2	Self-rephrasing	8	7	5	6	26
3	Repetitions	10	8	5	2	25
4	Hesitation devices	9	6	2	5	22
5	Clarification check	5	6	2	4	18
6	Comprehension check	0	5	5	7	17
6	Interpretive summary	2	3	6	6	17
7	Code-switching	3	3	4	6	16
8	Mime	3	3	4	3	13
9	Circumlocution	5	3	1	2	11
9	Literal translation	1	2	3	2	11
10	Asking for repetition	0	0	3	3	6
11	Use of all-purpose words	0	2	1	2	5
12	Foreignizing	0	0	3	1	4

67

12	Restructuring	0	1	0	3	4
13	Retrieval	0	2	0	1	3
13	Appeals for help	1	2	0	0	3
14	Word-coinage	0	0	2	0	2
14	Confirmation check	1	0	1	0	2
14	Message replacement	0	0	0	0	0
14	Mumbling	0	0	0	0	0
14	Accuracy check	0	0	0	0	0
15	Message abandonment	0	0	0	0	0
15	Message reduction	0	0	0	0	0
Total		72	79	54	57	262
		(27%)	(30%)	(20%)	(23%)	(100%)

(Field data, 2021)

Note*: FS= frequency by students, FL= frequency by lecturers, ENG= English, REL= religion.*

From Table 7, strategies such as message abandonment, message reduction, message replacement, message retrieval, mumbling and accuracy check were not used in any instance neither by the students nor the lecturers during the three weeks observation. Strategies that were used by the students only included self-repetitions and appeal for help while strategies such as interpretive summary, confirmation check and word coinage were used by the lecturers only.

68

The students and the lecturers used direct strategies such as circumlocution, restructuring, use of all-purpose words, word-coinage, literal translation, foreignizing, code-switching, mime, and self-rephrasing, indirect strategies like fillers, repetitions and hesitation devices; and interactional strategies such as appeal for help, clarification check, confirmation check, comprehension check and interpretive summary during classroom interactions.

Table 8: Cumulative Percentage of CS Usage by Students and Lecturers

Category/ Respondents	Direct strategies	Interactional strategies	Indirect strategies
The students	50%	42.85%	100%
The lecturers	50%	71.43%	66.7%

(Field data, 2021)

From Table 8, both the students and the lecturers used half of the direct strategies listed on the observation schedule (50% by each group). It is also evident that the students used more indirect strategies (33.3%) than the lecturers. On the other hand, the lecturers used more interactional strategies (28.58%) more than the students. This is an indication of the lecturers' level of competency in communicating in the English language. The lecturers are believed to have a good command of their subject matter and the English language, implying that their use of communication strategies is mostly for interactional purposes (to make sure they are understood well by the students).

In order to further understand CS usage in the classroom, audio recordings of the observation were transcribed and the results are presented in

69

excerpts. The following are excerpts from the observation data where the students and the lecturers used the stipulated communication strategies:

Excerpt 1:

*….. It also says that acquisition has an influence… **oww** learning has an influence on acquisition, **learning has an influence on acquisition**. (okay) and the part also suggested that there are variations among the learners. There are those learners who prefer to use, **who prefer to use theee, ermm** the monitor hypothesis….*

Excerpt 2*:*

*… the analogy has to do with where the learner **errhh** reflects on the processes of acquisition. Like he/she will take into consideration **theee** acquisition of **theee** language so he will be checking those grammar to see whether it is correct and, so if the person uses more of it, that is when the person becomes the user so in this case, he uses much of the corrections. So, a child will say something and the mother will be like **herh**, don't say it like this say that….*

Excerpt 3:

Lec: what are you saying?

S 1: please I am now organizing my thoughts.

Lec: come again?

S 1: please go and come.

Lec: madam at the back can you help us?

S 2: shakes the head

70

Lec: you won't help us? Because you didn't read?...

Lec: One step.... (Tilts the head a little)?

Students: at a time

Lec: *yes, it is not yet the time. We will get to that later. Mpaninfoɔ bu b3 bi sƐ sƐ wo deƐn deƐn... Ɛmogya na Ɛba. In fact, hwae na ƐbƐboa me?*

S4: I can help.... "Wo bu biribi prƐko pƐ bɔ wo se a, mogya na Ɛba"

Excerpt 4:

Yes. When you start your OCTP, you will have to **do** *your own lesson plan.* **One very important is***.* **One very important thing** *to do is to give clear cut instructions...***henfoɔ na Ɛmmpresentee yƐ***? How many groups are yet to present? Danny!* **ntƐntƐm ntƐntƐm***...*

*...***what she is saying is that buzzing is not the only method you will used for the lesson. Is that okay?**

From excerpt 1, line 1, the student mostly used **fillers** like oww, okay and ermm. These fillers were however not only used as fillers but also, as literally translated words (herrh!), **lengthened words** (theee erhh) **confirmation check** (okay) to affirm that what the speaker had said was the intended utterance, and to **rephrase and restructure** previous sentences (the use of oww) in line one which is followed by repetition of phrase in the line two. Similar to excerpt 1, the excerpt 2 is also full of fillers and lengthened words. Nonetheless, the speaker was going roundabout with words

71

(**circumlocution**), trying to find the accurate words to express his/her communication intentions clearly.

In excerpt 3, the lecturer uses questions to make the students clarify their utterances. Also, student 2 shakes her head when asked to contribute to the discussion (**mime**) which makes the lecturer question whether she does not have anything to say or she just does not want to talk (**clarification check**). The lecturer also mimes by tilting the head to signify the students to complete a phrase. Again, there is the use of code switching from English language into Akan by both lecturer and student 4.

Excerpt 4 shows the use of **foreignisation (*Ɛmmpresentee)*, restructuring (**one very important…), **interpretive summary (**what she is saying is that…) and **comprehension check** (is that okay?). There is the use of all-purpose word "**do"** in line 1 instead of the word "**prepare**". The word "*Ɛmmpresentee*" has the properties of foreignization from Dornyei and Scott's Typology of CS.

Dornyei and Scott's taxonomy of communication strategies have been sub-categorised into three, direct strategies, indirect strategies and interactional strategies where the direct strategies are all the strategies speakers employ to solve communication problems that may occur during communication or the problems speakers may envision to encounter at the pre communication stage. In using direct strategies, speakers intend to avoid problems or face such problems and solve them. Indirect strategies on the other hand are all the non-linguistic means employed by speakers to indirectly aid conveying meaning by creating a means for mutual understanding and

72

preventing communication breakdowns (Dornyei & Scott, 1997). As the name sounds, the interactional strategies are the strategies employed by all the interlocutors involved in a communication, both the speakers and the listeners in order to find a common ground of understanding the other and being understood by the other.

The results indicated that there are some strategies that were common only among the students while other strategies were common only among the lecturers. Though respondents from this study use a variety of CS during the observation, some CS such as message abandonment, message retrieval and message replacement were not used at all during the 3 weeks observation, slightly contradicting previous findings (Spromberg, 2011; Abunawas, 2012; Nazish, 2014; Nti, 2019; etc.).

