A Case Study about Communication Strategies
CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

Today, increasing numbers of Taiwanese English as a Foreign Language (EFL) adult learners are pursuing their goals of communicating in English in worldwide institutions. This need has caused more attention to be focused on their communicative competence. The imperative necessitate to converse with the world in English has increased due to Taiwan’s inclination to associated with global organizations, such as the World Health Organization (WHO) and the United Nations (UN). If Taiwan were to be accepted by the Unite Nation, it would have more opportunities to participate in UN-related organizations and other forms of multilateral cooperation (Chen, 2005).

Moreover, Taiwan should be allowed to play a part in the WHO because the health authorities of Taiwan are the only ones possessing the relevant information about any outbreak of an epidemic that could pose a threat to global health (Government Information Office, Republic of China, 2005). For joining the above global institutions where English is used as a communication tool, Taiwanese people’s communicative competence needs to be raised to fulfill the urgent need of international communication (Wei, 2005).

Another reason why communicative competence currently is emphasized is because of the joint entrance examination that drives high school students to develop reading and writing proficiencies and pay less attention to the magnitude of communicative competence. Very few, if any, communicative questions exist on the examination so that students have less opportunity to practice communicating

The style and format of this book follow the TESOL Quarterly.
in English. The standard entrance examinations apparently constrain the application of communicative language teaching and democratic teaching in most schools in Taiwan (Wei, 2005).

The term “communicative competence” has been credited to Hymes (1972). Canale and Swain (1980) identified four components of communicative competence: grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic. To fulfill Taiwanese EFL learners’ increasing need to exploit English to communicate in international situations, this study focused on the component of strategic competence because it helped the learners institute communicating in English within a shorter time.

The scholars in the communication strategy field had advised that language learners can use communication strategies to resolve their linguistic problems and talk more comprehensibly (Ansarin & Syal, 2000; Bialystok, 1990; Faerch & Kasper, 1983a, 1984; Rababah, 2003) because of “…their role in facilitating communication by helping to overcome a communication problem.” (Andrioti, 2005, p. 1) Faerch and Kasper (1983a) described communication strategies as: “Communication strategies are potentially conscious plans for solving what to an individual presents itself as a problem in reaching a particular communicative goal.” (p. 36)

This study recommended, through communication strategies, that the Taiwanese EFL university learners might know how to expand their limited linguistic knowledge during communication and make themselves interact better in the current global village. In Taiwan, because of international intercourse needs, the government changed the policy of compulsory English education from eight years to ten years in 2005 (Ministry of Education, ROC, 2005). Therefore, compared to younger
generations, the contemporary university students’ proficiency to communicate in English might not be eligible. The function of communication strategies might assist the adult learners in compensating for their finite English knowledge, and integrate their reading and writing competencies into realistic communication.

However, communication strategies might not be valued highly by the Taiwanese EFL adult learners. The rationalization for this is that using these strategies could make communication easier and help the learners start interacting in English more rapidly; nevertheless, strategies also might lead to markedly non-native sounding speech (Tarone, 1980) or result in a loss of face (Faerch & Kasper, 1984). Inspired by these effects or characteristics of strategy application that Tarone (1983), and Faerch and Kasper (1984) had recommended, this study attempted to scrutinize further how the Taiwanese EFL learners would react to the foreign-like speech production generated through a communication strategy and what they could perceive about their learning, besides the perceptions of face-losing. This study searched for factors that influenced the learners’ perceptions of learning a communication strategy. More specifically, it regarded an in-depth discussion of the students’ perceptions, beliefs, and attitudes toward learning communication strategies as both significant and necessary.

Understanding students’ feelings helps the educators humanize their methods of education (e.g., Alsop & Watts, 2000; Heaton, 1951; Rogers, 1972). Alsop and Watts (2000) emphasized it is indispensable to explore the “affective interference” in students’ feelings and the relationship between students’ cognition and emotion. They suggested to educators that, “Learning is influenced by feelings and emotions and that, in turn, learning can influence feelings and emotions.” (p. 132) Researchers
implied that feeling in learning is an vital factor in successful learning of communication strategies, since humans have basic psychological needs and will be most motivated to engage in activities responsibly and enthusiastically when those needs are met (Connell & Wellborn, 1991; Skinner & Belmont, 1993; Skinner, Wellborn & Connell, 1990).

Besides, in the field of English Education, Krashen (1982) also argued that emotional factors, such as confidence and anxiety, are influential components in language acquisition. As he remarked, “The best methods are therefore those that supply ‘comprehensible input’ in low anxiety situations, containing a message that students really want to hear (Krashen, 1982, p. 6). He further stated that, “These methods do not force early production…, but allow students to produce when they are ready.” (Krashen, 1982, p. 6)

Accordingly, this study succeeded two in-depth discussions that had addressed the issues of the learners’ perceptions, attitudes, and beliefs associated with the students’ language generated through the use of communication strategies, and the learners’ characteristics of using communication strategies (Faerch & Kasper, 1984; Tarone, 1980). Faerch and Kasper (1984) revealed that higher level English learners need to use a communication strategy “confidentially,” because of “their less clearly marked foreigner roles and their need for face-saving” (p. 61). Faerch and Kasper’s discussion for face-saving issue implied that besides the advantage of comprehensible communication, the strategy learners’ psychological level is another significant issue that the researchers and English language educators should involve in their studies of strategy application.

Also, Tarone’s foreign-like issue associated with the learners’ willingness of
using communication strategies was thought-provoking. Tarone (1980) mentioned that the strategy application might present a problem for non-native like speech, including language forms of “inappropriateness,” “excessive verbosity,” or “informality.” (p. 12) Accordingly, this study followed Tarone (1980, 1981) and Faerch and Kasper’s (1983a, 1983b, 1984) model of in-depth discussions and examined whether the learners had comparable perceptions or opinions that the preceding researchers had mentioned, and if they detected some other characteristics and in the strategy application that were distinct from the past reports.

Statement of the Problem

Today in Taiwan, communicative competence has become an important issue due to the globalization phenomena. Thus, the communication strategy is an important topic to discuss for raising the communicative competence of Taiwanese EFL adult learners. In communication strategy research, various studies have focused on different categories (e.g., Bialystok 1983, 1990; Dornyei & Scott, 1997; Ogane, 1998; Rababah, 2002c). Additionally, many researchers have conducted studies based on different taxonomies (e.g., Ansarin & Syal, 2000; Dornyei, 1995; Kocoglu, 1997; Rababah 2002c; Yoshida-Morise, 1998). However, very few empirical studies have been conducted for the purpose of investigating students’ perceptions of learning communication strategies. Therefore, it was difficult to access a sufficient number of qualitative references that state the learners’ experiences and comments regarding their evaluations for skills in communication strategies.

Although Faerch and Kasper (1984) and Tarone (1980) noted the issues of face-saving and non-native like language that were associated with the learners’ perceptions of learning communication strategies, no existing studies revealed
students’ attitudes and feelings for communication strategies. Based on more than 10 skills associated with the five communication strategies from the taxonomy of Faerch and Kasper (1983), this study provided information on how the Taiwanese EFL university learners perceived their learning.

**Statement of the Purpose**

The primary purpose of this study was to find out what the Taiwanese university EFL learners perceived in learning the five communication strategies, and students’ attitude and beliefs toward learning communication strategies. This study collected qualitative data about students’ perceptions and reflections as they learned the five communication strategies in Faerch and Kasper’s (1983) classification. The results of the study should contribute to the research field of communications strategies. Also, the results could be used as the guidelines for English educators in practicing their communicative teaching.

**Research Questions**

The general research question was: “What are Taiwanese university EFL learners’ perceptions about learning five communication strategies?” More specifically, the questions were:

1. What are Taiwanese university students’ perceptions about learning the topic avoidance strategy?
2. What are Taiwanese university students’ perceptions about learning the message abandonment strategy?
3. What are Taiwanese university students’ perceptions about learning the meaning replacement strategy?
4. What are Taiwanese university students’ perceptions about learning the interlanguage-based strategy?

5. What are Taiwanese university students’ perceptions about learning the cooperation strategy?

Significance of the Study

This study addressed how Taiwanese university EFL learners perceived in learning five communication strategies. More specifically, this study reported various factors that influenced EFL learners’ perceptions and their intentions of learning communication strategies. This study revealed how students valued learning various types of communication strategies and how their English language was developed through the use of communication strategies.

Through interacting with five communication strategies, the students’ different attitudes of learning communication strategies were revealed from the learners’ perspectives, and not from the researcher’s perspectives. The report of the students’ perceptions was significant because it provided information related to the students’ beliefs, attitudes, and characteristics of learning communication strategies. In other words, through listening to students’ voices and opinions of learning communication strategies, researchers in the field of communication strategies might access issues different from those of face-saving and non-native like speech discovered by Faerch and Kasper (1984), and Tarone (1980).

Definitions

1. Communication strategies: systematic conversation skills applied by a speaker to convey his meaning when encountering linguistic difficulty. They are “potentially conscious plans for solving what to an individual presents
itself as a problem in reaching a particular communicative goal.” (Faerch & Kasper, 1983a, p. 36)


3. Topic avoidance strategy: The speakers should avoid some topics, which are perceived as problematic, because of the interlocutors’ shortage of background knowledge about that topic. Also, the speakers should avoid pronouncing some vowels, or consonants that are difficult for them (Tarone, Cohen & Dumas, 1983; Corder, 1983; Faerch & Kasper, 1983a; Tarone, Frauenfelder & Selinker, 1976).

4. Message abandonment strategy: The speakers should skip difficult words during interactions, or reject to explain a difficult word for their interlocutors (Corder, 1983; Faerch & Kasper, 1983a; Tarone, Cohen & Dumas, 1983).

5. Meaning replacement strategy: This also is termed “semantic avoidance.” When a learner encounters a situation where he needs to use a word he does not know in English, he should use a general expression to replace the meaning without abandoning it altogether. The meaning generated through this strategy can be expressed vaguely (Blum-Kulka & Levenston, 1983; Corder, 1983; Faerch & Kasper, 1983a; Tarone, Cohen & Dumas, 1983; Tarone, Frauenfelder & Selinker, 1976).

6. Interlanguage strategy: This strategy applies the techniques to “generalize” (Blum-Kulka & Levenston 1983; Faerch & Kasper, 1983a), “paraphrase”
(Faerch & Kasper, 1983a; Tarone, 1983), “coinage new words,” (Faerch & Kasper, 1983a) and “restructuring” (Bialystok, 1990; Faerch & Kasper, 1983a). For example, using “tree nut” to refer to acorn (generalize), using “a cykel there is a motor” to refer to motorcycle, using “airball” to refer to balloon (word coinage), and using “my tummy is empty” to refer to hungry (restructuring).

7. Cooperation strategy: Learners should signal their interlocutor for help and solve communication problems by requesting a second language (L2) usage that they do not know or by indicating that they cannot express the intended meaning (Blum-Kulka & Levenston, 1983; Corder, 1978; Faerch & Kasper, 1983c; Tarone, Cohen & Dumas, 1983; Tarone, Frauenfelder & Selinkier, 1976). For example, they may ask their partners what a certain word means.

8. Interlocutor: In colloquial use, an interlocutor is someone who takes part in a conversation, a conversation partner, and a schmoozer (Lott, 1993).

Organization of the Study

The organization of the study is as follows. Chapter I is the introduction, which includes statement of the problem, statement of the purpose, research questions, significance of the study, theoretical base for the study, definitions, and organization of the study. Chapter II is the literature review, and it mainly discusses the history of how communication strategies evolved. Chapter II is organized with an investigation on history of communication strategies, a significant issue of psychological status of strategy application, the earlier studies, recent studies, theoretical base/conceptual framework, and a summary.

Chapter III discusses the methodology of this study, and is organized with an
introduction of methodologies, descriptions of qualitative methodologies, methods of
data collection, data analysis, and assumption and limitation of this study. Chapter IV
presents the findings regarding the five research questions. Chapter V contains
discussions, summary, and recommendations for further research topics. Finally,
Chapter VI contains the discussions, summary, and recommendations of further
studies.
CHAPTER II
LITERATURE REVIEW

The purpose of this chapter is to pursue a background about communication strategies and the history of communication strategies. It provides the concepts about the meaning of communication strategies. Various definitions of communication strategies are presented, and the speech generated through communication strategies sound are revealed. In the end of this chapter, a significant theoretical base of Faerch and Kasper’s taxonomy is illustrated, which also explains why these five communication strategies were selected and tested: (1) topic avoidance, (2) message abandonment, (3) meaning replacement, (4) interlanguage, (5) cooperation.

History and Trends of Communication Strategy

To investigate communication strategy, Selinker (1972) was the first scholar who concretely proposed the original notion of communication strategy. Selinker (1972) suggested strategy application in his paper entitled, “Interlanguage,” to account for certain classes of errors made by second language learners. He also identified the acceptable inaccuracy in communication as a by-product of the attempt of the learner to express his meaning in spontaneous speech with an inadequate grasp of the target language system. All in all, Selinker (1972) suggested that the interlanguage in the second language learners’ speech productions should be regarded as tolerable and supportable. Indeed, in the communication strategy history, Selinker (1972) was a pioneer who had a great deal of influence on the next researchers of the communication strategy field. These researchers had added to Selinker’s work by either designing alternative communication strategies or promoting the communication strategy application.
In 1972, Selinker and Savignon reported on a pioneering language teaching experiment involving a communicative training approach, which, for the first time, included students’ training process in communication strategies. Then, Varadi (1973) and Tarone (1979) were two scholars who elaborated Selinker’s notions and provided a systematic analysis of communication strategies in the 1970s. They developed and introduced their taxonomies and terms, which were used in the subsequent communication strategy studies.

The earliest examples of strategies were provided by Tarone in 1978, which helped the researchers and the second language learners “arrive at both a clarification and a definition of the notion communication strategy.” (p. 286) Her examples were offered with the existent categorization at that time, which were paraphrase (approximation, word coinage, and circumlocution), borrowing (literal translation and language switch), appeal for assistance, mime, and avoidance (topic avoidance and message abandonment) communication strategies (Tarone, 1978).

Tarone’s (1978) examples were as follows: (1) “pipe for water pipe” (approximation), (2) “airball for balloon” (word coinage), (3) “She is, uh, smoking something. I don’t know what’s its name. That’s uh, Persian, and we use Turkey, a lot of.” (circumlocution), (4) “He invites him to drink, for they toast one another.” (literal translation), (5) “tritil for caterpillar” (language switch), (6) “What is this? What called?” (appeal for assistance), (7) “Not to talk about concepts for which the Target Language (TL) item or structure is not known.” (topic avoidance), (8) “Talk about a concept but is unable to continue and stops in mid-utterance.” (avoidance) (Tarone, 1981, pp. 286-287) Later, Paribakht (1985) also displayed 46 examples of speech production created through communication strategies categorized by
Paribakht. In Paribakht’s taxonomy, 25 strategies existed in four approaches, including “linguistic approach, contextual approach, conceptual approach, and mime approach.” (pp. 135-138)

Generally speaking, earlier communication strategy researchers in the 1970s began their research by creating definitions, and then examining the characteristics identified in communication strategies (e.g., Selinker, 1972; Tarone, 1979; Varadi, 1973). Later researchers in the 1980s not only defined the communication strategy, but also they focused on evolving a systematic series of techniques and skills in different communication strategy taxonomies (e.g., Bialystok, 1983; Corder, 1983; Faerch & Kasper, 1983a, 1984; Haastrup & Phillipson, 1983; Tarone, 1980, 1981; Varadi, 1980, 1983).

Varadi (1983), Corder (1983), and Faerch and Kasper (1983a) categorized communication techniques and skills from two perspectives of “manipulating meaning goals” and “manipulating forms.” (p. 59) The former perspective indicated that the final concept and meaning in communication should be altered a great deal from the original intended expression. Contrastingly, the latter implied that the speakers should achieve the intended expression successfully by altering the forms of language without decreasing the accuracy of the intended meaning. The techniques and skills of facilitating communications compared were similar, but the terms for how to name these techniques and skills they created were different.

Varadi (1980, 1983) categorized the strategies to manipulate meaning goals as the “optimal-adjusted meaning” set and the strategies to manipulate form as the “adjusted form” set (p. 59). Corder (1983) named these two sets as “message adjustment” and “resource expansion.” (p. 19) In this study, the researchers adopted
Faerch and Kasper’s (1983a) classification, which divided the communication
strategies into two sets of “reduction strategies” and “achievement strategies.” (p. 38)
In fact, the titles of “reduction” and “achievement” that Faerch and Kasper
created clearly explained the functions of two types of the communication strategies.
Literally, the “reduction” meant that the strategies might reduce the meaning of the
intended expressions. Contrastingly, the “achievement” meant that the strategies
would help these speakers to establish and complete their intended meanings with
particular skills.

The real history of communication strategies started in the early 1980s when
Canale and Swain (1980) included them in what Hymes (1972) termed
“communicative competence” as their influential model of communicative
competence. Canale and Swain (1980) regarded the communication strategies as the
primary constituents in strategic competence, which was defined as one of four
communicative competences in their model of communicative competence. Actually,
they emphasized that the strategic competence should be as significant as the other
three dimensions of communication competence, grammatical competence,
sociolinguistic competence, and discourse competence.

Soon after Canale and Swain (1980) and Canale (1983) identified strategic
competence as one of the four significant dimensions in communicative competence,
Faerch and Kasper (1983c) published a complete volume, *Strategies in Interlanguage
Communication*, in order to define subjectively and classify communication
strategies. This book included the most important published papers and research at
that time (Bialystok, 1983; Blum-Kulka & Levenson, 1983; Corder, 1983; Dechert,
1983; Faerch & Kasper, 1983a; Haastrup & Phillipson, 1983; Raupach, 1983; Tarone,
Indeed, the above two publications by Canale and Swain (1980) and Faerch and Kasper (1983c) were applied as the primary references by the increasing number of researchers in this field, who focused on various issues and conducted their studies in the 1980s (e.g., Bialystok, 1983; Canale, 1983; Faerch & Kasper, 1983a, 1983b, 1984; Kellerman, Bongaerts & Poulisse, 1987; Kumaravadivelu, 1989; Paribakht, 1985; Tarone, 1980, 1981, 1983).

Truly, the 1980s was a time many scholars increased their interest in studying communication strategies. During this time, the Netherlands became a research center of communication strategies because a group of professors and scholars in Nijmegen University had carried out many studies. The projects they conducted shed light on previous definitions, classifications, and theories of communication strategies (Bongaerts, Kellerman & Bentlage, 1987; Kellerman, Bongaerts & Poulisse, 1987; Kellerman, Ammerlaan, Bongaerts & Poulisse, 1990; Poulisse, 1987).

Furthermore, in the 1990s, several significant monographs were published. One of the most important works was Bialystok’s Communication Strategies: A Psychological Analysis of Second Language Use. In this work, the definitions and theories of communication strategies developed by Corder (1977, 1978, 1983), Faerch and Kasper (1983a, 1983b), Kellerman (1978, 1984, 1987), Paribakht (1982, 1985), Poulisse (1987, 1989), Tarone (1979, 1980, 1981), Varadi (1980), and many other scholars in this field at that time were introduced. Later, many in-depth empirical, interpretative, or conceptual papers were published. The researchers in the 1990s mainly investigated the relations between strategy application and different
variables of proficiency level, gender, nationality, and teaching pedagogy (e.g., Chen, 1990; Clennell, 1994a, 1994b, 1995; Dornyei & Scott, 1995a, 1995b; Kocoglu, 1997; Littlemore, 2001; Yoshida-Morise, 1998).

From the 2000s, more important scholars emerged in the field of communication strategies (e.g., Ansarin & Syal, 2000; Littlemore, 2003; Rababah, 2002a, 2002b, 2002c, 2002d). Ansarin and Syal (2000) based their work on the teachability issue of communication strategies and offered several strategy training approaches. Rababah’s (2002c, 2003) study discussed different definitions, taxonomies, and teaching pedagogies of communication strategies. Littlemore’s (2003) study examined communication strategies from linguistic perspectives. She classified communication strategies into substitution strategies, reconceptualization strategies, and functional strategies.

Generally speaking, in the late 20\textsuperscript{th} century and early 21\textsuperscript{st} century, the scholars of this field not only promoted the use of communication strategies, but they also defined the strategies (e.g., Dornyei & Scott, 1997; Faerch & Kasper, 1983c; Rababah, 2002c). Although they interpreted the communication strategies in different ways, the definitions were similar.

Faerch and Kasper (1983c) recognized communication strategies as “potentially conscious plans for solving what to an individual presents itself as a problem in reaching a particular communicative goal.” (p. 36) They believed that the major types of communication strategies should be divided by human being’s reduction and achievement behavior. The reduction behaviors changed the goal of expressing, and the achievement behaviors helped to develop an alternative plan to express original intended meaning (Faerch & Kasper, 1983c).
Dornyei and Scott’s (1997) definition of communication strategy was that it was a method of problem-management in second language communication that helped non-native speakers arrange difficult meanings. They considered the communication strategies as problem solving techniques that coped with the language related problems of which the speakers were aware during the course of communication (Dornyei & Scott, 1997).

Rababah (2002c) classified the communication strategies from the view of the speakers’ first and second language. With the similar communication strategies introduced by the other scholars, Rababah (2002c) categorized 16 strategies into first language and second language based strategies, which became a newer taxonomy (pp. 24-27). He defined communication strategies as “ways second language learners use to solve their communication problems due to their limited linguistic resource.” (Rababah, 2002c) Actually, the existing definitions of communication strategies provided chiefly tend to illustrate that the communication strategies are for resolving problems caused by non-native speakers’ linguistic resource limitation.

Psychological Status of Strategy Application

Scholars in the field of communication strategies tended to discuss a question: Do speakers use communication strategies consciously or not? In the history of communication strategy field, Bialystok (1990), Cohen (1998), Dornyei and Scott (1997), Faerch and Kasper (1983c, 1984), Gass and Selinker (1994), Kumaravadivelu (1989), Selinker (1972), and Weimann and Daly (1994) had studied for this controversy and offered their different aspects upon this issue.

Before the theory of communication strategies had been developed fully, the pioneer of this field, Selinker (1972) discussed psychological structures in the second
language speakers’ brain. He indicated that second language learners might achieve native-speaker’s competence through activating the “latent language structure.” (p. 211) The latent language structure was actually previously identified by Lenneberg (1967).

Lenneberg (1967) addressed that the latent structure was a type of structure associated with the language functions in the human beings’ brain. Also, it “(a) is a formulated arrangement in the brain; (b) is a biological counterpart to universal grammar; and (c) is transformed by the infant into the realized structure of a particular grammar in accordance with certain maturational stages” (pp. 211-212). Through the latent structure, the language learners would be able to speak a target language native-like without considering it for a long time. Their reason was that the learners might resort automatically to the usage of interlanguage strategies genetically, and speak a target language as fluently as a native speaker without resorting to much consciousness.

According to the model of speech production suggested by Faerch and Kasper (1983c), before the communicative goal of the intended meaning is achieved, there is a process of planning, which seems to be a phase that the learners should have in their consciousness. Actually, this model of speech production indicated that the learners first should detect their linguistic problem, retrieve items from relevant linguistic system second, and finally realize which item to apply in order to achieve their communicative goal. Faerch and Kasper (1983) tended to involve a consciousness issue in strategy application.

According to Faerch and Kasper’s (1983c) definition of communication strategies, they are “potentially conscious plans set up by the learner in order to solve
problems in communication.” (p. x) Faerch and Kasper (1983c) believed that the English speakers using communication strategies were at “the presence of consciousness depending on individual and situation variables as well as on the linguistic material and the psychological procedures.” (p. 47) From this perspective, using communication strategies should be a conscious behavior because they claimed “that plans criteria of ‘problem-orientedness’ and ‘consciousness’ are relevant criteria as seen from the perspective of Foreign Language (FL) learning and teaching.” (p. 2)

Kumaravadivelu (1989) in an article, Communication Strategies and Psychological Processes Underlying Lexical Simplification, asserted three psychological processes of producing language through communication strategies, which the language learners would go through when they encountered linguistic difficulties. According to Kumaravadivelu (1989), these three processes were a process of overgeneralization, a process of creative transfer, and a process of cultural relativity. That is to say, in these three processes, the learners would appear to access simpler speech productions, to effect required morphological and syntactic transformations, and to operate in the mode and sequence of thought patterns characteristic of their native culture. Kumaravadivelu (1989) did not clearly claim whether the users of communication strategies applied the strategies with their consciousness in mind; however, the three mental processes he recognized implied that the strategy users should have experienced their consideration state as well as a conscious status before they produced their speeches successfully.

Bialystok (1990) declared that the issue of consciousness in strategy application was a significant research question: “it remains an empirical question to determine the extent to which learners are even aware of the set of strategic options
and the choices they make” (p. 48). In the book, *Communication Strategies, A Psychological Analysis of Second-Language Use*, Bialystok (1990) argued that the communication strategies might be applied through the language learners’ “consciousness” or “intentionality.” (pp. 4-5)

However, she conservatively retained these two assumptions as two doubtable research questions. The reasons why Bialystok argued these two issues to be questionable were as follows. First, she believed that “It is difficult to treat consciousness as a determining variable, primarily because the conditions of consciousness seem so elusive.” (p. 122) Second, Bialystok believed that if the learners’ strategy application were intentional, then “there would be systematic relations between the use of specific communication strategies and specific conditions of the communicative situation.” (p. 5) However, the researcher’s investigation about how the learners made their choices according to some relevant factors or situations could not be found in this field. Consequently, she inferred that the intentionality in strategy application was quite questionable.

In 1994, Gass and Selinker noted that a central feature of language use was a tendency to automate high frequency elements. So, the small set of strategies that language learners use in the problematic situations they encounter could become routine. Gass and Selinker (1994) indicated that strategy users might apply a communication strategy automatically with their sub-consciousness in an automatic fossilized way. Different from most scholars in the field of communications strategy, Gass and Selinker (1994) emphasized that language learners should apply interlanguage strategies automatically or subconsciously instead of using them with a high intention in mind.
Based on the issue of consciousness/sub-consciousness in strategy application, Weimann and Daly (1994) had a similar theory as Gass and Selinker’s (1994) belief. Weimann and Daly (1994) asserted that some communication strategies “are overlearned and seem to drop from consciousness” (p. ix). That is to say, the application of an original or an intentional strategy finally may become highly automated or fossilized because the individual who applies the communication strategy has established fully the concepts of the strategy application in mind. Accordingly, Gass and Selinker (1994) judged that the strategy application should not be completely a conscious device, after the communication strategies were practiced or totally absorbed by the language learners.

Whether the communication strategies should be applied consciously, subconsciously, or automatically by the language learners, Dornyei and Scott (1997) provided their perception on this issue. They added that the language learners used communication strategies with their intentional attempt to cope with any language-related problems of which they were aware during the course of communication. They believed that all different types of communication problem management mechanisms could be developed through consciousness. Dornyei and Scott (1997) commented that “One can be conscious of a language problem, the intent/attempt to solve this problem, the repertoire of potentially applicable communication strategies, the way to a communication strategy, the use of a less-than-perfect stopgap device.” (p. 184)

Thereafter, Cohen (1998) acknowledged that strategy application was a conscious process. He addressed the issue of consciousness in his definition of communication strategy as “those processes which are consciously selected by
learners and which may result in action taken to enhance the learning or use of a second or foreign language, through storage, retention, recall, and application of information about the language.” (p. 4)

As has been noted, most researchers of the communication strategy field argued the processes of strategy application either were conscious or sub-conscious. The researcher of this study in Taiwanese university hold that during the training process of communication strategy, the language learners should have their consciousness and plan in mind, when learning and practicing using communication strategies. However, after they (Taiwanese language learners) were accustomed to the skills and usages in the communication strategies, the concepts and mechanisms of the communication strategies might have been outright absorbed, so language learners would reflect which communication strategy to use without considering for a long while as before. The reason was that the language learners automatically might articulate their fossilized language of the particular structures of communication strategies through their sub-consciousness.

Earlier Studies

In the earlier stage of communication strategy studies, several significant empirical studies were conducted in the 1980s. These empirical studies were reported by Bialystok (1983), Tarone (1983), Faerch and Kasper (1984), Paribakht (1985), Poulisse (1987), and Corrales (1989).

In 1983, Bialystok conducted two empirical studies. In the first study, she discovered that those subjects who had traveled widely and spoke more than two foreign languages proved to be superior in their second language strategy use. In her second study, she focused on the issue of age and compared the adults’ and children’s
application of communication strategies. Her findings displayed that the adult language learners used more first language based strategies than the children learners. On the other hand, the children learners used more second language based strategies to communicate than the adult learners. What’s more, she revealed that the strategy application for describing objects was more effective for adults than children.

In 1984, Tarone’s study found that those students in classroom settings offering more natural input established a higher level of strategic competence than students in ordinary classrooms, who used only a limited number of mostly unsophisticated communication strategies. He implied in his study that teachers should train the students to use communication strategies with the immersion classes.

Faerch and Kasper (1984) found that advanced English learners were likely to experience problems in their interlanguage in part simply because their communicative aspirations often increase with their developing interlanguage proficiency. However, these advanced English learners needed to use communication strategies in an unobvious way because they tended to establish their less clearly marked foreigner roles. Also, they tended to pay more attention to face-losing issue as well as the perceptions of embarrassment when communicating in English as a foreign language.

Paribakht (1985) reported a study, which he cooperated with 20 adult subjects, and conducted an empirical study at the University of Toronto in 1981. This study revealed:

First, the typology of the strategies, which was developed, was based on the type of information included in the communication strategies. Second, the subject’s point of view was the basis for the identification of his or her
communication strategies. Third, consideration in the identification of the subjects’ communication strategies was that very often a subjects’ statement contained several communication strategies (p. 134).

Poulisse (1987) in Holland directed a quantitative-empirical study funded by Nijmegen University. This study discovered that the strategy application was related closely to the subjects’ proficiency level. “Not surprisingly, the number of compensatory strategies used is related to proficiency level, since speakers of a lower proficiency level have more lexical problems.” (p. 150)

**Recent Studies**

The recent studies of communication strategies conducted after the 1990s could be found easier because the studies in this field had arrived at a mature stage. For example, a survey of the literature revealed Chen’s (1990) study in Guangzhou City of China, Stewart and Pearson’s (1995) study in the United States, Dornyei’s (1995) study in Hungary, Kocoglu’s (1997) study in Turkey, Yoshida-Morise’s (1998) study in Japan, Ansarin & Syal’s (2000) study in Iran, Margolis’ (2001) study in Korea, Rababah’s (2002b) study in Jordan, and Littlemore’s (2003) study in France.

Chen (1990) directed her experiment in Guangzhou of Mainland People's Republic of China, which was for discovering whether the language learners with different English proficiency applied communication strategies at the same level of frequency. Through training twelve English majors at a Foreign Language Institute, Chen (1990) revealed that “the high-proficiency learners were equipped with more knowledge of the target language and had relatively richer resources to draw upon in communication; therefore, they appealed less to communication strategies.” (p. 171)

In 1995, Stewart and Pearson examined communication strategies in a
negotiation task involving eight native speakers and non-native speakers of Spanish in Louisiana State University. Through the role-play situation of a hair stylist and a client, Stewart and Pearson (1995) collected their data and revealed different characteristics in the native and non-native speakers’ speech productions. Their findings showed that the non-native speakers would use the skills of “appeal for assistance,” “appreciation,” “literal translation,” and “self-repair” in communication strategies, but the native speakers would not. On the other hand, the native speakers used more skills of “repetition,” “clarification,” “confirmation,” and “language switch” in communication strategies than non-native speakers did. Stewart and Pearson (1995) concluded in this study that “results suggest that certain types of communication strategies can be a valuable aid to communication.” (p. 17)

Dornyei (1995) managed a quantitative-empirical study in Hungary, which was based on the issue of the “teachability” of communication strategies. In this study, six teachers taught six strategies to 53 participants for six weeks. Meanwhile, a control group of 56 participants were taught with a regular EFL curriculum by another two teachers. Before and after training, the researchers collected data through oral activities of topic description, cartoon description, and definition formulation and writing activities of the Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC) and integrative writing. Through tape-recording and transcribing, the subjects’ speech rate and strategy applying frequency were measured with the Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) statistical method. The finding of this study revealed that, “In the treatment group, the post-training results showed improvement in measures related to both the quality and quantity of strategy use.” (p. 79) Also, “the students found the strategies in the training useful, especially circumlocution, and their general attitude
toward the training was very favorable.” (p. 79) At the end of this study, Dornyei (1995) provided six suggestions how the communication strategies should be taught. Dornyei’s (1995) suggestions of teachability were as follows:

Raising learners’ awareness about the nature and communicative potential of communications strategies, encouraging students to be willing to take risks and use communication strategies, providing second language models of the use of certain communication strategies, highlighting cross-cultural differences in communication strategy use, teaching communication strategies directly by presenting linguistic devices to verbalize them, and providing opportunities for practice in strategy use (p. 80).