These strategies are pre-repair strategies that interlocutors use to avoid their original communication intention (Faerch & Kasper, 1983) when they lack the linguistic competence to communicate their intentions. This finding contradicts Houston (2006) and Wei's (2011) findings that ESL learners rely heavily on avoidance/reduction strategies rather than achievement strategies. The findings however, confirms the findings by Abunawas (2012) that respondents who resort to the use of achievement strategies, which in this study are indirect strategies, used less message abandonment and topic avoidance.

The students also repeated their own utterances as a means to gain time to think, and to check the accuracy of their utterances. A student's repetition of the word "yes" right before a phrase was a way of self-confirming that what

73

s/he is saying is accurate. Again, the students appeal for help from their friends when they are faced with communication gaps. Most students continually used the phrase "how do we say it? How do I put it?" when speaking. The observation was that the students did not actually need help in conveying their intentions. Rather, those were fillers and mannerisms they use to organize their thoughts. This affirms Nti's (2019) findings that the students and the lecturers used CS just to avoid communication discontinuity and not because speakers need help from other interlocutors.

As the highest authority in the classroom and with higher competency in the L2, the lecturers used more interactional strategies in the classroom than the students. With their content knowledge, pedagogical knowledge and linguistic competence, the lecturers used interactional strategies as a method of teaching. They used strategies that required higher order thinking and a higher language competence. The lecturers paraphrased (interpretive summary) their own utterances to make sure each and everyone gets the message and paraphrased the students' utterances by tuning and rephrasing to convey an accurate information or communicative intention. The students, on the other hand, used more clarification checks by requesting for clearer meaning of utterances. These strategies which Nti terms as questions, used by the lecturers and the students are inevitable in second language classrooms.

From the ongoing discussion, the students and the lecturers used CS as to when they need it by concentrating on which strategy helps better in this situation rather than which strategy must be used. That is, respondents of this study ignore the form of strategies to use but concentrate on the function of the strategy so far as it helps them communicate their intentions. The use of L2

based communication strategies like indirect and interactional strategies to teach the second language will aid the acquisition and use of the English language.

Research Question Two

The research question two is "What is the frequency of occurrence of communication strategies the lecturers and the students use during instructional hours?". The purpose of research question two was to find out how often students and lecturers used CS and which particular CS is frequently used by respondents. This data was gathered using two different instruments: an observation schedule and questionnaires. During the observation, a tally was counted each time participants used a CS and this was counted and subjected to descriptive statistics. The resulted is presented in Table 8 on the previous pages. The survey data was also analysed using SPSS and presented on Table 9. The result from Table 9 demonstrates that fillers is the most frequently used CS with 61 occurrences out of the total of 262 strategies used by the students and the lecturers. This is followed by self-rephrasing (26 occurrences) and self-repetition (25 occurrences). Confirmation checks and word coinage were found to be the least frequently used CS (2 occurrences each) followed by appeal for help and message retrieval (3 occurrences each). Accuracy check, mumbling, message replacement, message abandonment, message reduction and message replacement were not used at all.

Comparing the CS usage between the students and the lecturers, from Table 8, it can be seen that the students used more CS (57%) than the lecturers

(43%). This is in contrast with Nti (2019) who found that lecturers used more CS than the students. Also, while the Religion students used more CS (30%) than the Students of English language (27%), the Lecturers of English language used more (23%) Cs than the Religion lecturers (20%).

To get data from the students' perspective, the students answered questions on how frequently they used communication strategies. On a five-point Likert scale, Dornyei and Scott's Typology is again employed here for the students to answer. The result is reported in table 9 using means and standard deviation.

Table 9: Frequency of use of CS By Students

	Rank	Mean	Std. Deviation	Mode
Foreignization	1	3.98	.972	5.00
Mumbling	2	3.76	1.169	5.00
Asking for repetition	3	3.70	1.045	4.00
Hesitation devices	4	3.61	1.172	4.00
Circumlocution	5	3.60	1.152	4.00
Comprehension check	5	3.60	1.199	3.00
Confirmation check	5	3.60	1.232	3.00
Self-repetition	6	3.57	1.259	3.00
Interpretive summary	7	3.55	1.202	3.00
Message abandonment	8	3.52	1.346	3.00

Restructuring	9	3.45	1.196	3.00
Message replacement	10	3.41	1.220	3.00
Mime	11	3.24	1.297	3.00
Accuracy check	12	3.23	1.192	3.00
Self-rephrasing	13	3.19	1.189	3.00
Word coinage	14	3.17	1.073	3.00
Clarification check	15	3.17	1.274	3.00
Appeal for help	16	3.12	1.355	3.00
The use of fillers	17	3.11	1.287	3.00
Code switching	18	3.06	1.338	3.00
Literal translation	19	3.05	1.121	2.00
Message reduction	20	2.88	1.367	2.00
Use of all-purpose words	21	2.75	1.210	2.00
Expressing non-understanding	22	2.65	1.201	2.00
Message retrieval	23	2.52	1.094	2.00

(Field data, 2021

From Table 9, Foreignization, mumbling, asking for repetition, hesitation devices and circumlocution are the most frequently used CS by the students with means scores ranging from 3.60 to 3.98, with foreignization having the highest mean (M=3.98, SD=0.972). The least frequently used CS out of the 25 communication strategies was message retrieval (M=2.52, SD=1.094).

77

The results from Table 9 indicated that out of the 25 communication strategies, expressing non-understanding, the use of all-purpose-words, code-switch, message reduction, literal translation, fillers, appeal for help, word coinage, clarification check, self-rephrasing, accuracy check, mime, message replacement, restructuring, message abandonment and interpretive summery are used averagely by the students with a mean between 2.6-3.5 on a total means scale ranging from 1.00-5.00.

The results from both the observation schedule and questionnaires confirms the purpose of communication studies as devices used when speakers are faced with communication problems (CP). Thus, unless there is a CP, the students try as much as possible to use the standard target language. The frequency of use of CS from the observation data and the questionnaires differ. As the observational data confirms the use of fillers and self-rephrasing and the two most frequent CS used by respondents, the students reported in the survey that foreignization and circumlocution are the frequent CS used during instructional hours. Hua, Nor and Jaradat also affirm that self-rephrasing is the frequently used CS in their study. Confirming Spromberg's (2011) study, confirmation checks and comprehension checks which are interactional strategies are found to be two of the most frequently used CS by the students.

Research Question Three

The research question three was "What factors influence the choice to use communication strategies". To find answers to this question, questionnaires were administered to the students and an interview guide was used to collect data from the lecturers. This research question was analysed

using factor analysis to find out the extent to which items were measuring the same concept. That is, factor analysis was used in this section to deduce which factors gave better understanding of the data of the students. Twenty-two factors, put together using factors that were derived from the literature review. The students were to choose from a five-point Likert scale *strongly agree, agree, undecided, disagree* and *strongly disagree.* The responses from the students were subjected factor analysis of the Principal Component Analysis (PCA). The KMO and Bartlett's Test, the Total Variance Explained, the scree plot and the pattern matrix were reported.