Kocoglu (1997) directed a study for investigating if there would be any similarity and difference between male and female Turkish EFL learners in the use of communication strategies. In this study, Kocoglu paired 10 Turkish learners with 10 English native speakers to form 20 EFL conversations, based on the usages of communication strategies. Through audio-taping and transcribing, Kocoglu (1997) concluded that “All Turkish EFL students used more communications strategies with female rather than male native speakers of English because the former were more cooperative and more encouraging in conversation then the latter.” (p. 4)

Yoshida-Morise (1998) cooperated with 12 Japanese adult English learners in universities and colleges, and conducted a quantitative-empirical method for counting the applying frequency among different levels of learners. Different from Poulisse’s and Rababah’s findings, Yoshida-Morise’s (1998) results indicated that the greatest difference between the “three higher levels” and “low level” proficiency subjects used were that the higher level subjects used more strategies than the lower
level subjects in order to compensate for their insufficient second language knowledge. According to Yoshida-Morise (1998), the frequency order of strategy application was as follows: Level 1 second language learners use them for 54%, Level 2 second language learners use them for 28%, Level 3 second language learners use them for 27%, and Level 4 second language learners use them for 29%.

Iranian scholars of communication strategies, Ansarin and Syal (2000) conducted important quantitative-empirical study in a University of Iran, which applied statistical method to count the strategy applying frequency in an interview after training. In this study, they discovered that Iranian language learners tended to use more conceptual analysis strategies; on the other hand, they used less cooperation strategy. In this study, Ansarin and Syal implied that the story telling tasks were quite suitable for teaching communication strategies. Two tasks of the “picture-based story telling” and the “retell stories in English” were applied for training and interview processes (Ansarin & Syal, 2000, p. 74).

One year later, Margolis’ (2001) study which cooperated with 72 first year college students in Seoul, Korea identified compensation strategies that his subjects tended to utilize most and least. In addition, he investigated “the relationships between strategies and test scores, gender, and age.” (p. 173) Margolis’ findings showed that “female students had a tendency to guess incorrectly more than males, which may mean that they have a tendency to guess more than males…the older a person is, the more likely they were to employ the guessing strategy.” (p. 171) Furthermore, he revealed that “Participant in this study were found to most employ help seeking compensation strategies and to least employ a combination of strategies that included using circumlocution, coining words, and gesturing. ” (p. 173)
Later, Rababah conducted two studies in Jordan in 2002. One of the studies explored whether the communication strategies were helpful for Arabic English learners in a Jordan University. Through this study, Rababah (2002b) revealed that “The more the student is exposed to the target language, the faster and easier he/she will be able to assimilate the language.” (p. 20) His findings also noted that “even weak learners were good at transmitting a comprehensible and successful message” (Rababah, 2002b, p. 21). Rababah’s second empirical study that was conducted in Jordan displayed that the lower level proficiency learners applied more communication strategies than the higher level proficiency learners. In this study, Rababah (2002b) argued that, “Students should also be encouraged to take risks and to use communication strategies.” (p. 21)

Littlemore’s study, conducted in 2003 in France, included 82 French speaking, university-level learners of English. Littlemore (2003) analyzed the subjects’ speech productions before and after training from a linguistics perspective. Through a close examination of the transcripts of the recordings, this study led to the identification of four major types of communication strategies, including substitution strategies, substitution plus strategies, reconceptualization strategies, and functional reduction strategies. Littlemore (2003) concluded in this study that “reconceptualization strategies were likely to be the most effective in this experiment, and within this category, componential analysis was the most likely to guarantee successful communication.” (p. 12)

Theoretical Base/Conceptual Framework

The book titled, Strategies in Interlanguage Communication, edited by Faerch and Kasper (1983c) was a primary foundation of this study. In this book,
many scholars provided articles to support Faerch and Kasper’s categorization (e.g., Blum-Kulka & Levenston, 1983; Corder, 1983; Dechert, 1983; Raupach, 1983; Tarone, 1983; Tarone, Cohen & Dumas, 1983; Wagner, 1983). Faerch and Kasper (1983c) argued that non-native speakers should be conscious of the potential troubles in communication, and deliberate how to utilize communication strategies to reach a goal of expressing meanings with their limited linguistic competence. That is to say, the limited proficiency speakers had to estimate what sort of communicative goal they were able to accomplish by examining how sufficient their linguistic resources were accessible in mind. Faerch and Kasper (1983c) further stated that “learners should be made aware of the communicative problems they might encounter, and of the devices they can use in order to solve them.” (p. 32)

In this study, the selected taxonomy of Faerch and Kasper (1983c) was based on a perspective of human being’s reduction and achievement behaviors. They could be found in copious numbers of studies in the past (e.g., Bialystok, 1983; Chen, 1990; Corrales, 1989; Tarone, Frauenfelder & Selinker, 1976). Also, they were mentioned and emphasized repeatedly by more recent communication strategy scholars (e.g., Andrioti, 2005; Kocoglu, 1997; Rababah, 2002c).

According to Faerch and Kasper (1983), the reduction and achievement strategies offered functions of monitoring communication and simplifying the utterances for foreign language learners who were limited in their vocabulary and grammar application. The reduction strategies assisted learners to express meaning efficiently without lingering around a difficult topic or an arduous expression. Contrastingly, the achievement strategies assisted learners to apply the ideas of using interlanguage and try to achieve intended meanings in English communication.
Among nine strategies suggested by Faerch and Kasper (1983c) for altering and adjusting meanings, five of them were adopted as the research targets in this study. The three reduction strategies were topic avoidance, message abandonment, and meaning replacement strategies in the reduction set. The two achievement strategies were interlanguage-based, and cooperation strategies. This study provided explanations of the schemes within the five strategies.

First of all, in an article written by Tarone, Cohen, and Dumas for Faerch and Kasper’s *Strategies in Interlanguage Communication*, “topic avoidance” was described as: “the attempt to totally evade communication about topics which require the use of target language rules or forms which the learner does not yet know very well.” (Tarone, Cohen & Dumas, 1983, p. 10) Their statement recommends the speakers should move away from an interaction in which they had very little comprehension about the topics. That is, for achieving a purpose of effective communication, students needed to focus on a subject matter in which interlocutors were interested in and well acquainted in order to reduce the lexical or knowledge difficulties in communication.

In the reduction set, the second strategy, message abandonment strategy was explained by Tarone (1983), “The learners begin to talk about a concept but are unable to continue and stop in mid-utterance” (p. 63). In fact, this strategy advised that the learners should abandon their attempt to convey an intended expression if they judged that the intended meaning finally could not be expressed within their limited linguistic competence.

Additionally, the last strategy in the reduction set, the meaning replacement strategy, also could be termed as “semantic avoidance strategy,” (Faerch & Kasper,
which indicated that the learners should alter a difficult intended message some instead of totally abandoning expressing the message. Tarone, Cohen, and Dumas (1983) illustrated this strategy as “the learner evades the communication of content for which the appropriate target language rules and forms are not available, by talking about related concepts which may presuppose the desired content.” (p. 10) Yoshida-Morise (1998) explained the meaning replacement strategy as follows, “learners may reduce the scope of the message, resulting in rather general or vague meanings with the context.” (p. 209) Namely, the learners were suggested to apply the skills of replacing and borrowing meanings instead of totally giving up expressing the intended meaning to their interlocutors.

The second set, achievement strategies as well as compensatory strategies were discussed fully by Faerch and Kasper (1983c). They encouraged students to express their intended meaning concisely without abandoning their attempts of expressing it or leading to their intended meaning of a vague expression. The fourth strategy of this study was called the interlanguage-based strategy. In Faerch and Kasper’s definition, the interlanguage-based strategies involved skills of “generalization,” “paraphrase,” “word coinage,” and “restructuring.” (Faerch & Kasper, 1983c) The following are the explanations of these four interlanguage-based strategies.

First, “generalization” suggested a learner to use generalized interlanguage words, such as “animal” for rabbit, or “vegetable” for pea, as substituted items to convey the intended meaning. Second, “paraphrase” meant generating forms of descriptions, circumlocutions, and exemplification. For example, the learner should simply describe “interest” as some more money after saving it in a bank for a longer
time. Third, “word coinage” recommended non-native speakers to construct a totally new interlanguage word such as an “airball” for balloon or “the rounding of the stadium” for the curve of the stadium. Finally, the “restructuring” proposed, in the middle of interaction, that learners might remove their difficulty and limitation by trying to structure different plans for intended difficult meaning in order to ensure the comprehensibility of the listeners. In other words, learners might reconstruct some easier expressions to illustrate a complicated meaning without reducing the intended meanings.

The cooperation strategy was the last strategy adopted in this study. The cooperation strategy advised that learners use processes of giving hints, enlightening difficulties, or looking for assistance when encountering linguistic problems. These types of cooperative strategies were described by many scholars as “appealing strategy,” which meant that the speakers should signal to their interlocutors that they were experiencing a communicative problem, so they needed to try finding assistance instead of totally giving up an interaction (Corder, 1978; Tarone, Cohen & Dumas, 1983; Tarone, Frauenfelder & Selinker, 1976).

The reason why the other four strategies in the achievement set (code switching, interlingual transfer, inter/intralingual transfer, and non-linguistic strategies) were not adopted was because they did not fit Taiwanese non-native speakers’ characteristics. First, code switching to first language or a foreign language did not offer learning opportunities for students to learn more new words. Second, interlingual transferring applied a combination of linguistic features from the interlanguage and the first language might surprise or confuse the interlocutors who were not familiar with the speaker’s language and culture. Third, the
inter/intralingual transferring, the method of generating English speeches corresponding to the speakers’ first language structure, was not applicable for Taiwanese EFL speakers. Taiwanese speakers had restrictions in searching for similar rules and structures in English because Mandarin, Taiwanese, and Hakka (also spoken in Taiwan) were three languages from a Chinese origin, which were different from the Germanic, Greek, and Latin origins of English. inter/intralingual transferring strategy was more relevant to speakers whose languages belonged to the same origins as English. Finally, the nonlinguistic strategies used to support the verbal strategies could be applied less by Chinese people because of their Chinese conservative and introverted personalities.

In a word, code switching and interlingual transferring would make the speeches generated too foreign and non-native like. The language created might surprise or confuse the intercultural interlocutors from different language backgrounds. inter/intralingual transferring was not applicable for Chinese speakers whose languages had very little common spellings and structures like English. Additionally, the nonlinguistic strategies were not introduced to students because the researchers assumed that the Taiwanese learners might not apply them. Taiwanese English speakers might not feel accustomed to using body language during talking. In a word, the five adopted communication strategies were selected according to Taiwanese students’ language backgrounds and cultural characteristics.
CHAPTER III

METHODODOLOGY

Qualitative Study

This research study was conducted using a naturalistic inquiry to explore the perceptions of participants during their learning of five communication strategies. The pure qualitative research method was selected in this study for two reasons. One, it assisted the researcher in collecting accurate facts and testing the theory in a rigorous way (Glaser & Strauss, 1999). Two, this method would have less manipulation on subjects and a greater level of respect for them (Smith, 1983; 1986).

This study was conducted using various naturalistic inquiry methods. They were qualitative methods of open-ended questions (Carey, Morgan & Oxtoby, 1996; Patton, 1990; Schuman & Presser, 1996), case study (Denzin, 2001; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Patton, 1990, Stake, 1994), member check (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994; Holstein & Bubrium, 1995; Schwandt, 2001), video taping (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Richards, 2005), triangulation (Denzin, 1978a, 1978b; Schwandt, 2001), prolonged engagement (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994; Lincoln & Guba, 1985), law protection (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994), analytic procedures (Dey, 2004; Glasser & Strauss, 1999; Marshall & Rossman, 1999), thick description (Clifford, 1990; Denzin, 2001; Denzin & Lincoln, 1994), open coding (Dey, 2004; Glasser & Strauss, 1999; Strauss & Corbin, 1990), and constant comparison analysis (Dey, 2004; Glaser & Strauss, 1999). Furthermore, this chapter explicitly introduced significant qualitative issues of credibility, conformability, trustworthiness, confidentiality, data collection, data analysis, and reliability that were emphasized by various scholars of qualitative inquiry (Guba & Lincoln, 1981, 1989; Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Schwandt, 2001).
All of the qualitative methodologies presented in this chapter were for investigating the main research question: What are Taiwanese university students’ perceptions about learning five communication strategies?

Naturalistic Inquiry

This study was guided employing a naturalistic inquiry, which assisted the researcher in collecting data from broader perspectives of Taiwanese university English learners. According to Patton (1990), naturalistic inquiry made a study non-manipulative, unobtrusive, and non-controlling. Additionally, it allowed a study to save “openness to whatever emerges” (Patton, 1990, p. 40). No matter the themes discovered is related to the previous study or not, all the concepts revealed would be valued. Therefore, researchers using qualitative study would be able to neutrally and accurately reveal students’ perceptions of learning.

A proponent of the naturalistic inquiry, Denzin (1971) argued that “the naturalistic inquirer resists using methods that oversimplify the complexity of everyday life.” (p. 101) Also, qualitative researchers deployed a wide range of interconnected methods, hoping always to get a better fix on the subject matter at hand (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994). Hence, in order to explore more related issues of communication strategies that had been discussed, or had not been discussed; naturalistic inquiry was used in this study. The naturalistic inquiry would make this study approach the multiple realities of the learners’ perceptions because it was “necessarily open-ended and emergent, tied to and deriving from specific pieces of what has been seen, heard, and recorded.” (Emerson, 2004, p. 458)

The Rationalistic Design

In order to provide the most valuable report to the administrators or policy
makers of the curriculum design at Taiwanese universities, this study was conducted through a qualitative inquiry, as well as a naturalistic paradigm. According to Denzin and Lincoln (1994),

Qualitative research, by the nature of it being longitudinal, done in naturalistic settings, and focused on the constructions of meaning developed by participants, is in a unique position from which to assess the possibility of tools having the impacts intended by policy makers (p. 555).

That is to say that the unexplored issues developed by the participants through a neutral stance are what the researchers should try to discover. Through qualitative methods, the different issues from previous reports could be found conceivably, which were data in which the policy makers might be interested. The research would be worthwhile because the multiple realities could be elicited from the participants.

Accordingly, in the naturalistic inquiry, when the research purpose is exploration, investigation, or trying to understand and reveal the experience of the subjects, the analyst must use an analytic method that keeps the study more open and intimate with any text that the subjects offer. Therefore, through using various qualitative methodologies, the researchers in this study were able to discover multiple issues, which were closer to the students’ real perceptions objectively. The reason was that the details participants offered in each issue of communication strategies would not be exactly the same as ones discussed by the previous scholars of this field. The qualitative data collected in this study became highly valued contributions, which would be needed by the administrators and the policy makers of the curriculum at school.
Research Setting

University Levels in Taiwan

Three levels of quality exist in the Taiwanese university system. They are advanced-level universities (national universities), middle-level universities (private universities and universities of technology), and basic-level universities (universities of technology). The participants in the interviews in this study were 7 volunteers selected from 24 freshmen participants in a Freshman English Non-Major (FENM) class of a middle-level private university, Tunghai University.

History of Tunghai University

Tunghai University is a Christian school where about 15,700 students studied in Taichung, Taiwan. The private founders of Tunghai were Dr. William P. Fenn, Dr. Thomas W. Graham, and Mr. Richard Nixon from the United States. Hence, since Tunghai University was established in 1955, the students were guided to pay more attention to their study of English.

Currently, the president of Tunghai University is Dr. Chen Haydn, who encourages the students not only to take the required three-credit course for two semesters in the FENM program, according to the Taiwanese government’s University English Education Policy (Government Information Office, ROC, 2005), but also to take one or two Non-Major Elective English courses of two credits to establish their English proficiency during their four years of study as undergraduate students. For students of six colleges and 30 academic departments in Tunghai, more than 10 Non-Major Elective English courses were administrated for students by Dr. James Sims, who is the current chair of the Department of Foreign Language and Literature.
The significance of Tunghai University is its Luce Memorial Chapel (designed by noted architect Dr. Ieoh Ming Pei), and its ranch inside the campus. The motto of this Christian University is, “Truth, Faith, and Deeds.”

Participants’ English Level in Tunghai

In Tunghai University, the freshmen are divided into advanced, intermediate, and beginning proficiency levels of English learners, which are screened by the placement test when entering the university. The beginning-level students in a class of the Agriculture College were chosen as samples for this study. The reason why the beginning level was chosen was because the beginning-level class would best reflect the average level of all adult EFL learners in Taiwan. Another reason was that when comparing them with the other advanced-level and intermediate-level students in the same school, the communication strategies were more necessary and important for the beginning-level students. According to Rababah (2002b), the lower linguistic proficiency that the learners had, the more communication strategies they needed to use.

FENM Program in Tunghai, Required Basic English Course in Universities of Taiwan

This class of participants was a required English course in the FENM program of the Department of Foreign Language and Literature, which was a required Basic English Course for six credits that each university student must take, according to the Taiwanese government’s policy in the Educational Department. In Tunghai, the Basic English Course in the second semester was a prerequisite class (from February to June 2006). For the second semester, the students were allowed to enroll for this class in the same FENM program only if they had passed the same
class in their first semester (from August, 2004 to January, 2005). In the class selected, 3 among 27 students failed their first semester. Therefore, they were not able to continue studying in the second semester. The number of the participants totaled 24 students. Most of them were students from the Agriculture College.

The FENM classroom setting was conducted in the Department of Foreign Language and Literature of Tunghai University in Taichung, the third biggest city of Taiwan. In this FENM program, besides the abilities of listening, speaking, reading, and writing, the teaching proportion of communicative competence in this program was 15%. The scores were evaluated based on a discussion activity in groups of five during the midterm and the final examination.

The training project was conducted three times a week, and the class meetings were conducted each Monday and Wednesday afternoon from 2:00 pm to 4:00 pm, and each Friday afternoon from 2:00 pm to 3:00 pm. Utilizing the time of the students’ communication and speaking/listening classes in the FENM course, the trainer spent 20 minutes on teaching the students how to use the strategies from the very beginning of each class. Simultaneously, the researchers sitting in the corner of the classroom observed the training process without interrupting the class proceedings. The training and the data collecting processes were made for 11 weeks, including 5 weeks of training in the first session, another 5 weeks of training in the second session, and two interviews each for seven volunteers (14 times of 90-minute interviews) for one week after 5 weeks and 10 weeks of training.

Sample Selection Criteria

Twenty-four participants who were trained, and a group of seven volunteers among them, who interviewed, met the following sample set of criteria:
1) Participants considered themselves as Taiwanese non-aboriginal speakers.

2) Participants used Taiwanese, Hakka, or Mandarin to communicate in daily life.

3) Participants agreed that they had learned English at least for 6 years in their junior high school and senior high school before entering Tunghai University.

4) Participants agreed to sign the consent form before cooperating with the trainer and the researchers to do the study of communication strategy in Spring 2006.

5) Participants’ ages were 18 years old or above.

6) Participants had passed the same required English basic course in Fall 2005. In Spring 2006, they continued to take the same three-credit English course.

7) Participants’ Chinese and native speaking teachers in high schools used both English and Mandarin to teach English.

*Seven Volunteers from Different Areas in Taiwan*

Among these 24 students who passed in the first semester and cooperated with this study in the second semester, four male and three female volunteers (N=7) were interviewed. These seven volunteers were from three different departments in the Agriculture College of Tunghai University. Three of them were from the Animal Science Department, three from the Food Science Department, and one from the Hospitality Management Department. These volunteers came from different districts, mainly from Yilan, Shinchu, Taichung, Changhua, and Tainan, in Taiwan, R. O. C.

*Individual’s English Learning Backgrounds*

1) Sung Ru Liu: Sung Ru started to learn English from her first year in
junior high school. If Sung Ru’s learning environment allows, she wishes to develop English in a native-like way in grammar and vocabulary. Regarding pronunciation, Sung Ru felt it was not as important. Her mother tongues spoken at home were mostly Taiwanese (60%) and some Mandarin (40%).

2) Cheng Chih Chen: Cheng Chih studied English in a language institution since he was a sixth-grader. Cheng Chih’s teacher taught him in both English (50%) and Mandarin (50%). Cheng Chih preferred to spend a longer time and build his English to be native-like, and he believed training himself to be fluent and understandable but non-native like was just for preparing for current examinations. Cheng Chih expected to develop standard English during his daily life within a longer term. His mother tongues at home were mostly Mandarin (80%) and some English (20%).

3) Jiun Sheng Chang: Jiun Sheng started to learn English since he was a junior high school student. After learning English for 8 years, Jiun Sheng felt that speaking English in a native-like mode was neither possible nor necessary. Instead, he felt it was more important to make his English comprehensible and fluent in a short time. Jiun Sheng’s mother tongues were mostly Mandarin (90%) and very little Taiwanese (10%). He seldom speaks English at home.

4) Jian Guo Huang: Jian Guo learned English since he was a first grade student. Jian Guo was taught by native speakers from Canada and was able simply to interact with foreign teachers. Jian Guo had read multitudinous storybooks in English since he was only six years old. He felt native-like was not as important as comprehensibility and fluency in communication.
His mother tongues were Taiwanese (50%) and Mandarin (50%). At home, Jian Guo sometimes interacts with his mother in English.

5) Tien Long Lee: Tien Long started to learn English when he was a fifth grade student. Tien Long was planning to develop his English to be more native-like although he knew it might cost him a decade to accomplish it. Although Mandarin was the primary language of education in Taiwan, Tien Long’s teacher in primary school in Tainan (a city in south Taiwan) sometimes taught him different subjects in Taiwanese. Tien Long said it was because Taiwanese was spoken as a dominant language in Taiwan, the city where he grew up. Tien Long’s mother tongue mainly was Taiwanese (99%) and he spoke almost no Mandarin (1%) at home.

6) Ling Mei Fang: Ling Mei started to learn English since she was 14 years old, the first year she entered junior high school. Ling Mei expected that she could have a chance to develop her English in a comprehensible way instead of spending a long time for building it to be very native-like. Ling Mei anticipates working in a foreign company after she graduates from the university in order to be independent economically. Ling Mei’s motivations for studying English were for working and traveling. Ling Mei’s mother tongues were Mandarin (50%) and Taiwanese (50%).

7) Pei Pei Hu: Pei started to learn English when she was a fifth grade pupil. Some of her English teachers were graduates from schools in the United States. Pei Pei expected her English to be fluent and comprehensible. Native-like English was not Pei Pei’s goal of studying. Pei Pei’s mother tongues are Mandarin (70%) and Taiwanese (30%).
Instruments

Prior Training

On the first day of training, the researchers explained to the 24 participants that the study of communication strategies might offer them the following advantages:

1) An opportunity to interact and communicate in English understandably with limited linguistic proficiency obtained in high school.

2) A set of free learning materials, including a Digital videodisc (DVD) and a notebook containing a series of conversation topics for introducing the skills of communication strategies, would be distributed to them for practicing English communication in class.

3) The communication strategies might help the subjects make their decisions to learn communication. This study would make them consider in what way they should develop their communication proficiency in the future.

4) The daily-life topics provided and the training of communication strategies should be practical, interesting, and motivational for learning English conversation and improving communicative competence.

Criteria of Five Communication Strategies Based on Faerch and Kasper’s Taxonomy

For achieving criterion consistency, only two sets of five communication strategies in Faerch and Kasper’s classification (1983c) had been applied as a standard classification when the researchers trained the students, coded students’ dialogues, and interviewed the students. Among many taxonomies of communication strategies, only two sets of reduction and achievement strategies in Faerch and Kasper’s classification (1983c) had been used consistently as a criterion of
communication strategies in the illustrating and interviewing processes for attaining a high content validity. In other words, only five in nine strategies in Faerch and Kasper’s taxonomy (1983c) were focused as the research targets when the researchers trained and interviewed the participants.

*Instruments of Training Materials*

A notebook of sufficient discussion topics and a DVD containing illustrations for techniques in the selected five communication strategies and examples of dialogues, created for introducing this classification, had been provided to participants before training. The training material containing explanations for the usages in communication strategies and the examples of dialogues demonstrating the skills in communication strategies both were designed according to Faerch and Kasper’s (1983c) theory. The techniques in five communication strategies introduced in the learning materials were explained from Faerch and Kasper’s (1983c) achievement and reduction perspectives. The examples of dialogues in five communication strategies had been adopted either from Faerch and Kasper’s (1983c) article in their book, *Strategies in Interlanguage Communication*, or from journals of communication strategy supporting Faerch and Kasper’s criterion (Ansarin & Syal, 2000; Bialystok, 1983, 1990; Chen, 1990; Corder, 1983; Corrales, 1989; Dornyei & Scott, 1997; Kocoglu, 1997; Ogane, 1998; Rababah, 2002c; Yoshida-Morise, 1998).

The daily-life topics in the notebooks had been provided to the participants to practice their skills in five communication strategies in class discussion activities. They are topics from a website called Conversation questions for the ESL/EFL classroom (1997-2005), which provide topics such as “charity,” “what if,” “love, dating and marriage,” “crime,” and “health.” Using daily-life topics to interact was a
conventionalized method recommended by Rababah (2002). All of the discussion topics for practicing using the five communication strategies were everyday life topics downloaded from an English conversation learning website (The Internet Journal, 2005).

*Instruments of Interviews*

The instruments of interviews in this study were open-ended questions and a video camera. That is, the method of videotaping interviews through open-ended questions was applied in this study. A list of open-ended questions focusing on the Taiwanese university learners’ perceptions of learning five communication strategies in Faerch and Kasper’s (1983c) taxonomy had been used in the videotaped interviews. The broad questions were more credible for eliciting the students’ perceptions because they would not mislead the students’ statements of perceptions but made the learners formulate their reflections of learning on their own (Schuman & Presser, 1996).

Second, the video camera was used in order to make the data trustworthy and reliable. Videotaping as an interview instrument made the data conformability checkable by the fieldworkers (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). The reason it would be checkable was that not a detail would be lost if the whole interview process was taped. In other words, the interview questions were more flexible, so that seven students’ perceptions in multi-patterns could be elicited more naturalistically. Besides, the videotaped data would be trustworthy because the field-workers would be able to access the data and check the conformability between the collected qualitative data in the tape and the written findings in the report whenever the researchers needed to do this.
Data Collection

Procedures

1) Researchers designed the learning materials of strategy learning, selected communicative topics, and made DVDs (training material) with Camtasia and Power Point software to be used in the 10 weeks of training.

2) The university teacher had been trained to use the skills in five communication strategies. During the training, the notebook, journals, textbooks, and DVD with the lectures and examples of strategy application had been used.

3) The university teacher trained his students to use skills in five strategies for five hours in the first five training weeks. Each week, students learned one strategy in three meetings of 20 minutes. Students had finished learning all of the five communication strategies in the first five weeks.

4) At the end of week five, seven students had been asked to do the face-to-face videotaped interview and talk about their feelings.

5) The member check was conducted for the first time during the second session of training.

6) The students began reviewing the five learned communication strategies for another five weeks of training in the second session.

7) At the end of 10 weeks of training, the researcher had interviewed the seven volunteers again using the same approaches.

8) The collected data from 14 interviews of 90 minutes were transferred onto DVDs.

9) The 21 hours of data in 14 DVDs were transcribed, coded, and analyzed.
as the finding results.

10) The member checks were conducted, for the second time and the third time, three months and four months after the second interview.

*Interview in an Honest Atmosphere*

The data were collected in an isolated conversation coffee room provided by the Department of Foreign Language and Literature at Tunghai University. Through cooperating with 7 volunteers from different departments in the Agriculture College, the researcher purposed to conceptualize the 7 Taiwanese university EFL learners’ perceptions in learning. In order to retrieve the students’ honest answers, the trainer and the researchers helped the students to learn strategies in a free and relaxing atmosphere, where the students were not forced or encouraged to use the strategies. Also, in the interviews, the students were allowed to give any types of comments on the learned skills instead of always giving positive feedbacks.

*Ninety-Minute Interviews after 5 and 10 Weeks of Training*

The researcher anticipated that the seven learners would recall and express their experiences of learning. According to Lincoln & Guba (1985), the goal of the qualitative data collection was to gain information from the populations regarding the research questions while applying them to the potential research issues under consideration. Therefore, in the interviews, the researcher listened to the students’ statements that were concerned or unconcerned in the previous studies of communication strategies. In other words, this study investigated whether the students’ statements contained potential research issues that rarely had been perceived in the communication strategy field.

In this study, each interview lasted for 90 minutes. According to Seidman
(1985), 90 minutes was the most appropriate length of an interview: “Given that the purpose of this approach is to have the participants reconstruct their experience, put it in the context of their lives, and reflect on its meaning, anything shorter than 90 minutes for each interview seems too short” (Seidman, 1985, p. 13). That is, in 90 minutes, the individuals would have sufficient time to reminisce and share their feedback on learning communication strategies in front of a video camera with better structured statements.

**Data Analysis**

Qualitative data analysis is an iterative and identifying procedure that begins during the conceptualization of the research and proceeds through interpretation and theme developing of the results. In this qualitative study, the collected video-recorded data on 14 DVDs were transcribed word by word, interpreted through theoretical triangulations, and conceptualized using a series of qualitative analysis methods.

Based on Marshall and Rossman’s (1999) suggestion of handling qualitative data, the collected data of this study were administered in the scientific procedures of qualitative inquiry. In this study, Denzin and Lincoln (1994, 1998), Strauss and Corbin (1990), and Glaser and Strauss’ (1999) analytical methods were employed to analyze the data, which were the qualitative methods of thick description, open-coding, and contrast-comparison analysis with scientific analytic procedures.

**Analytic Procedures**

According to Marshall and Rossman (1999), “typical analytic procedures fall into six phases: (a) organizing the data; (b) generating categories, themes, and patterns; (c) coding the data; (d) testing the emergent understandings; (e) searching for alternative explanations; and (f) writing the report.” (p. 152)
After collecting the abundant data, the data seemed to be overwhelming and hard to organize and interpret. However, after the processes of transcribing the collected video data into words, grouping the similar concepts of feelings into the same categories, and reconfirming the findings with students, the reports for the students’ feelings were written in a method of constant comparison provided by Dey (2004), and Glasser and Strauss (1999). In this study, the qualitative data obtained through a video camera had been categorized in a cooperative attitude with the participants. The seven Taiwanese university EFL learners’ perceptions were described thickly, reconfirmed, compared and reported.

**Thick Description**

The collected statements of students’ feelings had been transcribed and presented through the method of thick description. The thick descriptions for 7 individuals allowed readers access to the Taiwanese university EFL learners’ feelings through “a realistic and naturalistic form of performative writing” (Denzin, 2001, p. 100). With sufficient details, “thick descriptions capture and record the voices of lived experience.” (Denzin, 2001, p. 99)

According to Denzin and Lincoln (1998), “Thick descriptions and inscriptions create thick interpretations. Thick interpretations interpret thick descriptions, in terms of the local theories that are structuring people’s experiences” (p. 326). Hence, through thick description and thick interpretation, the researcher of this study was able to face the abundance of collected data and prevail against the challenges caused by the complex stories about the student’s learning experience.

After the perceptions expressed had been described thickly, but not conceptualized in a hurry, several themes started to emerge from the transcription
that was described thickly and interpreted. As Clifford (1990) argued, the thick description provided a body of knowledge prefigured for theoretical development. Also, Denzin and Lincoln (1994) affirmed that the thick description emphasized more in description than conceptualization, and it determined whether the different examples in data were relevant to each other. This was the reason why this study could provide accurate concepts and themes defined from the complex data collected from the interview.

*Open Coding*

Open coding was a significant qualitative strategy recommended by Glaser and Strauss (1999). It suggested that the content of the interview should be coded word by word and the text in transcription should be read line by line and interpreted ad hoc. The reason why this study used the analysis method of open coding was because open coding was related to the truth that we were doing our best to pay attention to the participants’ views.

Strauss and Corbin (1990) argued, “Open coding is the process of breaking down, examining, comparing, conceptualizing and categorizing data” (p. 61). Also, Dey (2004) emphasized in the open-coding process, “the analyst must come to open coding without preconceptions, but not entirely without ideas” (p. 85). Specifically, open coding suggested researchers should be familiar with previous theories, find out participants’ similar and different perceptions, and not ignore any details provided by participants. Therefore, the method of open coding meant that everything offered by the respondents was valuable, and each marginal issue and phenomenon provided by the participants should not be ignored at all. That is, trivial information expressed by an individual had to be coded and discussed deeply and extensively.
Hence, in this study, each word the students uttered in the interview was a single datum that the researcher would not omit. In order to make the coding process not driven by the literature review, all the concepts expressed by students were coded and interpreted thoroughly. Indeed, the open-coding method enabled the researcher to formulate the students’ descriptions into several themes, which were not exactly the same as the previous contributions in the communication strategy field.

In this study, the disordered statements and points in the videotape were transcribed totally and open-coded. Students on purpose did not group their words associated with their perceptions in several specific categories of themes. However, through the method of open-coding, the researcher was able to gather students’ similar beliefs and categorize them into themes, including similar themes or different themes from the previous contributions of this field. That is to say, although the themes concluded from students’ unprofessional perspectives obviously or unobviously might be related to the conventional theme, with the method of open-coding, several conventional and updated new themes from the seven participants’ various statements could emerge, and be framed and defined.

*Constant Comparison Analysis*

The method of comparing and contrasting coding was used in this study. Constant comparison coding was supported by Dey (2004): “Comparison is the engine through which we can generate insights, by identifying patterns of similarity or differences within the data.” (p. 88) Accordingly, this process assisted the researcher in exploring the similar themes generated from seven students’ perceptions. It also assisted the researcher easily to distinguish whether the issues in previous studies also were mentioned by many participants.
The constant-comparison coding method proposed by Glaser and Strauss (1999) required that each unit of data be compared to the former units, in order to determine if it resembled any other data or if it was different from former units.