Pallant (2016) posits that before researchers go on to use factor analysis in a study, they must check to see if the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (KMO) value is ≥ .6, the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity value has a significant figure ≤ .05.

Table 10: KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		.889
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	2909.378
	df	231
	Sig.	.000

As show, in Table 10, the factor analysis reported a KMO of .889, which is greater than .6, and a Bartlett's Test with a sig. figure of (p= .000), which is less than .05, appropriating the use of factor analysis in this study.

Also, to determine how many factors to extract, a Total Variance Explained output was run to identify components that had eigenvalues above 1. The Table 11 reveal a number of possible factors which could be extracted from the data to explain the variations among the items and their corresponding eigenvalues which indicates the strengths and weaknesses of the factor.

Table 11: Total Variance Explained by Each of The Factors on The Instrument for the 4 Factors

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	10.101	45.911	45.911	10.101	45.911	45.911
2	4.265	19.386	65.297	4.265	19.386	65.297
3	1.838	8.356	73.653	1.838	8.356	73.653
4	1.235	5.613	79.266	1.235	5.613	79.266
5	.680	3.091	82.358			
6	.546	2.483	84.841			
7	.447	2.033	86.874			
8	.407	1.849	88.722			
9	.373	1.697	90.420			
10	.323	1.468	91.888			
11	.276	1.256	93.144			
12	.254	1.156	94.301			

13	.213	.969	95.270
14	.176	.801	96.071
15	.166	.755	96.826
16	.146	.665	97.491
17	.134	.610	98.101
18	.123	.559	98.659
19	.094	.428	99.087
20	.078	.354	99.441
21	.065	.295	99.737
22	.058	.263	100.000

(Field data, 2021)

The Principal Component Analysis (PCA) shows four factor components with eigenvalues exceeding 1. The first component alone explained 45.911% of the total variance, the second component explained 19.386%, the third explained 8.356%, while the fourth component explained 5.613% of the total variance. Together, these factors explain 79.266% of the variance, which is almost 80% of the reasons the students and the lecturers used CS during instructional hours.

A scree plot was also used to confirm that these four factors does explains why the students and the lecturers used communication strategies during instructional hours. The rule regarding scree plot is that as the number of factors increases, the corresponding eigenvalues decrease.

81
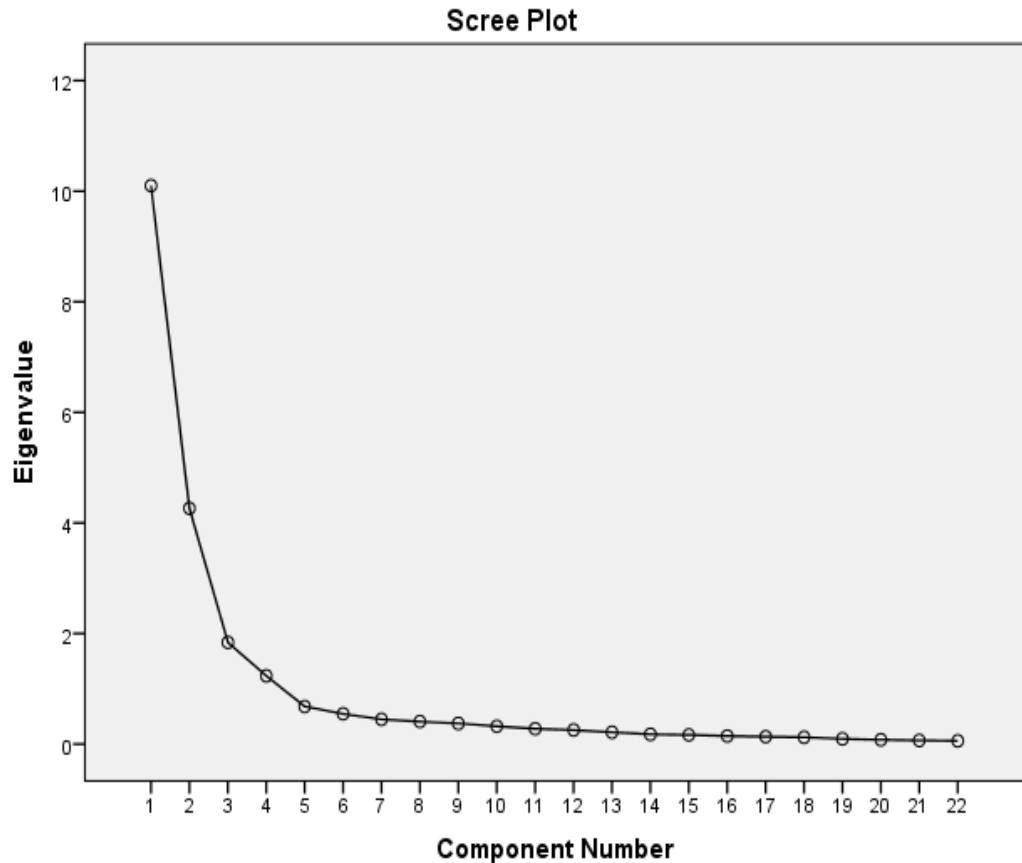
Figure 2: Scree Plot of the PCA

The results from the scree plot also agrees that four major factors influence the choice to use communication strategies by the lecturers and the students during instructional hours. The scree plot indicated a beginning of a variation in the slope. Normally, owing to the result from table A, the variation of the slope on the scree plot should have started from component 4 since it was the last component which had the eigenvalue not less than 1. The only explanation to the component 5 starting the variation in the slope rather than the component 4 is because the eigenvalue of component 5 is .680 which is very close to 1. As Pallant recommends, the only components to consider as factors are those above the changing point. That is, since the changing

82

component is 5, components 4, 3, 2 and 1 were considered in this study, correlating to what the Total Variance Explained table had identified.

The next output from the factor analysis to be reported is the pattern matrix. The pattern matrix groups components of common characteristics under one factor. As can be seen from table 12, the output gave a 6-6-6-4 pattern of the 22 factors that influence the choice to use communication strategies.