According to Glaser and Strauss (1999): “We shall describe in four stages the constant comparative method: (1) comparing incidents applicable to each category, (2) integrating categories and their properties, (3) delimiting the theory, and (4) writing the theory” (p. 105). In the process of data analysis of this study, the constant-comparison coding assisted the researcher to classify students’ similar experience into several categories, to make some related theoretical sense of each comparison, to develop theories and to conclude the data into several themes as findings. The similar conventional issues repeated by participants were used to expand the previous themes of communications strategies. On the other hand, the whole new issues discussed by students not only could be reported as the significant findings for curriculum designers, but also could be regarded as updated discussion topics for the fieldworkers or valuable reports to the administrators in schools.

**Credibility**

Credibility is a significant issue in qualitative study. Many scholars emphasized its importance. For example, Guba and Lincoln (1989) defined credibility as an important way of ensuring quality of data in qualitative evaluations. Also, Schwandt (2001) argued that “Credibility addressed the issue of the inquirer providing assurances of the fit between respondents’ views of their life ways and the inquirers’ reconstruction and representation of same.” (p. 164) For establishing credibility in the qualitative design of this study, open-ended questions and case study were employed.
Open-ended Questions

In order to attain a high credibility, this study applied open-ended questions. Schuman and Presser (1996) mentioned the advantage of “open-end questions”: “the superiority of open questions is inherent in the form, and cannot be provided through any pre-coded set of alternatives.” (p. 81) Additionally, “Open-ended questions can also yield useful information, especially when researchers need to explore complex issues that do not have a finite or predetermined set of responses.” (Carey, Morgan & Oxtoby, 1996, p. 1) Therefore, five broad questions in this study were designed to investigate the researched phenomena from the learners’ eyes, but not from the researchers’ and teachers’ professional views.

Patton (1990) also argued that simpler open-ended questions elicited the participants’ feelings, thoughts and experiences:

Indeed, in qualitative inquiry, one of the things the evaluator is trying to determine is what dimensions, themes, and images/words people use among themselves to describe their feelings, thoughts, and experiences. For example, then, of truly open-ended questions would take the following format: How do you feel about the program? (p. 296).

Accordingly, five open-ended questions were designed for this study to draw forth multiple dimensions of responses. These open-ended questions were in a similar uncomplicated format, such as, “What do you perceive in learning the communication strategy?”

Based on Patton’s (1990) theory, “The truly open-ended question permits persons being interviewed to take whatever direction and use whatever words they want in order to represent what they have to say.” (p. 297) Consequently, this study
used open-ended questions because they would not presume or presuppose any perceptions or thoughts to be misled by the interviewee. On the contrary, they would provide this study with accurate and multi-perspective data from the participants’ viewpoints.

Case Study

Seven volunteers among 24 participants cooperated with the researchers to do the case study. Case study was the best method for revealing the students’ perceptions with high credibility, as well as “integrity, validity and accuracy,” (Patton, 1990, p. 49) because it “…allows an investigation to retain the holistic and meaningful characteristics of real-life events.” (Yin, 1989, p. 14) Seven individuals were interviewed twice by the researcher individually for 90 minutes. From seven volunteers’ role of learners and their unprofessional and natural perspectives, the researcher was able to assess their perceptions from their broader views.

Case study made clear “the complexities of the context and the ways these interact to form whatever it is that the case report portrays” (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 214). Therefore, the researcher could perceive different issues that were from learners’ multiple perspectives. On the other hand, case study clarified the students’ feelings of learning 5 communication strategies vividly, and “it is the function of the case study, with its thick description, to provide that essential judgmental information about the studied context.” (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 217) That is to say, a case study could be displayed through the form of “thick description,” and “thick description creates verisimilitude - that is, the realistic description produces for readers the feelings that they have experienced, or could experience, the events being described.” (Denzin, 2001, p. 100)
For increasing the credibility, this study utilized the case study to cover sufficient issues from the participants’ deeper and broader aspects because case study meant “a snapshot of reality,” a “slice of life,” or “an episode” (Guba & Lincoln, 1981, pp. 307-371) in students’ diverse learning experiences. It helped the researchers of this study to organize the particular themes emerging from seven individuals’ responses because the purpose of the case study was “to gather comprehensive, systematic, and in-depth information about each case of interest” (Patton, 1990, p. 384). It provided the function of describing the individuals’ perceptions thoroughly so it could display the similarities and differences existing among different individuals with adequate details. Through various methods in case study, including multiple investigators, interview and data transcribing, this study maximized its credibility for this research because the individuals would not be misguided or coerced into expressing their perceptions within a uniform design. Stake (1994) noted:

Individual cases in the collection may or may not be known in advance to manifest the common characteristic. They are chosen because it is believed that understanding them will lead to better understanding, perhaps better theorizing, about a still larger collection of cases (p. 237).

Hence, the researcher cooperated with individuals to reveal more issues that might be different from the previous studies in the field of communication strategies.

Member Check

Schwandt (2001) defined “member check” as a type of respondent validation, a process for soliciting feedback from respondents on the inquirer’s findings. According to Denzin and Lincoln (1994), member check established the credibility in
qualitative inquiry. “The researcher needs to find a way to allow for the participants to review the material one way or another.” (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994, p. 216) Therefore, this study conducted the member check by emailing the coded English transcriptions to the seven respondents. Then, by telephone, the 7 respondents offered their feedback on reading the interpretations in the coded English transcriptions.

In this study, the member check processes were conducted twice. The first time, the member check was conducted between the first interview at the end of 5 weeks training and the second interview at the end of 10 weeks training. The first member check was for ensuring the accuracy of the coded transcriptions of the first interview. The seven respondents checked the coded data from the first interview and expanded their previous specific perceptions with more details, which they would express in the second interview. Holstein and Bubrium (1995) emphasized that the second round of interviews could be significant because it offered the respondents an opportunity to recall what they said in earlier interviews, comment on their earlier responses, and consider their earlier opinions, attitudes, and beliefs in relation to what they now think and perceive. The first member check provided the seven individuals an opportunity not only to check the coded data, but also considered how they would respond in the second interview.

The second member check was concluded three months after the second interview. In Summer and Fall 2006, the researcher asked the seven individuals whether the coded results interpreted and concluded from the first interview and the second interview paralleled as their perceptions in Spring 2006, during the 10 weeks of training. The feedback given by the respondents three months after the last interview indicated that the researcher’s comprehension and interpretations for the
collected data were consistent as every individual case’s learning experiences.

Denzin and Lincoln (1994) argued that case study based on member check can be verifiable in its text of findings: “It is the researcher’s goal to contest multiple verisimilitudes, multiple versions of reality, and the perceived truths that structure these realities.” (p. 580) Therefore, this study conducted member checks twice in order to ensure that all the individuals’ multiple perspectives of communication strategies were interpreted and described verily in the findings.

Peer Debriefing

Peer debriefing offers a function of achieving a higher credibility in research (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). When the study is reviewed and reconfirmed by a peer, who is knowledgeable in the same professional field, the accuracy of the analysis and the conclusion of the study can be raised.

During the data collection and analysis stages of this study, 2 doctoral peers of the researcher in Texas A&M University’s Department of Teaching, Learning, and Culture assisted the researcher as peer debriefers. Both of these assistants’ interest and expertise were in the similar area of English as a Second Language Learning (ESL), and they had taught English for a long while. So, the researcher discussed with these two doctoral students from time to time, especially when doing the data coding and organizing the concepts interpreted. The concluded themes and recommendations for further research topics retrieved from the data were examined and reconfirmed three times.
Conformability

According to Schwandt (2001), “Conformability was concerned with establishing the fact that the data and interpretations of an inquiry were not merely figments of the inquirer’s imagination.” (p. 164) In order to establish conformability in this study, Camtasia and Power Point softwares for making training material for five communication strategies and videotaping were employed for collecting qualitative data while interviewing the students.

DVD Notebook

For providing conformable illustrations to training participants on the five communication strategies based on Faerch and Kasper’s (1983c) definitions in their taxonomy, 45 minutes of descriptions based on Faerch and Kasper’s (1983c) classification of communication strategies were displayed in a Digital Video Disk (DVD) notebook. Sufficient examples of five communication strategies and reviewable lectures consistent with Faerch and Kasper’s taxonomy of communication strategies were created through Camtasia and Power Point Software onto this DVD. The DVD notebook, as well as the training material, assisted the students to learn communication strategies after class. The parallel interpretation for communication strategies such as Faerch and Kasper’s two sets of reduction and achievement strategies were offered verbally and literally.

Videotaping

According to Richards (2005), “Qualitative researchers always record words and sometimes record images, sounds or other ways of portraying a situation” (p. 50). For attaining a high conformability, the method of videotaping was adopted in this study to collect the words, images, and sounds. Videotaping proved high consistency
among the participants’ responses, the collected data, and the research results. Lincoln and Guba (1985) identified “video recording” and “written field notes” were two of the best ways to ensure research conformability in qualitative data collecting methods because the videotaped raw data and the written findings could be preserved, reviewed, and examined by the field workers if any doubt in the findings was found. Additionally, through the process of videotaping, this study became authentic. The reason was that not a spoken word, facial expression, or body language could be ignored in videotapes.

The following two reasons explained why qualitative data collected this way were more conformable than the data collected by the other methods. When compared with an email interview, using a video recorder made students narrate their feelings without too much consideration, like when composing and writing answers through an email, which contributed to elicit students’ true feelings of communication strategies. When compared with the standardized survey interview, videotaping allowed the learners to convey their perceptions from various personal views and broader perspectives by responding freely rather than being limited within many uniform questions. When compared with the interview in public, the interview in a private room raised the accuracy of data. Because no other classmate was in the same room when students were interviewed, the students’ statements could not be misled or influenced. That is, everything they expressed would be consistent with what they considered. Therefore, through two interviews, the researchers intended to collect multi-patterns of students’ perceptions and displayed the qualitative data of students’ diverse views more completely and conformably with their real reflections for 5 learned communication strategies.
Trustworthiness

According to Lincoln and Guba (1985), “Trustworthiness consists of four components: credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability.” (p. 381) In order to demonstrate the trustworthiness in this qualitative study, this study was conducted through qualitative methods of triangulation and prolonged engagement.

Triangulation

Denzin (1978a, 1978b) mentioned that there were five types of triangulation: methodological triangulation, data triangulation, investigator triangulation, theoretical triangulation, and multiple triangulations. Through the triangulation methods of the case study, open-ended interview, videotaping and data transcribing, multiple investigators, and multiple theoretical perspectives, this study established its trustworthiness.

First, the transferability in this study was high because this study was conducted through case study, which was a type of methodological triangulation according to Denzin (1978a, 1978b), case studies typically are based on two or more methods of data collection…, whether the case study is descriptive, explanatory, or is concerned with rigorous tests of received ideas, the use of multiple sources of evidence and, very often, multiple investigators makes the case study one of the most powerful research designs.

As Tellis (1997) argued, case study was known as a triangulated research strategy. This study applied multiple qualitative methodologies in order to collect qualitative data, including five open-ended questions, videotaping, face-to-face interview, DVD transformation, data transcribing and coding. These methods enhanced the transferability for this study because the data, including the
verbal/non-verbal language, facial expression, and body languages, collected through video camera not only were completely transferred into images and sounds in DVD, but also were transcribed into a descriptive word form. By double-checking these two forms of data, the readers would be able to find high transferability in this study.

Second, this study established dependability because it was done through a series of methodological triangulations, including the multiple methods of open-ended interview, videotaping, and word transcribing. According to Schwandt (2001), “Dependability focused on the process of the inquiry and the inquirer’s responsibility for ensuring that the process was logical, traceable, and documented.” (p. 164) In this study, all the processes were based on a logical proposed agenda, the transformed interview DVD was accessible and traceable, and the word transcriptions coded from the interview were documented and reported appropriately. The image and paper types of data both were well preserved and could be accessed, according to the research agenda approved by Texas A & M University.

Third, confirmability was achieved because of data triangulation. The coded transcriptions were reviewed both by the trainer and the seven volunteers.

Confirmability was concerned with establishing the fact that the data and interpretations of an inquiry were not merely figments of the inquirer’s imagination. It called for linking assertions, findings, interpretations, and so on to the data themselves in readily discernible ways (Schwandt, 2001, p. 164).

Confirmability of this study was high through data triangulation. Data triangulation could be established through collecting data from different persons, or at different times or from different places (Miles & Huberman, 1994). After the
training process, the data were collected at 14 different times from different individuals. The researcher coded seven respondents’ answers and documented them into transcriptions, which were reviewed and inspected by both the trainer and the seven respondents. The interpretation of the seven volunteers’ feelings were reconfirmed, asserted, and clearly conceptualized as findings in a cooperative way.

The confirmability also could be tested through theoretical triangulation. According to Denzin (1970), theoretical triangulation referred to the use of more than one theoretical position in interpreting data. Denzin (1978a, 1978b) argued that theory triangulation was the use of multiple theoretical perspectives to interpret a single set of data. Therefore, the findings concluded from the interview all were examined through theories mentioned by previous scholars. Actually, a lot of themes conceptualized from the interview data were parallel to previous contributions in the communication strategy field. On the other hand, some themes concluded from the respondents’ statement, were seldom discussed by previous scholars of communication strategies.

*Prolonged Engagement*

According to Denzin and Lincoln (1994), credibility could be increased through prolonged field engagement. Hence, the researchers spent a long time to design this study, contact the trainer, engage the training project with the students, and code the data collected. This study was undertaken over the course of one and a half years. First, the trainer engaged with the training process for over one year before this study was conducted through the participants’ cooperation. Second, the students had learned the 5 communication strategies for 10 weeks during a semester in Taiwan. Third, the trainer and the students worked on the data coding for six
months after the training and interview processes had been completed.

Prolonged engagement allowed the participants’ perspectives to emerge, and the time to develop a greater understanding of the emit perspective (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). This prolonged study not only avoided research bias caused by the trainer and the students’ misunderstanding of 5 communication strategies, but it also contributed to long-term cooperation among the researcher, trainer, and respondents. During 11 weeks of training and interview, this study allowed the students’ feelings and feedback on five communication strategies to emerge. Also, the prolonged engagement of two 90-minute interviews provided students sufficient opportunities to recall what they had experienced in class, to manage what they would like to say and express their perceptions. After the students’ perceptions were conceptualized into themes from the coded data, the students and the researcher reconfirmed the findings through email and telephone for about six months to establish even higher credibility.

Confidentiality

Confidentiality is an important and necessary issue in interviews of qualitative inquiry. “People in interviews will tell you things they never intended to tell. Interviews can become confessions, particularly under the promise of confidentiality.” (Patton, 1990, p. 355) So, confidentiality was guaranteed to the volunteers by the trainer and the researchers before they were interviewed. Additionally, before the processes of training and interviewing, the participants were invited to read and sign an IRB (Institutional Review Board) consent form, which informed them how their privacy would be protected when cooperating with the researcher. To preserve the confidentiality, the face-to-face interview was conducted.
at the students’ after-class time, instead of in-class time. In examining the respondents’ data, the researcher assigned each student a mutually agreeable pseudonym (code name) as follows: Sung Ru, Cheng Chih, Jiun Sheng, Jian Guo, Tien Long, Ling Mei, and Pei Pei.

**IRB Consent Form**

Denzin and Lincoln (1994) elucidated that written documents and records needed to be well handled in order to ensure the participants’ confidentiality: “Researchers may often be able to get access to documents, whereas access to records may be restricted by laws regarding privacy, confidentiality and anonymity.” (p. 393) For the document confidentiality issue, this study was conducted under Texas A & M’s research procedure. Before the processes of training and interviewing, the students were requested to read and sign a consent form, in compliance with the research regulation of Texas A & M’s Institutional Review Board. All 24 participants had read and signed the consent form that explicitly addressed how their privacy would be preserved. In this consent form, students were notified where, by whom and how the videotape would be retained and destructed.

**Interview in Mother Tongue**

The seven respondents were invited to have a discussion in their native languages, whether in Taiwanese or in Mandarin. They also were allowed to speak in English if they could express their feelings well in English. In both rounds of interviews of this study, the students had been advised to converse freely in their mother tongues in order to express their perceptions more confidently and precisely. The researcher anticipated that the seven volunteers would present their perceptions precisely by using their mother tongues. The freedom and the confidentiality given to
the respondents assisted the researchers in disclosing more accurately how the respondents felt when learning the communication strategies, and how they valued the skills in the 5 communication strategies.

**Face-to-Face Interview in Privacy**

In order to ensure confidentiality, students had been asked to feel free to express their comments and feedback on learning and applying communication strategies through face-to-face interviews in an isolated coffee room provided by the Department of Language and Literature for teachers and students to practice English communication. In this conversation coffee room, a set of couches and a round table with a lamp and three chairs provided space where teachers and students interacted in English comfortably and privately. According to a questionnaire of 5 open-ended questions associated with students’ reactions while learning the communication strategies, students should feel more emancipated when giving opinions openly in privacy. In other words, through the face-to-face interview with individuals, the confidentiality of this study was increased because the students deeply expressed their feedback from the learning experiences and answered questions in an isolated room in a relaxing way.

**Assumptions of the Study**

1. The researcher assumed that the students detected the foreign-talk characteristics of the speech production generated through communication strategies and that the students had some comments on this kind of foreign-like language.

2. The students might perceive that the communication strategies were effective in raising their strategic competence, but the training might not be necessary due to
their various personal beliefs and attitudes.

Limitations of the Study

1. The data results might not echo the whole population of Taiwanese university EFL learners because this study had been conducted in only one class of freshmen, whose English levels were slightly higher than the average.

2. The data results reflected only students’ feelings of learning five communication strategies in Faerch and Kasper’s (1983c) taxonomy, which did not represent all the other important taxonomies in the field of communication strategies.

3. The participants might not be able to express their perceptions honestly.
CHAPTER IV
RESPONSE TO RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This study used a qualitative design to discover students’ perceptions and experiences about learning five communication strategies. Seven volunteers revealed their perceptions toward learning and using each communication strategy in 90-minute interviews after the 5th and 10th week of training. The results are presented in five sections in this chapter, according to five research questions for the five communication strategies. The general open-ended question is: What do you perceive in learning this strategy?

After 14 interviews of 90 minutes with seven volunteers, the in-depth discussions were coded and conceptualized into several significant themes associated with students' learning experiences and beliefs toward communication strategies. The students’ feedback collected from the interviews were comparison analyzed and were described with two to four points for each communication strategy. The findings of students' perceptions and attitudes were conceptualized and reported in this study, including several issues rarely discussed in previous studies that can contribute to the academic field of communication strategies and to school administrators who design the English communication courses.

Analysis of the Interview

Through two 90-minute interviews after the 5th week and 10th week of training, each volunteer described in detail his or her experiences of learning the communication strategies. The interview data collected in the videotapes were transformed, transcribed, coded, and interpreted to identify students’ perceptions toward various skills in five communication strategies. The analysis method applied
in this study was comparison analysis, although the long talk, which could not be completely displayed, could indicate some common traits in the 7 university students’ perceptions toward learning communication strategies. Briefly, the 7 students’ statements in interviews were videotaped, converted into a DVD format, coded, compared, and conceptualized into several themes. These themes were formulated in later sections.

In this study, five of Faerch and Kasper’s (1983c) communications strategies in reduction and achievement sets were taught to 24 students. Then, 7 volunteers among the 24 students were interviewed in order to examine their perceptions toward each communication strategy. After coding and analyzing the data collected by face-to-face interview with a video camera, the researcher concluded and displayed two or three themes associated with students’ perceptions of learning each communication strategy. These themes addressed students’ similar and diverse attitudes as well as their similar and different positions toward each communication strategy.

Research Question One

What Do Taiwanese University Students Perceive in Learning the Topic Avoidance Strategy?

The analysis significantly demonstrated that most of the students tended to feel that topic avoidance was an applicable strategy. However, they also asserted that “keeping silence” in this strategy was not appropriate. Therefore, they voiced that they preferred not to use it. All students (Sung Ru, Cheng Chih, Jiun Sheng, Jian Guo, Tien Long, Ling Mei, and Pei Pei) offered their suggestions on how to change the topic appropriately when changing topics was necessary. Also, some (Cheng Chih,
Jian Guo, Tien Long, Pei Pei) provided their opinions about how an appropriate topic could be selected to prevent changing topics all the time.

Sung Ru Liu

In Sung Ru’s first interview, she stated that she could not accept changing topics, but in the second interview, she changed her viewpoint. After practicing using this strategy for 10 weeks, she believed that topic avoidance might be inevitable when the communication became mind-numbing. In contrast, she also addressed that changing the topic outright might not be an effective way to make the communication thought-provoking. Therefore, she advised that the main topic should be upheld, but the detailed topics could be switched. Sung Ru changed her mind as noted below:

Changing topics after all was necessary for me. I felt it was a better idea if I did not change the main topic but just modified the topic to one that was related to the main topic. In class discussion, we were talking about “Love and Marriage.” My teacher guided us to talk about some love stories in the movie, love stories in fairy tales, love stories about online dating, or lyrics of love songs. We were told that we could change different types of love stories but remain in the primary topic of “Love and Marriage.” Therefore, I believed it would be a better way to change the topic, which did not confuse my interlocutors because of a sudden change in topics.

In the second interview, Sung Ru commented more about topic avoidance strategy. Also, she suggested that being patient was obligatory when encountering trouble in a
certain topic:

Topic avoidance was a useful strategy, but it could not be a permanent solution for solving listening difficulty in my English communication. It was not a good idea that I changed the ongoing topic too easily when I did not understand what my group member was talking about. I should unriddle my problem of listening obstruction by patience. When I kept silent, I should try to figure out what the others were talking about. More aggressively, I should inquire them to teach me about things I did not know instead of declining the topic directly.

Sung Ru focused on “keeping silent” and provided her aspect of opposing it in both interviews. She believed that “keeping silent” might cause misinterpretation or embarrassment during in-class communication, so she felt she would not exploit it too readily.

In my learning experience of communication strategy, I recognized that there were two functions in the strategy of topic avoidance in my English communication while practicing strategies in class. First, when talking in a group, I would use this strategy to pretend that I conceived what had been discussed. Second, in pair discussion, I would use this strategy to give hint that I was bored during communication. I would make my face very serious without smiling in order to make clear that I was not fond of the topics. I did not feel I would be able to hint to the others that I did not like the topic when
I just kept my silence in a group. I might be able to make a topic shift by keeping silent when I was in a paired discussion. In a group, my keeping silent without facial expression became a kind of pretending. I pretended to listen to the speaker, kept smiling, and looked at the speakers’ face. At the same time, I laughed when everybody was laughing.

Sung Ru echoed the relationship between her growing background and her concepts offered above. Sung Ru stated that she was very much influenced by one of her elementary school teachers, who encouraged her a lot. This art teacher provided her some good books to read when she was in fifth grade. Through the books, she learned to think for the others and love the others as think for and love ourselves. Therefore, she was embarrassed to force her classmates always to follow what she wanted to discuss.

Cheng Chih Chen

Cheng Chih reflected on his perceptions about the importance of the topic avoidance strategy. As with all the other respondents, he addressed that he did not deem that “keeping silent” was proper. He believed that there were two conveniences in topic avoidance, which were a more motivation-inspiring conversation and a longer interaction. Also, he considered that the right topic could be found according to the interlocutors’ backgrounds. In the first interview, Cheng Chih talked about the advantages of the topic avoidance strategy:

When chatting in class, changing topics was a useful strategy. The communication could be smoother and more provocative if we were able to
keep away from the wearisome topics. There were two advantages of this strategy. First, the chat would be more stimulating and smoother. Second, the chat could last longer. Changing topics was important because when the topic was wrong, the communication became ineffectual. It was like the speaker talked enthusiastically to you, but you felt beaten, confused or bored.

It was not right when the interlocutors’ emotions did not blend and integrate into the same concepts during communication. The speaker should not enjoy his own content and talking to him/herself while the listeners were made fatigued by unknown ideas. I believed that unequal communication became meaningless interaction. At this moment, the topic avoidance strategy should be used to bring the speaker and the listener into the equal status in communication.

In his first and second interview, Cheng Chih gave advice for how a right topic could be determined:

I believed that, according to your partners’ backgrounds of age, gender, profession, and interest, selecting a right topic was very important. I believed a communication sometimes was like a lecture; when the topic was interesting, the speaker was able to stimulate the audience’s motivation in listening. Therefore, a lecturer should consider the audience’s backgrounds and think of what his/her audience would like to hear. For example, a teacher’s and a doctor’s interests and knowledge could be very assorted. A
teacher might not be an expert in comprehending some medical terms that the doctor mentions. So, if a doctor would like to talk to a teacher, s/he should think of and talk about some topics, which are not related to his/her medical professions in order to talk without changing the initial topic.

Focusing on the issue of selecting an appropriate topic to discuss in communication, Cheng Chih gave many suggestions again in his second interview:

Selecting the right topic was important, which prevented this topic from being changed. I perceived that depended on gender difference and found the right topic that the interlocutors were interested in communicating was very important. If I talk to the males about some ball games of the National Basketball Association (NBA) or Wimbledon, they usually were attractable. Besides, if I talked to the females about the shopping mall and fashion, they could gossip more. Similarly, if I talked about music with different generations of people, I would consider their backgrounds and select a certain type of music they should like to discuss. For example, for young people, we could have a dialogue about the music types of “Rock and Roll” or “Hip Hop.” For elder people, we could converse about the music types of “Jazz.”

In class, we had talked about a topic of “Crime.” My female classmates seemed to disrelish talking about the horrible social events. Dissimilarly, my male classmates enjoyed commenting upon them and narrating some real stories they heard with a logical way.
Cheng Chih showed his disapproving attitude toward “keeping silence” in both of his interviews. In his first interview, he expressed “keeping silence” might not be the best skill in changing topics. He pointed out that “polite language” could help him to change a topic, and the pause in communication was a good time to alter a topic:

“Keeping silence” was a method that had shown “no respect” to the speaker. In class, it made my classmates’ mood down and made my group’s communication inactive. It was insolent if I just kept silence. If the topic needed to be changed, we should be very careful and polite when changing the topics. Some polite language such as, “Excuse me” and “I am sorry” were necessary. I believed that we had to change the communication topic in a “natural” way. We needed to observe and be aware of the pauses in a boring communication. Whenever there was a pause appearing in the middle of a boring communication, a new topic could be inserted into the intercourse, and the interlocutors might start communicating with a new topic naturally.

Cheng Chih stated he was inspired by his working experience in a restaurant where he worked as a part-time waiter. He learned to display the English menu to foreigners and Chinese menu to Taiwanese; he knew that when the menu was in the wrong languages or in wrong tastes of dishes, the customers always would ask him a lot of questions and delay the time of ordering. For the same reason, he believed he had to act according to his interlocutors’ backgrounds and select the right topic to interact.
Jiun Sheng Chang

Jiun Sheng revealed that he had learned how to deal with tough topics by directly showing his difficulty in topics he had not mastered. On the other hand, he opposed “keeping silence.” In his first interview, Jiun Sheng considered that learning topic avoidance was necessary:

Before I learned topic avoidance, I usually pretended that I understood what the interaction was about. After I was taught the “topic avoidance” strategy, I learned to tell my partners directly and honestly that I didn’t understand much about this subject matter.

Jiun Sheng, in his second interview, said he identified changing topics to be necessary, but he had to change the topic in a proper way. He provided a successful example how he had changed the focus:

Once in class, my classmate told me an insect bit her, which was about a topic I was not interested in. However, I did not change it immediately. I did not think that changing a boring topic too quickly was a friendly thing to do. So I responded to her with a similar topic related to insects. I told her my own story about how I wanted to seize a Japanese beetle. Finally, the topic about the insect had been changed into another whole new one not long after I told her my story. It seemed she realized that my similar story was merely a polite response to her boring topic.
Jiun Sheng, in his first interview, explained his reason why he believed “keeping silence” was not appropriate:

“Keeping silence” was impolite. When you did not catch what your partner was talking about, you at least had to respond with “Mmm…” or “Ohh….” Through the tone, hint, or manner of yours, your partner would be able to know that you like or dislike the topic. Not telling the others your attitude toward the ongoing topic was like when someone left you on the Microsoft Network (MSN) without saying goodbye. It was like you did not have any idea about what your partner was thinking or mad at. I believed that “no response” was a strategy that might spoil your relationship with your partners.

In the second interview, Jiun Sheng confirmed that he would not “keep silence”:

I would not “keep silence” during my communication because I was worried this would break my social relationship. “No verbal response” misled the speaker’s thought. He might think the listener was not a kind person, or he might guess he had offended the listeners. It was probable that the speakers might misunderstand that you did this on purpose in order to make him embarrassed.

If the others kept silence when I was talking, I detected it was like you “play the flute to a cow.” It was like you talk to yourself. Hence, I would request that my interlocutors would react to my talking without keeping silence.
Jiun Sheng told the researcher that politeness was emphasized in his family since he was very young. His parents educated him to see politeness as a scale of a gentleman. He perceived that being inactive in the classroom was not polite to his teacher and keeping silent during discussion activity was not polite to his classmates. He reflected to the researcher why he emphasized the importance of politeness. He was told by his parents that being polite is a foundation of talking. He argued “keeping silence” was not only impolite but also unenergetic.

Jian Guo Huang

Jian Guo reflected on his perceptions about his need to change a topic, and his reason not to use the method of “keeping silence” in both interviews. Besides, he believed selecting appropriate topics according to the interlocutors’ background was imperative. Also, he perceived he would not change topics because he believed that interacting regarding a difficult topic made him learn things from his partners. In Jian Guo’s first interview, he expressed his positive attitudes about topic avoidance:

Changing topics was necessary because everyone’s mind was like a castle that needed some space and freedom in thinking in a right topic they preferred to talk about. People should not force themselves to compromise on the others’ boring topics. When a communication had fallen into a boring situation, changing the topic should take place naturally.

In Jian Guo’s second interview, he conveyed again that changing topics was necessary for him. Besides, he suggested some of his principles in changing topics, which were similar to Sung Ru’s opinions.
About the topic avoidance strategy, it was a valuable strategy. However, it was important to find smaller topics within a big scope. I did not think it was a good idea to change the main topic totally. We should find the related topics and continue to talk, but not delete the topic and discover a whole new one. We should discuss with our interlocutors a certain topic thoroughly and finally tacitly agree that the topic should go to an end.

Jian Guo conveyed that selecting the right topics in the beginning was a way to prevent changing topics:

Selecting the right subjects to discuss was a good method because the topic would not be changed. For example, I was interested in a Canadian musician, Matthew Lien, who collected sounds of animals and natures in his album. If I talked about him with my friends from literature or art majors, they should be interested in talking with me. However, if I mentioned this topic to students from science majors, they would be less motivated in talking with me.

It was crucial to identify our partners’ backgrounds and experiences in order to select the fitting topics during communication. I felt much more secure when talking about the right topics and the right subjects. I knew the topic should not be modified, and it could be continued by my partners. Selecting a right topic in the very beginning became more appropriate than changing the topic in the middle of communication.
In both interviews, Jian Guo perceived that “keeping silent” did not convey his thought that he needed to change the topic. In his first interview, he said:

In class, the “keeping silent” did not pass the signal that I disfavored the topic or did not understand it. Therefore, I thought if I kept silent and did not confess my limitation or confusion caused from the wrong topic, no one was able to distinguish that I needed help. Then, I had no way to get any information. I could not “keep silence,” but I had to conquer the difficult situation. “Keeping silence” did not express my thought that I required to change the topic. Some people could be very sensitive and observe that I was soundless, but they might not judge that I did not have sufficient motivation to speak. It was not necessary that they discovered that I was requiring changing the topic when I kept silence.

I perceive that if we are not knowledgeable or interested in a proceeding topic, we have to notify our partners verbally, but not keep silent. It is not guaranteed that some people must cease talking, and then ask why his/her interlocutors are so quiet. In class, not too many people could realize s/he was talking to himself/herself. So, “keeping silence” did not obviously imply your intention of changing topics to those people whose alertness was lower.

Jian Guo explained to the researcher why he regarded the issue of politeness to be so important. His parents always requested him to respect the others, so he was
a polite child from when he was in elementary school. His educated and polite impressions led to his selection as a class leader by his teachers and classmates since he was very little. He therefore gained more opportunities to interact with his teachers, who could teach him how to interact with people more appropriately.

Tien Long Lee

Tien Long, in both interviews, provided reasons why he needed the “topic avoidance” strategy, but not the skill of “keeping silent.” He believed the topic avoidance strategy protected his privacy, but “keeping silent” could build an impolite impression. In Tien Long’s first interview, he expressed that topic avoidance made him free when he did not answer questions he believed were private:

Topic avoidance strategy helped me to respond to questions that I could not answer. This strategy was worthy of learning. I would like to use it very often. It protected me against talking in a wrong way, and against telling the others my secrets.

In class, I learned how to change topics and avoided some sensitive and private topics that might oppress me. Some topics like my grade at school or my salary at work were topics that I should avoid. I did not like the others to evaluate how good my grades were or compared to his/her own. It was quite private issue, which could be my secret. Therefore, when people asked me about my score, I used “topic avoidance” strategy and refused to answer.

Tien Long shared which types of topics should be regarded as private in his first
There were some other sensitive and private topics I would avoid in conversation. For example, if someone wanted to know my economic level, I would not continue this topic with him. Some people might think of borrowing money from you after they had known you were rich. Therefore, I did not like the others starting a topic about how much money I had or how good my grade was. I believed that topics about my salary, saving, and property were the most unwelcome topics. Anything related to money was a sensitive and private topic. It was like a question of age for a female.