Table 12: Pattern Matrix

	Component			
	1	2	3	4
I use CS based on the context and situation of interaction.	.928			
I use CS to avoid communication breakdowns	.917			
I use CS based on type of problem or task involved.	.877			
I use CS to probe for further explanations.	.875			
I use CS to avoid errors when communicating in the classroom.	.846			
I use CS when my lecturer also uses them in class.	.778			
I use CS based of my belief that a target proficiency is not attainable.		.892		
I use CS because it helps me express myself better.		.884		
I use CS because it makes my communications sound more natural.		.884		

83

I use CS because of my indifferent attitude towards the L2.	.844		
I use CS because it deepens my understanding in the classroom.	.838		
I use CS because I am not motivated to speak target English.	.826		
I use CS because it helps me express myself better.		.865	
I use CS because of my weak linguistic background in the L2.		.860	
I use CS based on the competence level of other interlocutors involved.		.755	
I use CS because of my low-level competence in the L2.		.719	
I use CS when I do not understand what other interlocutors are saying.		.632	
I use CS because it enhances fluency when I speak.		.625	
I use CS based on the personality of other interlocutors involved.			.948
I use CS because I have a high communication apprehension level in the classroom.			.854
I use CS in semi-formal classroom context.			.845
I use CS because it reduces tension that comes with the communication environment.			.738

(Field data, 2021)

The four factor components derived from the analysis were; the context and situation of communication (component 1), personal beliefs and

84

attitude (component 2), competence (component 3) and communicative environment (component 4).

Data from interviews with the lecturers also indicated two (2) factors that influence the use of CS: interlocutors involved and competence (language and pedagogical). On competence, the lecturers believed that one must be competent in both pedagogy and the English language to be able to appropriately use most communication strategies without diverting from the lesson objectives or losing the interest of the students. Again, the respondents indicated that depending on the level of knowledge of a group of students, be it knowledge or education, they used a language that will help them understand the topic:

> "*My experiences as a university lecturer help me identify with my students well and to know how to speak to them for them to understand…Also, depending on the reaction from my students, their facial expressions, I switch between languages and use other types of strategies*".

> "*Sometimes, though the students may be in the same class, you can see that some are very fluent and confident in using the language but others are not. In a situation like this, you have to try and get them involved by using all necessary means*".

That is, the strategies they may use in a level 100 classroom will be different from the strategies they may use in a level 300 classroom. Or, even in one classroom, they may speak and respond to the students using different techniques and strategies.

85

The quantitative data from the students was subjected to a factor analysis, which categorised the factors that influence the use of CSs into 4, namely; context and situation of communication, personal beliefs and motivation, competence, and the communicative environment.

The components of the context and situation factors includes; to avoid communication breakdowns, the type of problem or task involved, to probe for further explanations, etc. Components of the personal beliefs factor includes: belief that a target proficiency is not attainable, belief that it makes their communications sound more natural, their overall attitude towards the L2, not being motivated to speak target English, etc. The third factor, which was competence consisted of factors such as the use of CS because of weak linguistic background in the L2, the competence level of other interlocutors involved, speakers low level competence in the L2, and because it enhances fluency when I speak. The final factor identified was the communicative environment. This factor encompasses the overall mood that comes with the classroom environment with components such as using CS in semi-formal classroom context, using CS because it reduces tension that comes with the communication environment, etc.

The students reported that they used communication strategies because it makes classroom communication sound more natural and deepens their understanding. This finding aligns itself with Littlemore's (2003) definition of communication strategies as the steps language learners undertake to heighten their communication effectiveness. Nti (2019) also mentions that CS deepens teacher-student interactions. The findings also show that the students use communication strategies to avoid communication breakdown. This tends to

86

be the basic reason most people use communication strategies. This is indicated by Canale and Swain's (1980) definition of CS as the verbal and nonverbal strategies speakers use to compensate for communication breakdowns that are due to lack of competence in a language.

Both the students and the lecturers agreed that, depending on interlocutors involved, they choose to use communication strategies or not. They look at the facial expressions and feedback from other interlocutors and decide which communication strategy to use to solicit or utter the information needed. The lecturers, again, believed that the communication competence of speakers determine their use of communication strategies. Teachers may use some communication strategies to simplify their messages so that less advanced learners may understand their lessons, an L2 practice Cullen (1998) terms as teacher talk. Wei (2011), Abunawas (2012), Nazish (2014) and Nti (2019) also reported that L2 speakers use CS because there are competence gaps in the English language. That is, CS is use as a scaffolding device in the classroom to ensure the involvement of all the students in lessons.

The findings again indicate that students used communication strategies based on the task type they face. To them, as some tasks demand simple answers, they do not need much thinking nor vocabulary to complete. However, when they have to explain or describe, they tend to use more communication strategies. The students responded that they are at ease when they volunteer to answer questions in class and they do not fumble a lot as they get the time to plan what to say, so they do not use more communication strategies. However, when they are suddenly called to contribute, they are mostly short on words, sometimes even nervous, and, they start fumbling, so

87

they tend to use more communication strategies. This is in line with the findings of Rabab'ah and Bulut (2007), who found that learners used more CS in interview tasks than in role-playing task.

Research Question Four

Lastly, the research question 4, "what effect does the use of communication strategies have on classroom interactions?", was aimed to find out if there are any negative and/or positive effects of the use of CS on instructional hours. On the students' questionnaire, the respondents were to list the negative and positive effect, from their view, that promotes or hinders teaching and learning and second language acquisition. The lecturers also gave their opinion on in the interview sessions organised or them.

For immediate teaching and learning goals, the students and the lecturers posited that CS helps a great deal in classroom communication and promotes teaching and learning. The following are some positive classroom implications of the use of CS that were common from both the interviews and the questionnaires:

1. CS gives speakers the time to organize their thoughts.

2. Helps to build the students confidence and language self-efficacy.

3. The use of CS helps to create a more friendly environment which sustains the students' interest during lesson delivery.

4. CS also caters for differences in individual language competencies that exists among the students.

88

5. The lecturers used CS to probe further information from the students.

Contrary to these positive implications, the students and the lecturers believed that since the aim is to attain a mastery of the standard English language, CS does not help achieve the wider, long-term goals of second language acquisition. The following are listed negative implications of CS in the classroom;

1. Some strategies further create communication gap in the classroom.

2. Continuous use of CS in the classroom wastes instructional time.

3. Speakers may feel reluctant to learn new vocabulary or to write standard English.

4. The use of CS might not always help us communicate the true communicative intentions.

5. CS such as fillers may promote unnecessary mannerisms among the students.

6. Some the students may avoid communicating their actual intentions when they face communication problems.

7. Continuous usage of CS signals language incompetence.

Positive implications

CS gives speakers the time to organise their thoughts. Interlocutors used time gaining strategies such as fillers, hesitation devices, repetitions and

lengthened words to gather and organise their thoughts. CS also helps to build the students confidence and language autonomy which promote classroom participation. The findings from this study support Dornyei and Ushioda (2011) who envision that continuous practice in CS might increase the students' self-confidence. Hmaid (2014) reports that CS has a positive impact on teaching and learning in Libyan classrooms, as it boosts the students' confidence in speaking the English language. Nti also reveals that the use of CS in a language classroom enhances the students' willingness to communicate, thereby improving their communicative self-confidence. The lecturers from this study also posit that continuous practice in the second language helps boost the students' confidence in speaking the language. They believe that the students from the rural areas do not get much chance to practice the English language outside the school environment, and this sometimes results in low level of competence in the language. They suggest that when the students contribute more in class when they are given the chance to express themselves without any linguistic restrictions.