Tien Long told the researcher that instead of “keeping silent,” he would use some other skills to protect himself from private questions:

It was necessary that I used some knacks to avoid the topic when I detected it was sensitive. Besides “keeping silent,” I believed it was quite a good method that I asked the person the sensitive and private questions in the same way. Or, I responded with nonsense instead of responding to him honestly. I might not “keep silent,” but I would lead him to some other topics I felt were better.

Tien Long in his second interview talked about his reasons why “keeping silent” should not be used:

“Keeping silence” could build up an impolite impression for the others. It
seemed that we did not pay any attention to the others or ignore the others. In my learning experience, if my partner used this strategy toward me, I may misunderstand that he despised me while I was talking.

Ling Mei Fang

After 5 weeks training, Ling Mei expressed that she would not use topic avoidance. After 10 weeks training, she changed her mind a little bit, and conveyed that topic avoidance was a strategy that she had to learn. In both interviews, Ling Mei explained why “keeping silence” would be ineffectual. After 10 weeks training, Ling Mei had different perceptions toward the “topic avoidance” strategy:

Topic avoidance was usable even if it was not a perfect strategy. Some topics needed to be avoided in order to make the communication continue. My reasons were: some topics were too arduous to discuss and some topics related to your privacy were ones that you did not wish to continue.

Ling Mei pointed out that when using the topic avoidance strategy, politeness became a significant issue.

In the class, we could be allowed to use the strategy of topic avoidance to practice English conversation because it helped us keep talking and talking with our limited proficiency. However, we needed to be more polite when changing topics for our international interlocutors, especially in formal situations. In class, it should be okay if we did not say “Excuse me” or “I am sorry” to our classmates.
Just like all the other respondents, Ling Mei perceived that “keeping silent” was not constructive. Ling Mei conveyed that it was not a clear way to send hints to others; also, it caused misunderstanding in communication:

When someone was silent, I would wonder if s/he was angry or uncomfortable, or s/he did not like to talk. Also, using this strategy was “impolite,” especially when talking to foreigners. I perceived that when the topic was stopped and changed, people thought I was not a nice person who could compromise in choosing topic.

Therefore, I would not use this strategy often, except in a condition that “I had to.” So I perceived that it was very important to learn some sentences for notifying the others that the topic was going to be changed. I believed that when I needed to change a topic, I should say, “I might not like this topic,” or “I have a need to change this topic.” I believed that we had to be very careful and polite and make the other not feel offended.

Like Sung Ru and Jian Guo, Ling Mei also perceived that an inappropriate topic should be changed in a gradual way:

I suggest that when we apply the topic avoidance strategy, the topic should not be changed totally into a whole new one. We should only change the topic a little bit into a similar one instead of changing it into a different direction. Furthermore, I suggest not using “keeping silence” to change topics. It does
not signal the others about our bafflement of a difficult topic in an apparent way.

Ling Mei shared with the researcher in one of several member checks about her reasons why she needed to have a sense of politeness and morality during conversation with people. She said that she was very much affected by her family and relatives. She tried to have the same temperament of courtesy in talking as her parents, uncles, and aunts. She expected herself to be a cultivated lady who can talk in a mature and proper way. Ling Mei perceived “keeping silence” showed she did not care for the speaker. This sometimes made her lose face because people would think she was not knowledgeable in the ongoing topics.

Pei Pei Hu

Pei Pei reflected how the strategy of topic avoidance safeguarded her from answering personal questions. Besides, she argued that polite language had to be applied when suggesting the topic to be changed. Similarly, she said that “keeping silent” made her feel guilty when interacting with the others. In Pei Pei’s first interview, she agreed that topic avoidance was useful:

As to topic avoidance, it was useful. When I was not clear about what my interlocutor was talking about, I suggested changing the topics. After changing the topic, I was able to respond, and the talk could be continued.

Like Cheng Chih, Jian Guo, Tien Long, Pei Pei also believed that selecting the right topic according to the right individuals in advance was important:
“Selecting the right people and right topic to discuss” should be added as a method in the topic avoidance strategy. We should find the right people with similar backgrounds as ours to interact. Or we should discover the common interest among our interlocutors in order to maintain the conversation for a longer time. I had to avoid private topics and look for a topic that was practical and interesting.

Pei Pei in her first interview gave her explanations why she refused to use “keeping silent” in order to make the topic change:

When applying “no response,” I perceived that I felt guilty; I believed that I had to inform the others more obviously about my need and reason for changing topics. I should directly tell him/her that I was not attracted to the ongoing topic, or I did not know much about the topic. Just “keeping silent” did not pass the information that the topic was wrong. Additionally, I worried that I might offend my partners if I just “kept silence.”

Just as Ling Mei had, Pei Pei, in her second interview, pointed out that when changing the topic, politeness must be addressed:

It was essential that we engaged in a polite way when recommending the others to change topics. I believed that I should apologize for the need for changing a topic. This is like Japanese people, who like to say “Sumimasen”
(すみません = I am sorry.) whenever they want to suggest the others doing things.

In learning, saying “I am sorry” made me act more humbly and maturely when I needed to change the topic because it reduced my partners’ uncomfortableness, and created a more peaceful atmosphere for the sensitive moment in communication. I perceived that this way helped me gain sympathy from my interlocutors. They would not think that I were a rude person when I needed to change the ongoing topics.

In the second interview, Pei Pei underscored that she was taught to be polite during communication in class and out of class when she started her school in kindergarten. Her teachers and parents repeated the importance of being polite and told her that we should show concern for the others as ourselves. Pei Pei told the researcher that she believed that politeness should be a very important and fundamental issue in daily-life communication. Hence, in the interview, she emphasized that the politeness is a significant issue when applying the strategy of topic avoidance.
After analyzing, regarding the first strategy, topic avoidance, all of the seven respondents’ perceptions were quite similar. Every respondent expressed that the strategy of “changing topics” was useful and important. However, “keeping silent” was inappropriate in in-class communication. Also, it was especially inappropriate in a formal situation. Their reason was that it might create a pessimistic impression of impoliteness. The students believed that, among the methods in the “topic avoidance” strategy, learning of “changing topic” was essential, but also they would preclude using “keeping silent” in order to show a humble and polite attitude during English interlocution.

The data from both interviews concerning the strategy of topic avoidance led to the first finding noted in Figure 4.1. which showed that Taiwanese students...
deemed that it was necessary to learn how to change a topic, but at the same time, tended to emphasize the issues of respect and politeness in English communication. Although they regarded changing the topic to be required, they suggested not “keeping silent,” but using some other appropriate strategies. The strategies they created and suggested were, “talking politely,” “finding topics suitable to your partner’s background,” and “not entirely changing the main topic.”

**Research Question Two**

*What Do Taiwanese University Students Perceive in Learning the Message Abandonment Strategy?*

Students from the same class underscored the message abandonment strategy with three groups of different attitudes. Two students (Tien Long and Pei Pei) responded that it was better not to abandon a difficult word. They thought it was more positive that a student tried to explain a difficult word with the other strategies. Contrastingly, the other side (Sung Ru, Jiun Sheng, and Ling Mei) supported that the message abandonment strategy should be applied in communication with their various reasons. Among the seven respondents, two students (Jian Guo and Cheng Chih) held an ambiguous attitude toward the message abandonment strategy, and provided their suggestions for how this strategy should be used.

**Sung Ru Liu**

Sung Ru reflected on her attitude that supported the message abandonment strategy by reasons of freedom and saving face. Sung Ru perceived this strategy to be very useful in both of her interviews. In the first interview, she detected:

> Message abandonment was the strategy I used most often in class. I was
relaxing and free (extricating myself) when using It. I would not explain for the others when their English were in a lower proficiency. Usually, they did not think it was awful; they understood my situation. On the other hand, when my question was abandoned, I would think that the partner himself does not know a deeper meaning of the word that I asked them, so he did not know how to explain that word.

In the second interview, Sung Ru perceived:

As to the message abandonment strategy, it was helpful for my communication. In my learning experience of “abandoning message,” when I abandoned a word, it usually was easier to continue to talk well. I perceived freedom when I shrugged off a difficult word after I struggled to figure out how I should put in plain words for it.

It was not right to take unnecessary pains to figure out an insignificant or insoluble problem during an important communication. It wasted too much time for the others, and made the communication stop in the middle. As to message abandonment, it was advantageous for my communication. When I abandoned a word, I usually was able to continue to talk better.

Sung Ru addressed that the message abandonment strategy allowed her to save face when she was not able to clarify a simple word:
Abandonment strategy saved my face in class discussion because I did not have to describe a difficult meaning with my basic level English. Through using it, I did not worry that my partner might laugh at me, or why I was not able to express a very simple word when the word I explained to them turned out to be a very simple word for them.

Sung Ru talked about why she tended to use this strategy many times. It was because that she perceived the learning in the university was totally different from how she learned in elementary school and high schools. From elementary school to senior high school, Sung Ru could only sit in the class and listen to what teachers taught her. Differently, she was requested to talk about her own opinions and personal thoughts in class when she entered the university. The gap between senior school and the university was too big; therefore, she tended to use the message abandonment strategy in order to release her stress. Sung Ru believed she gradually would know how to talk better and not to use message abandonment too frequently.

Jiun Sheng Chang

In the first interview, Jiun Sheng did not talk much about message abandonment; while in the second interview, he expressed that message abandonment cast away blocks in his communication. Jiun Sheng said that this strategy saved time for him:

Whenever I came across a difficult word which I really thought was too difficult to express, abandonment strategy was unavoidable. I couldn’t let my whole communication be blocked just because of a single word I was not able
to express. Therefore, abandonment strategy was useful for me. My communication was more efficient and fluent if I skipped some challenging words.

Before I abandoned a word, there would be a “struggle process,” in which I was looking for some other ways to explain it. Finally, I couldn’t find a way to do it. So, I decided to abandon the message. My classmate noticed that I was nervous when I was struggling thinking how I should illustrate. After I abandoned the tough message, everyone in the same group of mine was much more relaxed.

Jiun Sheng talked about how the insufficient time for considering how to resort to the other strategy was a reason why the message abandonment strategy was used:

Once in a group discussion class, I observed that many of my classmates abandoned high-level words because our teacher, Douglas (trainer), did not give us sufficient time to discuss. My classmates were not able to figure out how to explain some difficult words because the time length was not long enough. At the moment that time was not enough, abandonment was supportive.

Jiun Sheng perceived that in the situation when the time was sufficient for resorting to the other strategies, he could not detect if the message abandonment had been applied by his classmates:
I couldn’t detect whether classmates employed abandonment strategy where the discussion time was longer. Maybe it was because they were very competent in using the other “achievement strategies” or they quickly and calmly decided to abandon the message. My classmates did not abandon difficult words again and again in a longer group chat.

After the interviews, Jiun Sheng told the researchers that he usually took 23 or 24 credits each semester. His time was as precious as money. Also, most of his classmates were very busy in studying and taking required courses as well. Therefore, Jiun Sheng believed that college students might use the message abandonment strategy often because they do not have sufficient time to explain a word.

Ling Mei Fang

Although, in the first interview, Ling Mei conveyed that using message abandonment was not unproblematic, in her second interview, she changed her mind and said that she should apply the message abandonment strategy. Ling Mei provided her opinion as to how this strategy should be applied after 10 weeks of training. In Ling Mei’s first interview, she said that she was not accustomed to the application of the message abandonment strategy:

I perceived “deny” and “reject” when abandoning messages. Not to make clear for the others built me an expression that I was not friendly. I didn’t like people to undergo being rejected. However, I also was free when using message abandonment. It made me get rid of my distress and predicament.
In Ling Mei’s second interview, she perceived that the message abandonment strategy was useful. She talked about how she made her decision to abandon certain words:

Message abandonment strategy was helpful. For some professional terms that I had not learned yet, I would decide very quickly to skip it and keep talking. I would not abandon some words I learned before, which I could not think how to say it immediately. For the learned words that I could not think of, I would explain it and my partners would remind me how to say that word. I would use some similar words or a sentence to replace this learned word that I could not think of in a short time. For example, I would use this phrase, “Doctor who takes care of teeth” instead of “dentist.” And, I would say “A kind of bear that lives on eucalyptus” to replace “Koala.” I could abandon difficult words, but not the common words.

Ling Mei believed that she would delete some professional terms and high level words:

Message abandonment strategy was really helpful. For some professional terms, I very quickly could abandon it and keep talking. It was impossible that I was able to figure out how to put in plain words the professional terms, in fields with which I was not familiar. Besides, I also could abandon some high-level words that I had not learned yet because they prevented me from
articulating in a fluent and voluble way.

Ling Mei perceived that she would apply message abandonment but she should not abandon key words, which were related to the central meaning of a conversation:

Key words could not be abandoned because it made me lose focus of a topic. My partners needed to be very patient and spend more time to comprehend what I wanted to say when I abandoned a key word in a communication. After a longer time, my partners would understand what I was talking about by referring to the other information I provided.

Ling Mei expressed her perception that an abstract adjective or an abstract noun was more difficult to explain. So she would abandon these types of words:

Abstract nouns or adjectives were harder to illustrate, so they should be abandoned more often than the other types of words. In class, I wanted to explain an abstract word like “Flat” through appealing to some other strategies; however, I still failed to make my partners realize what I was talking about. I tried to use many ways to explain, but my classmates still did not catch the meaning. Finally, Douglas (the trainer) helped me to make my partners figure out what “Flat” meant. He used exemplification and said, “The top of the desk is flat, the floor is flat, and the wall is flat.” Then, my classmates comprehended my intended meaning of “Flat.”
After two interviews, Ling Mei further reflected in one of several member checks why she did not like to reject her interlocutors when they asked her a word and why she did not intend to skip expressing a difficult intended meaning.

After entering college, I had met so many people who were similar as me. The students in the university are so different from those in high schools. Most of my friends in college have a common goal with me. They cherished the same ideals and took the same courses as mine. I was much more untroubled talking to them. I would not reject them because they were nice subjects of talking.

Tien Long Lee

Students who undertook the same training process perceived the efficacy of the message abandonment strategy in different ways. Tien Long and Pei Pei declared that the abandonment strategy was not a strategy they would use. Tien Long exhorted that EFL learners should endeavor to resort to the other strategies, instead of abandoning any word:

For message abandonment, I did not think it was an advantageous strategy. Instead of giving up, I would try my best to express. It should be better to think of how to explain what we intended to express. I would advise that communication in English sometimes is like taking an examination. When encountering a difficult quiz, we should not just leave blanks during communication. I believed that it was necessary to be more aggressive and
Tien Long perceived that difficult topics should be avoided in order to prevent abandoning difficult messages. He described that “message abandonment” was like leaving a blank for unknown questions in the test:

Abandonment strategy was a strategy that I should rarely use. The method for preventing abandonment of difficult messages was that I would avoid difficult topics in the very beginning, so I would not come across a difficult word. If I really had to say a word that I had not yet learned in English, I would use the other strategies to explain. I did not think skipping it or escaping from it was a positive attitude. It was like you should never leave a blank for a question on your test sheet. We should always try to answer and try to achieve.

Tien Long described his perceptions in a special way:

Using message abandonment strategy is like when you jump over a huge stone that is located in the middle of the road. Sometimes, you think it wastes too much time and effort to move away the huge stone, so you perceive you should just jump over it. However, you may not arrive at the destination when you carelessly jump over the huge stone and make your legs hurt.

Pei Pei Hu

Pei Pei, in her first interview, pointed out that message abandonment released
her obsession, but she changed her mind and suggested that message abandonment
could not be used because it made her communication stop in the middle. After the
first session of training, Pei Pei believed message abandonment should be helpful:

Message abandonment was a method that suggests my not to be obsessed in a
difficult meaning. I didn’t need to take unnecessary pains to figure out a
difficult meaning after I decided to give up. I believed that it was an efficient
strategy in communication.

However, in the second interview, Pei Pei thought abandoning a meaning, especially
a key meaning, could make a communication stop in the middle:

In my learning experience, message abandonment strategy sometimes
discontinued my talking when I abandoned an important word. It was just like
if you didn’t know a key word of an article, you couldn’t realize what the
article was about. Therefore, I usually checked difficult words in my
dictionary without ignoring any word. During communication, I would
suggest learners annotating each word associated with intended meaning
instead of leaving them undone.

Additionally, Pei Pei revealed that the idea of “not to abandon any intended
meaning” was actually inspired by one of her English teachers in senior high school.
This teacher distributed to the class countless articles containing numerous new
words that she had not learned yet. Her teacher told her and her classmates to read
these articles thoroughly and check meanings of each unknown word. Pei Pei’s teacher requested that she should know all the words in order to pass the entrance examination with a higher score. Hence, Pei Pei noted it might be necessary to express all of her intended meanings in order to help people understand her idea.