After training the students on the use of CS, Hmaid (2014) found out that the students' self-confidence had increased making them more self-reliant and proficient in the second language. After a certain level of conscious training, vocabulary development mostly becomes incidental to the second language learner and thus, participating in activities that are centred around the use of the language helps to be more competent in the L2 (Kramsch, 2006).

Moreover, the use of CS helps to create a more friendly environment which sustains the students' interest during lesson delivery. The lecturers posit that certain L1 based strategies helps to break the ice and maintain the

90

students' interest in the classroom. CS also caters for differences in individual language competencies that exists among the students and this makes the students feel that they are a part of the learning process. It also gives the lecturers the platform to probe for further information from the students.

This is seen in excerpt 4 when the lecturer switched from L2 to L1. The student was so eager to continue the proverb he didn't even wait to be called.

Negative implications

Regardless of the positive impacts the use of CSs have on L2 acquisition, the students and the lecturers agree that at other times, the use of CS hinders L2 acquisition. Some strategies further create communication gaps in the classroom. L1 based strategies like code switching, foreignisation, literal translation, etc. makes it difficult for the students from different L1 background to understand, thereby creating further communication gaps in the classroom. Most classrooms in Ghana are multilingual which makes it difficult to use a native language as the instructional language. Therefore, constant use of L1 based strategies such as foreignization, code switching, l1 based fillers, literal translation, etc. may confuse interlocutors who are from an L1 language background different from that of the speakers.

The continuous use of CS in the classroom wastes instructional time. The students and the lecturers reported that, as interlocutors try to get to the main point using all means, they may waste instructional hours and others may even go off topic in the end, missing the communicative intention.

The students argued that the use of CS does not always help them present their communicative intentions. Sometimes, the focus of their

utterances were distorted and their intensions are mostly misunderstood. Too much reliance on CS does not help with the acquisition and use of the target language. The students believe that speakers may feel reluctant to learn new vocabulary or write standard English but always fall on CS and such a practice will not help them attain an L2 that is much closer to the target English language. On this premise, Kellerman (1991) suggests that training the students in communication competence is not important. Rather, teachers must concentrate on linguistic competence as communication competence are skills that naturally comes along with linguistic knowledge (Wei, 2011).

The students also believe that excessive use of CS makes some the students feel too comfortable to disregard authorities in the classroom. In their words, they use fillers to "flex".

Though there are negative impacts of communication strategies on the broader context of second language acquisition, the lecturers suggested that communication strategies should be taught in schools to create awareness. They encourage the use of communicative language teaching approach in second language classrooms.

92

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Overview

This chapter is a summary of the study, highlighting key findings of the study. Additionally, conclusions drawn from the study, the implications of the findings for policy and practice and recommendations are presented in this chapter.

Summary

It is an undeniable fact that classroom communication is an essential part of the knowledge acquisition process. That is why successive governments of Ghana have made careful and deliberate attempts to choose a language for education to cater for the cultural and multilingual needs of all the students. Nonetheless, there are gaps in the language of the L2 speaker. In most instances, L2 speakers face communication problems during interactions which leads them to adopt strategies that help them better express their communication intentions. Consequently, this study was set out to explore the use of communication strategies as a means of compensating for gaps in classroom communication between the lecturers and the students. The study was guided by the following research questions:

1. What types of communication strategies do the lecturers and the students adopt during instructional hours?

93

2. What is the frequency of occurrence of communication strategies the lecturers and the students use during instructional hours?

3. What factors influence the choice to use a communication strategy by the lecturers and the students during instructional hours?

4. What effect does the use of communication strategies have on classroom interactions?

Dornyei and Scott's (1995) theory was used on the basis that their theory stems from a pragmatic point of view which makes it capture all possible forms of communication strategies (direct, indirect and interactional strategies) the students and the lecturers used in the second language classroom. Convergent parallel mixed methods design was employed for this study, and it proved useful in the collection of survey data, observation data and interview data on the topic.

A total of 128 level 300 BEd. Arts the students majoring in English and Religion, and 2 of their lecturers constituted the population for the study. The purposive sampling technique was employed in selecting these two groups of the students for the study. Data collection started with classroom observation, where both quantitative and qualitative data were collected from both the students and the lecturers. This was followed by the administration of questionnaires to the students, then an interview with the lecturers. The quantitative data was analysed using means and standard deviations. The qualitative data was analysed using thematic analysis to complement and

94

explain the findings from the quantitative analysis. The key findings realised from the study are highlighted in the next subsection.

Key Findings

The first research question was "Which types of communication strategies do lecturers and students use during instructional hours?" and the key findings are:

1. Both the students and the lecturers used less direct strategies which are pre-communication strategies mostly used as compensations for their original intension.

2. While the students preferred to use non-linguistic means (indirect strategies) to convey their meaning, the lecturers preferred to use strategies that engage the students in the conversation (interactional strategies) such as rephrasing, questioning, interpretive summary.

The second research question was, "What is the frequency of occurrence of communication strategies the lecturers and students use during instructional hours?" and the key findings are:

1. Fillers, self-rephrasing and self-repetition, foreignisation, asking for repetitions, circumlocution are the most frequently used strategies by the students and the lecturers.

2. While confirmation check, message retrieval, use of all-purpose words, code-switch and expressing non-understanding word

95

coinages and appeal for help are the least frequently used strategies.

The third research question was "Which factors influence the choice to use a communication strategy by lecturers and students during instructional hours?" and the key findings are:

1. Context and situation of communication, personal beliefs and motivation, competence, and the communicative environment are four major factors that influence the use of communication strategies during instructional hours.

2. When the lecturers switched language codes, the students became more comfortable sharing their ideas and which promoted classroom participation.

The fourth research question asked, "What implications does the use of communication strategies have on classroom interactions?" and the findings disclosed that:

1. CS is perceived to have a positive impact on the acquisition and use of the English language by giving speakers time to organise their thoughts and build their confidence.

2. CS, however, poses some negative effects, like creating other communication barriers, promoting unnecessary use of fillers and mannerisms and the use of it consumes instructional hours.

96

3. Regardless of these negative impacts, the lecturers and the students suggested that CS should be taught in schools as it eases communication in the second language.

Conclusions

It can be concluded from the findings of this study that the role interlocutors play in a communicative situation determines the kinds of communication strategies they use. The students used direct strategies or non-linguistic strategies as an attempt to communicate their intensions whereas the lecturers used a lot of interactional strategies to help the students participate in the lessons. With communication strategies, the students keep self-learning, practicing and testing their linguistic knowledge as they try to communicate their intentions and make meaning of the communication situation. The students used self-repetitions, self-confirmation and self-rephrasing to check their own accuracy, show doubts in their competence, rephrase themselves or, affirm they had articulated the correct English. In doing so, the students build up their linguistic competence and language self-efficacy. The lecturers also aided this by using more interactional strategies to help the students understand the lesson.

Students and the lecturers were aware of their use of communication strategies. They, however, were not aware when they were using these strategies. Evidence from this study shows a disregard for Dornyei and Scott's view of consciousness in the use of communication strategies. Though the students were conscious of their communicative problems (consciousness as

97

awareness of a problem), their use of communication strategies were more natural and subconscious (with no intentionality), and neither did they feel their utterances were less than perfect.

It was also realised that there is an excessive usage of some of the strategies by the students. The students appealed for help and used fillers not because they needed time to think, needed help, or were faced with communication problems. As a slang, they used communication strategies just for the flair of it, resulting in unnecessary mannerisms among the students. If the students are allowed to use CSs without any restrictions, instructional contents are going to be distorted and there will be unnecessary use of fillers and repetitions.

Again, the lecturers used most communication strategies as a method of teaching. The lecturers were found to use comprehension checks, clarification checks, confirmation checks and interpretive summary to lead the students to answer questions or contribute in class. These strategies also help the students to achieve their communicative intensions instead of abandoning them by engaging in higher order thinking. The lecturers also used L1 based strategies to lighten up the mood in the classroom and retain the students' interest in the lesson.

Lingo-cultural background of speakers influences the use of communication strategies. In most cases, when a word is foreignised, the base form is in the L1 while the affixes are in the L2. However, from this study, the

98

foreignised words have English base words and Akan affixes, making the words localized instead of foreignised.

Recommendations for Policy and Practice

The following recommendations have been made based on the findings that emerged from the study:

The study identified that communication strategies was only common to the language classroom. It was a new concept to the Religion the students since that is not their field. However, communication in the second (English) language is not limited to language students only. Therefore, the study recommends that various departments in the Universities should organise awareness creation on the effective use of CS and formal presentation workshops to enhance accuracy and relevance of spoken communication for students and lecturers. The students, not just those majoring in English shall benefit from knowing a few coping devices that they can use when they encounter difficulties during interactions both inside and outside the classroom environment. Teaching students the types of CS and when and how to use them will help them resolve their communication problems rather than avoiding communication which will in turn help boost their communicative self-confidence.

The context and situation of communication were found to be one of the major factors that influence the use of communication strategies in second language classrooms. Mostly, strict classrooms make the students nervous, which makes them CS in excess. Hence, it is recommended that all teachers,

99

instructors and lecturers adopt more friendly approaches to teaching or more student-centred approaches which will make the students relaxed. This will give the students opportunities to express themselves better and self-learn to improve their vocabulary.

The study again recommends the adaptation of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) in language classrooms by lecturers to help the students practice their knowledge of the target language instead of giving priority to grammatical competence. Thus, communication strategies have become a part of the interlingual systems of the Ghanaian and thus, recognising the Ghanaian variety of English as a formal language will aid second language communications and acquisition both inside and outside the classroom.

Lecturers and instructors should encourage the use of effective CS like interactional strategies and indirect strategies-clarification checks, asking for repetitions, appeal for help and confirmation checks which lead students to practice the English language, while discouraging the use of ineffective CS like direct or avoidance strategies such as fillers and code switching which does not promote learning the second (English) language.

Suggestions for Further Research

The study should be conducted using an experimental design so researchers can identify which communication strategies best promote language acquisition and classroom communication in a Ghanaian context. The study can also be replicated at the high school level to determine whether

it is best to incorporate the teaching, learning and proper application of communication strategies in our high school curriculum. This study only concentrated on the classroom situation where lessons are pre-planned, making interactions less natural. Hence, further studies can be conducted to explore the use of communication strategies outside the classroom to provide a broader insight on the subject matter across Universities in Ghana.

101
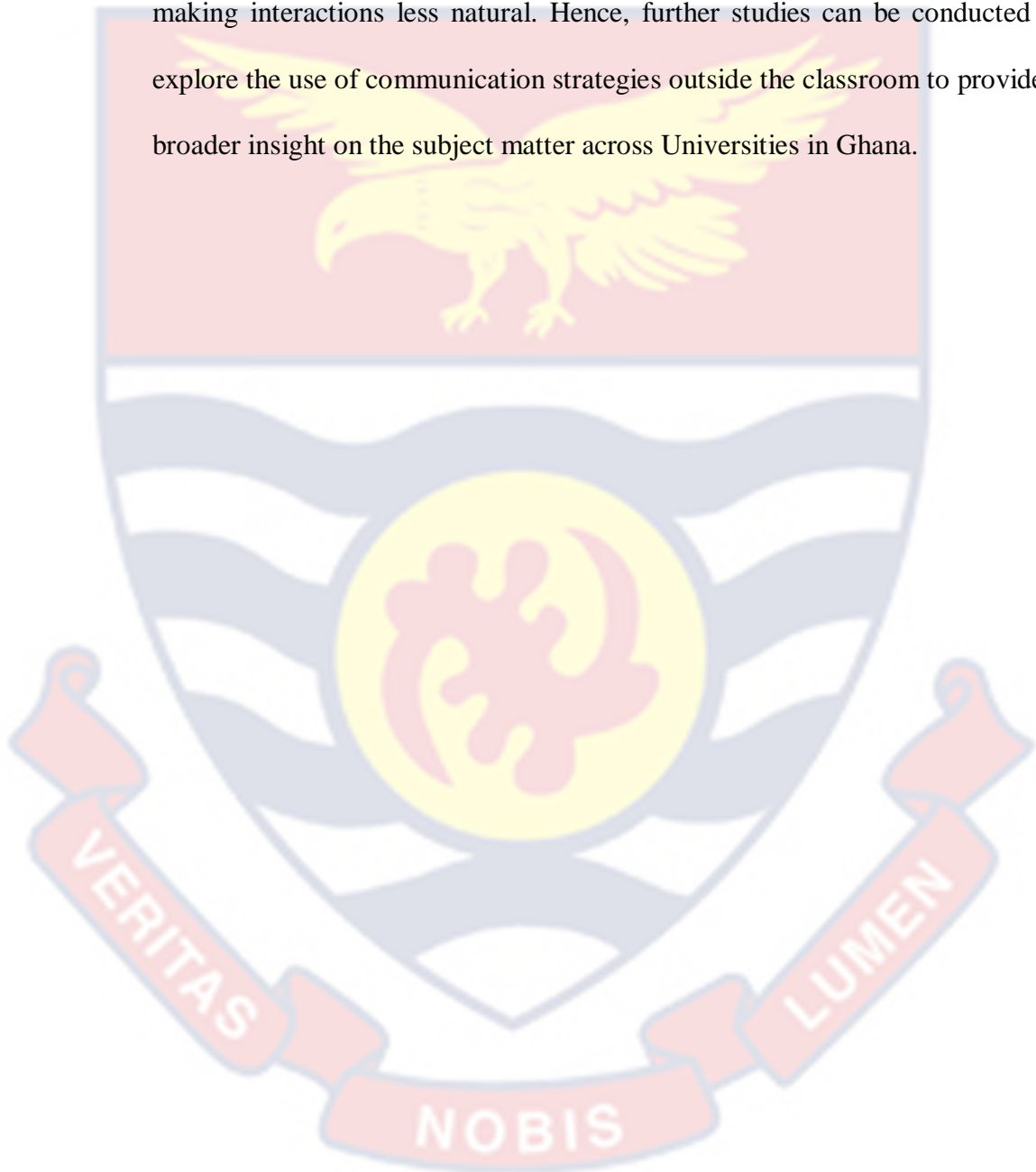
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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

OBSERVATION GUIDE

Programme ……………………………………………………   Day of observation …………………………...

Course Title …………………………………………………...   Time / Credit Hours …………………………

S/N	Strategy	Frequency (students)	Total	Frequency (the lecturers)	Total
		DIRECT STRATEGIES			
1	Message abandonment				
2	Message reduction				
3	Message replacement				
4	Circumlocution				
5	Restructuring				
6	Use of all-purpose words				

112

7	Word-coinage				
8	Literal translation				
9	Foreignizing				
10	Code-switching				
11	Mumbling				
12	Retrieval				
13	Mime				
14	Self-rephrasing				
	INTERACTIONAL STRATEGIES				
15	Appeals for help				
168	Asking for repetition				
17	Comprehension check				

113

18	Clarification check				
19	Confirmation check				
20	Accuracy check				
21	Interpretive summary				
INDIRECT STRATEGIES					
22	Use of fillers				
23	Self-Repetitions				
24	Hesitation devices				

114

APPENDIX B

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR STUDENTS

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

DEPARTMENT OF ARTS EDUCATION

      The objective of the questionnaire is to deduce information from students about their use of communication strategies. Respondents are fully assured that all responses will be handled with absolute confidentiality and their identities will not be revealed to any third party.

SECTION A. LINGO-GEOGRAPHICAL BACKGROUND

Please supply the correct answer by ticking [√] where options are given and filling in the spaces provided.

1. How would you classify your childhood settlement?
   Rural [ ]   sub-urban [ ]   or   urban [ ]

2. Which classification of Junior High School did you attend?
   Public [ ]   Private [ ]

3. Which classification of Senior High School did you attend?
   Public [ ]   Private [ ]

4. How would you rate your level of proficiency in the English language?

   basic/ [ ]   intermediate [ ]   advanced [ ]   mastery [ ]

SECTION B: FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE THE USE OF CS

Please tick [√] the column to show you agree (A), disagree (D) or undecided (U) to the statements made.

S/N	FACTORS	SD	D	U	A	SA
I use communication strategies when/ to/ because / because of / based on …. .						
5.	my indifferent attitude towards the acquisition and use of the language					
6.	my weak linguistic background in the English					

115

	language					
7.	level of competence in the English language					
8.	the context and situation of the interaction					
9.	the type of problem or task involved					
10.	the other interlocutors (communicators) involved in the interaction					
11.	the need to avoid breakdown in classroom conversation					
12.	my nervousness and mindfulness when it comes to using the language					
13.	it makes my communication sound more natural					
14.	it reduces tension that comes with some communicative situations					
15.	it deepens understanding in the classroom					
16.	it helps me express myself more easily					
17.	of my high communication apprehension level					
18.	the personality of other interlocutors involved					
19.	it enhances fluency when I speak					
20.	my belief that a target proficiency is not attainable					
21.	I have a high communication apprehension level					

116

22.	my lecturer also uses them in class					
23.	I use CS in semi-formal classroom context					
24.	I am not motivated to speak rigid target English					
25.	I do not understand what other interlocutors are saying					
26.	probe for further explanations					
27.	avoid errors when communicating in the classroom					

117
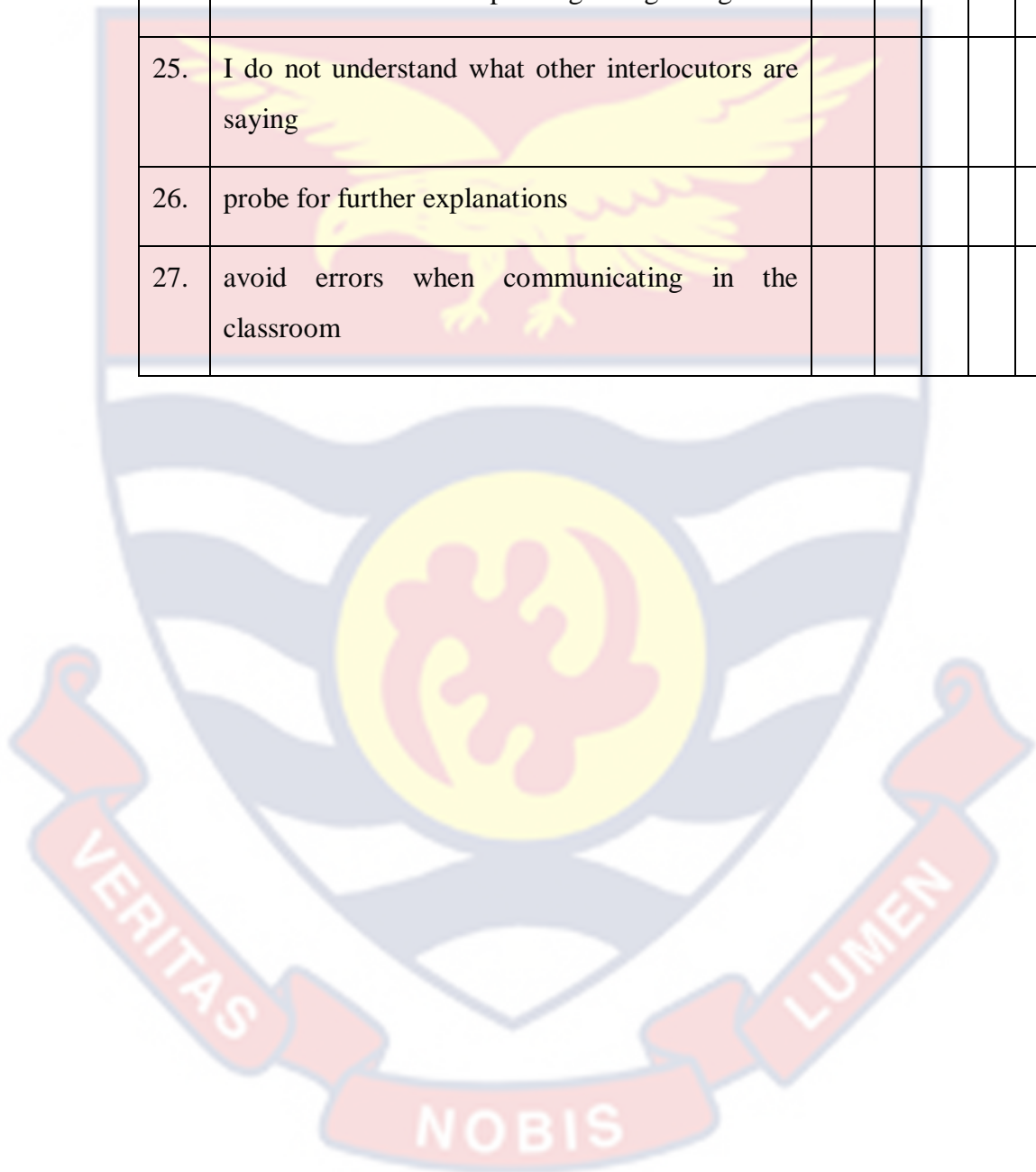
SECTION C: FREQUENCY OF USE OF COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES

This section uses a five-point likert scale, ranging from all the time to rarely, to elicit information on the frequency of use of CS among students. Please tick [√] where appropriate (**A = All the time, U= Usually, S=Sometimes, O= Occasionally, R= Rarely**).

S/N	TYPE OF STRATEGY	A	U	S	O	R
28.	I ask others to repeat their utterances to help me understand and to gain time to think					
29.	I describe concepts in roundabout ways when I cannot find the right English words.					
30.	I use gestures to alert others to clarify their utterances when I cannot understand them					
31.	I ask questions to confirm the meaning of utterances I do not know or understand					
32.	I use fillers such as *errrm, well, mmm*, etc. to gain time to think about what to say					
33.	I translate L1 words, structures, and thought into the English language					
34.	I go back to what I was previously saying after an interruption					
35.	I use one word/phrase to express different words or ideas					
36.	I check to see if I said the right thing					
37.	I add English prefixes and affixes to L1 words to anglicize them					
38.	I use body and sign language when I do not know how to say something in English					
39.	I switch to L1 when I face difficulties while speaking in English					

118

40.	I rephrase my utterances to make myself clear					
41.	I ask others to help me say something in the English (What do we call it?)					
42.	I ask to check if others understand me (I hope you get what I mean, do you get me?)					
43.	I use negative facial expressions to show a lack of understanding					
44.	I feign understanding to keep the conversation going					
45.	I try to interpret what others say to see if I get their point					
46.	I immediately change what I say when I realize that is not the intended message					
47.	I hesitate, lengthen my utterances to gain time to think (I thiiink, that isss, wellll)					
48.	I replace my utterances with different messages					
49.	I repeat myself to confirm I am communicating the right intentions					
50.	I use less-complex phrases/sentences to express my thoughts when people don't get me					
51.	I use words/phrases with similar meanings when I do not know the right words to use					

119

SECTION D

52. Can you mention some of the positive implications, communication strategies have on second language and acquisition teaching and learning?

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53. Can you mention some of the positive implications, communication strategies have on second language and acquisition teaching and learning?

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120

APPENDIX C

SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW GUIDE

The factors that influence the choice of a CS by Instructors

1. Can you mention some factors you think influence your use of CS during instructional periods?

2. Do you think that your background (culture, education and personality) has any effect on your choice and use of CSs?

3. Will you say that your use of CS may be affected by linguistic and/or psycholinguistic factors such as the level of competence, lack of linguistic repertoire, anxiety and nervousness?

4. Will you attribute your choice and use of CS to the communication situation (the context, purpose and focus of communication, interlocutors involved, etc.)?

Effects of CS on teaching and learning

Sub-theme A: Positive effects

5. Do you think that the use of CS helps you to be a good speaker of the English language?

6. Does the use of CS foster effective communication in the classroom?

   Sub-theme B: Negative effects

7. Do you think the use of CS impedes students' capabilities to acquire a more standard variety of the target language?

   Sub theme C

8. Would you recommend communication strategies to be taught in schools?

121

APPENDIX D

INTERVIEW TRANSCRIPT

Can you mention some factors you think influence your use of CS during instructional periods?

I will say the level of students. By level I mean both their educational level and their language competence level. Because if you know their level then you will know how to communicate with them. Second one will also be the responses from students. How active they are in class participation. You see, sometimes, some students will never talk in class and they will all leave the talking to a few of them.

Why do you think some students never talk?

Most at times, it's because they don't read so they have nothing to say in class. But sometimes to, some feel very shy to talk because the English is heavy for them (hahaha).

Do you think that background (culture, education and personality) has any effect on the choice and use of CSs?

Oh yes. Personally, I believe my background as a lecturer has helped me to practice more on my linguistic competence. Not that I use to lack competence but you know, we keep learning and English language is not our first language.

122

What about your students?

My students? Well, from my experiences, yes. "The thing is, most students did not get the chance to practice their English due to various factors

What kinds of factors please?

owwww factors like coming from a rural community, ... You see, when you come from a rural community, there is not much speaking of the English language outside the school environment. Sometimes even in the schools, students speak their L1 so when all of a sudden, they are to start expressing themselves in the English language, they sometimes feel shy and nervous in class…as they keep practicing, they start building their confidence".

Will you attribute the choice and use of CS to communication situations such as the context, purpose and focus of communication, interlocutors involved?

Sometimes. Errrmm when students volunteer to answer questions in class, they are at ease and they say exactly what they intend but when you call on them to talk, they tend to fumble and mime a lot. They don't get enough time to plan what to say. That's when you hear all these mannerisms.

Well, depending on the reaction from my students, their facial expressions, I switch between languages and use other types of strategies. In a situation like this, you have to try and get them involved by using all necessary means.

123

What in your view are some positive effects of the use of CS in classroom interactions?

I will say that ermm it draws students' attention to what you are saying and it helps them to easily grasp your message. Also, if you allow them to freely express themselves, your class is always lively

Positive effects? Well, it is important that students feel they are part of the learning process so I often probe for most silent students to also chip in their ideas and the more they contribute, the more they build on their language competence in the English language.

"Going by a strict target language only rule makes most students very quiet in class. The classroom environment becomes too formal and stiff and students may not contribute even when they know the answer.

Does the use of CS foster effective communication in the classroom?

I think it does. It helps students to, myself included to probe for clarification and understand the teaching and learning situation.

Do you think the use of CS impedes students' capabilities to acquire a more standard variety of the target language?

Mmmm to some extent. Students will always be students. If you give them an inch, they will take a mile so if you don't limit them and they get comfortable with these strategies, they may use their L1 to answer their exams questions oo (hahaha) so I think it has its good side and bad side too.

When students get the opportunity to express themselves without any language restrictions, they contribute more in class but they can also waste your time. That's just students for you.

Would you recommend communication strategies to be taught in schools?

Yes. I think it should be taught as a topic under one of the general university courses. It can be taught under comm-skills to help boost students' confidence in public speaking and help them communicate better in their classrooms and in the corporate world at large.

Oh yes. It should be incorporated into the high school curriculum.

Why at the high school level and not the tertiary?

At the university level, the students have already developed their linguistic competence and there is no much room for grooming. But at the SHS level, the students are yet to be fully groomed so we can teach them communication strategies and its importance so that it will become easier for them to communicate when they get to the university.

125