Cheng Chih Chen

Cheng Chih indicated message abandonment sometimes was unavoidable:

About abandonment, I needed to consider the subject, situation, timing, and necessity. Abandoning words sometimes helped me save time and clear doubts in English communication. However, sometimes I could not abandon words if what I should express was really important for us.

For example, if I am overseas, and I need to buy something, I got to figure out how to say the word for the subject I would like to buy. It is like if I saw a car accident on the road, I must not abandon the victims and do nothing. I got to figure out what I should do to rescue them from dying.

After the second interview, Cheng Chih shared with the researcher that he felt the foreigners in Taiwan spoke mostly with key words only. According to his experiences of working in a restaurant and chatting in the public in Taiwan, he observed that Americans visiting Taiwan usually spoke to him with simply one or two key words. When they said key words such as “rest room,” “no smoking,” or “sea food,” Cheng Chih was able to figure out that they were looking for a restroom, a non-smoking area, and would like to have fish or shrimps. Cheng Chih implied that,
from many foreigners’ perspectives, time was money. Therefore, they usually expressed their intentions very quickly.

Jian Guo Huang

Jian Guo addressed that he would try avoiding using the message abandonment strategy. Through several ways, Jian Guo believed that he would be able to avoid using this strategy which he did not strongly support.

Jian Guo’s tips of avoiding using abandonment strategy were as follows:

Talking to the right people made me use the abandonment strategy less, because they helped me express my intended meaning in an easier way. For example, if I talked to students from the same college as mine, I was able to express my intended meaning with high-level vocabularies associated with the knowledge of my major, which also were words my partners were familiar with. Because our expertise was similar, we seldom encountered words we both did not know. Therefore, I was free to talk, without worrying I might encounter a difficult word out from my acquaintances.

However, if I talked to people from a different college, I encountered difficult words I had to abandon because we had different knowledge backgrounds. Therefore, I believed choosing the right subjects and topic in English communication was important because I did not really think abandoning a word in communication was a way I should follow. I would rather try to talk to people who had similar interests as mine.
Jian Guo told the researcher his reason why he had said he would select certain people with whom to talk. Jian Guo reasoned that it was because when entering Tunghai, he perceived the school was like a small society, where he could find all kinds of people. There were two different types of people appearing in front of him. When he was a freshman, he encountered many familiar and unfamiliar situations. Therefore, he learned to find people carefully who shared similar backgrounds to avoid a conflict during conversation. Additionally, he learned to communicate with interlocutors whose backgrounds might not be the same as his.

In a word, Cheng Chih and Jian Guo expressed that they believed that this strategy might be useful. However, they also stated that users should use it in the ways, which the interlocutors should not emphasizing their positions or professions in the society on purpose.
Regarding the second strategy, message abandonment, the seven respondents had dissimilar feelings. Two students (Tien Long and Pei Pei) pointed out that message abandonment was not a fitting strategy that the university students should use. They described that English learners in the universities should have an uncompromising standpoint in learning English, and they should try not to ignore any message that they would like to convey. Three students (Sung Ru, Jiun Sheng, and Ling Mei) confessed message abandonment was an indispensable strategy that they needed to learn until their English becomes more advanced. Two respondents (Cheng Chih and Jian Guo) ambiguously stated that the message abandonment strategy might be usable. At the same time, they signified their personal suggestions of using it in particular ways.

Generally speaking, as can be seen in Figure 4.2., the second findings of the message abandonment strategy derived by the seven respondents’ various positions indicated that the Taiwanese students had distinct and complex perceptions toward the abandonment strategy. Some students believed that the message abandonment strategy must be applied for reasons of time limitation, reducing anxiety in communication, and vocabulary limitation.

Contrastingly, two other students believed it was better to try to express all the words by resorting to other strategies and a more aggressive attitude of learning. The third neutral positions provided by two students indicated the message abandonment strategy was applicable. However, they tended not to use it except in emergency situations or when talking to people from different professions. Furthermore, some students revealed that the key words should not be abandoned.
Research Question Three

What Do Taiwanese University Students Perceive in Learning the Meaning Replacement Strategy?

In both sets of interviews, students enunciated their experiences of learning how to find an appropriate word to replace a difficult word, which also led to the findings for the third strategy, meaning replacement. It was concluded by four among the seven students that it was a valuable and supportive strategy. Cheng Chih, Tien Long, Ling Mei, and Pei Pei believed this strategy to be helpful in obtaining high English proficiency. In addition, they pointed out that this strategy should be applied in order to make listeners capture the meanings more effectively. Three respondents, Sung Ru, Jian Guo, and Jiun Sheng also talked about how they perceived in learning this strategy, but they did not state a positive or negative attitude toward it.

Cheng Chih Chen

Cheng Chih agreed that replacement strategy was an applicable strategy from his first interview. He stated that he had learned this strategy since he was a high school student. Also, he emphasized that it was a strategy that assisted him to survive overseas. Cheng Chih talked about his perceptions and offered several examples. In Cheng Chih’s first interview, he talked about how he had learned this strategy, and what types of words caused his linguistics limitation:

I had learned to use simpler words to communicate in order to make the communication sound more continuous and silver-tongued. My English teacher taught me that comprehensibility was much more important than tough vocabulary in communication. Hence, I tried not to make mistakes and
talked in a continuous way through using simpler, but understandable words. It was more important to use a simple and correct word instead of a high-level word which took a long time for us to figure out.

Using simpler words might cause misunderstanding, but it somehow should be useful. For example, if I were overseas, I might use a lot of replacement strategy for surviving. I would say “Car Drink” to represent “Gasoline,” a “House” to represent “Palace.” Or, I might say it is similar as a “Chateau.”

Another example, an overseas Chinese who has a car accident, he may call 119 (emergency call number in Taiwan) and say “Oinn Oinn” (sound of an ambulance) to express that he needs an ambulance. He might say a “Target Building” he sees nearby instead of saying the “Address.”

After 10 weeks of training, Cheng Chih described that he needed to use this strategy with people who were very familiar with the ongoing topic. He gave his suggestions on how meaning replacement should be applied:

My partner could not catch what I meant if I used a meaning replacement strategy to talk about something he was not familiar with. For example, if I used “Heart” to replace “Engine” of a vehicle, some people who were not familiar with a car could not catch the meaning of engine. I could use meaning replacement strategy to communicate with people who were familiar with the field I was talking about. I think they wouldn’t be confused if I used
In the second interview, Cheng Chih perceived that meaning replacement was similar to slang. Also, he thought when using meaning replacement that a closer word should be found:

Languages produced through replacement strategy sometimes were like “Slang.” They both sounded more informal and they both could be applied in a more casual situation. Both of them could be applied in a chat among good friends. Also, both of them could not be applied in the formal situations like business conferences, academic lectures, or important international conferences.

When using meaning replacement, we should achieve with a closer word. Otherwise, the others could not catch the meaning at all. For example, if you did not know how to say “Temple or Church” and said, “It is a kind of building.” It would be very vague. It was better that I explained more after using meaning replacement strategy.

Also, after the second interview, Cheng Chih addressed that, when using replacement strategy to make an expression, key words needed to be expressed loudly. At the same time, the speaker should double confirm whether a vague meaning had been received.

Tien Long Lee
Tien Long echoed his perceptions and observations for meaning replacement strategy. He perceived that people used meaning replacement according to their own personal perspectives. The meaning expressed might not be accepted or understood. However, the basic meaning could be conveyed. Tien Long’s answers were as follows:

Meaning replacement was somehow a good method. I found my partners could understand me a little bit when I used this strategy. In class, I learned to apply meaning replacement strategy. Afterward, I discovered that different people would use different words to replace a same meaning from various perspectives, according to their own cultural and language background.

For example, in class discussion, I introduced “Red Haired Barbarian Fort 紅毛城” in Tamshui. If using meaning replacement strategy to introduce this building, I would say, “It is a building made by Spanish and Dutch, and its appearance is red color.” Or, I will say, “It is a red building built by Spain and Holland.” I thought a part of its name given by Taiwanese government “Barbarian” was from a historical perspective of Chinese people. Our government named it this way from their own perspective. Some foreigners might think it was not accurate or rude to name it this way. Since it was a building of a city hall in Taipei built by Spanish (1629) and Holland, (1644) Western people should agree with its name like, “San Domingo City Hall Hall.”
In the second interview, Tien Long continued to talk about replacing words according to one’s interpretation of a word:

We usually found a word to replace the accurate word from our own perspectives. For example, the city hall of the Taipei in 1600s, built by Spanish and Dutch, was named as “Red Hair Barbarian Village” by Chinese since that building was constructed by the Western who arrived on Taiwan Island and established the earliest government of Taiwan. I believe Spanish and Dutch would name it as “City Hall of Spanish (Dutch) Colony.” I think Taiwanese used “Red Hair” to replace “Spanish and Dutch” for making a display of their victory, which they won a war against Dutch 400 years ago. I think that “Red Hair Barbarian” was a vague word for “European.” I feel that “Red Hair” meant “Dutch,” because many Dutch’s hair is orange. The word, “Red Hair” illustrated Taiwanese people’s ego in naming the historic site.

I found the “Taiwanese Folk Village” was a replaced name of “Taiwan Aboriginals’ Cultural Reservation.” The name of this theme park, introducing cultures of nine tribes in Taiwan, was facilitated from a view all the diverse cultures belong to cultures of Taiwan. It was easier to remember for children from a perspective of businessmen.

Ling Mei Fang

Ling Mei portrayed the meaning replacement strategy as useful. Besides, she
proposed that this strategy could contribute to reconfirming meanings with the interlocutors. After the first 5 weeks of training, Ling Mei perceived that she used the meaning replacement strategy often due to her insufficient vocabulary:

I used this strategy quite often. When I could not remember enough vocabularies, I used an easier word to express. It was natural that I used the “meaning replacement” strategy when my English was not good enough. I detected that when people’s English became better, they less and less used this strategy. This was a strategy representing a transition process between basic-level and advanced-level of English proficiency. Lower-level students needed it and higher-level students less used it. In class, I had used this strategy. For example, I used “Get Together” instead of “Get Along.” I forgot the word “Along” in class. “Along” was closer to what I really wanted to express.

After 10 weeks of training, Ling Mei noticed that she used the interlanguage strategy to compensate for using the meaning replacement strategy if the application of the meaning replacement was not successful:

Each strategy had its advantages; meaning replacement strategy made me express my intended meaning within a very short time, although the meaning became vague. If my partners still were confused, I could use interlanguage to explain in order to make my partner clearly catch the meaning. The interlanguage helped me to provide plenty details of a meaning. It took me more time and effort to talk, but it made my partners catch my intended
meaning beyond doubt. I preferred to draw on these 2 strategies agilely.

Ling Mei said that another advantage of the meaning replacement strategy was to guess what others were talking about:

Besides the purpose for expressing my intended meaning, I also used meaning replacement strategy to guess the others’ intended meaning. When my partners wanted to say a word which was too difficult for her/him to say and for me to comprehend, I would, according to my own comprehension, use a replaced word in order to ask her/him whether the word I expressed was what s/he wanted to say.

Thinking of a simple word and reconfirming the meaning with the speaker during conversation was one of the ways I applied replacement strategy. I guessed the others’ intended meaning, and offered a vague concept for them. I reconfirmed if that was the word they would like to convey. If I did it successfully or the vague word I provided was the right word, it saved much time for both sides because we did not have to linger around a difficult word for a long time.

After the second interview, Ling Mei further explained why the meaning replacement strategy was applied in the university where students’ English should be good enough and do not need to use it. Ling Mei reflected her opinion through the international phone call:
Because when we were in junior and senior high schools, we only learned to read and write instead of to listen and to speak. Without many experiences of speaking in English and using the learned word, I was not able to think effortlessly of many high-level vocabularies.

Ling Mei expressed that she gained more opportunities in practicing learned words in English communication in Tunghai, which made her use the replacement strategy less.

Pei Pei Hu

In the first interview, Pei Pei described meaning replacement with an interesting metaphor that showed how she perceived in learning this strategy:

Meaning replacement strategy was like a method of paving a road. It finally, little by little, brought us to the destination after we tried to build the way very slowly. The method was slow, but it finally made us form our target concept in an intelligible way. I believed meaning replacement at least built a thinking direction that led me to the target meaning, just like offering me the outlines for writing an article. It was like I was doing difficult homework. In the beginning, I was not confident whether I was able to do it. After trying little by little, I was able to get it done through referring to the similar questions and closer answers.

In the first interview, Pei Pei perceived that this strategy was needed because it kept the topic going:
The communication would not be stopped because at least an ambiguous meaning was conveyed. Usually, I was able to figure out later how to say it in an accurate way after using this strategy to cause a buffer function. I could have some more time to think after conveying with a vague word.

In the first interview, Pei Pei talked about how the same objects in the east and west world might be interpreted in different ways. So an accurate word needed to be found:

When using meaning replacement, searching for a correct word to replace a difficult word was important and not easy. Some words have different meanings in the eastern and western worlds. Therefore, I believed that I not only had to read more, but also I had to be more familiar with the western culture. Then, I was able to apply a right word with the same meaning that I would like to express.

Pei Pei suggested that, when describing meanings of Chinese idioms, meaning replacement should be applied. Also, more clarification needed to be offered in order to enhance the interlocutors’ comprehension:

Meaning replacement only could make a similar and approximate meaning conveyed without interpreting for me a depth meaning for a word. For instance, if I would like to use meaning replacement and convey 動如脱兔, I would say, “It is a person who likes to act and move a lot.” When I used the
“meaning replacement” and said it this way, I still could not clearly express what 動如脫兔 really was. I might have to give more details about the speed and action of a rabbit, and explain it was for describing a person’s going personality.

After the second interview, Pei Pei mentioned why she described meaning replacement as similar to paving a road, and finally it brought her to the destination. She felt she used a lot of replacement strategy to communicate in English when she was in junior high school. At that time, it was very difficult to interact in English because the sequence of English words and grammar were very different from her mother tongue. Since the thinking model of language in English was too different from Chinese, Pei Pei understood she needed to memorize more vocabularies and learned to use a vague and similar way of talking at the same time. Pei Pei indicated that this was like paving the road a small portion at a time. After learning English for a longer time, she was accustomed to resorting to the meaning replacement or using a more accurate word to express. In this way, Pei Pei arrived at the destination of learning how to express herself. In other words, Pei Pei learned how to achieve what she needed to express easier by using vague meanings and memorizing more words.

Sung Ru Liu

Sung Ru talked about meaning replacement without suggesting any positive or negative positions. Sung Ru pointed out that it was not easy to apply but she offered several typical examples to express her understanding about this strategy. Sung Ru thought the higher level students would be more capable of applying this strategy. Sung Ru conveyed her perceptions that she thought the meaning
replacement strategy was not easy for her. Sung Ru was nervous and stressful when using the strategy. However, she offered examples of using this strategy:

For meaning replacement, it was difficult to say a simple word very quickly when I just learned this strategy. In class, I would like to say “Mummy,” and I was nervous and considered for a long while then said “Dead King.” It was understandable. Douglas (trainer) said it could be interpreted as a “Preserved Body.” You got to think very hard to use this strategy. For me, I must think about the English grammatical structure before I said a simplified word. Meaning replacement was extremely difficult for me.

When my teacher taught me to say an abstract word, I was so nervous and had so much pressure. Some of my classmates used a lot of abstract words that I could not understand, not only because their words were not accurate, but because their pronunciations were not standard and their sound was too weak. If their pronunciation could be clear, and they spoke in a slower pace, or their grammatical structure could be more correct, then I would be able to comprehend their abstract words.

In Sung Ru’s second interview, she perceived that many speeches created through replacement strategy appeared in class group discussions. As in the first interview, she was stressful when using this strategy but offered her correct examples of using it.

My classmates and I tended to use the meaning replacement strategy
frequently in class discussions. The reasons were simple words were easier to understand than the others. Also, occasionally we were nervous during talking in class, so we could not think of accurate words quickly. Whenever I was excessively stressful, I abandoned the difficult message.

In a class discussion, I talked about pyramid and some of my classmates did not know what it was. My teacher wanted me to explain it, and I said it was a “King’s Tomb.” I needed a while to consider how to replace the word of “pyramid” with “king’s tomb.” My classmates realized what I mentioned, and I perceived that replacement strategy was not really easy to apply after learning it. The reason was that I needed like 30 seconds to think of which simpler words I could use to replace “King’s Tomb.” I needed to practice and used meaning replacement strategy from time to time for about two years, and I subconsciously could replace difficult words with simple words.

In her second interview, Sung Ru talked about her perceptions that higher level students would be more competent in using this strategy:

Jian Guo and Do Nan (classmate) could apply it naturally without practicing it for a long time. I believed it was because their personality was outgoing so they dared to construct a simpler way of speaking.

Later, Sung Ru told the researcher that she had accumulated about 3,000 words in junior high school. Based on these learned words while studying in a junior high school, she would be able to express through meaning replacement.
Jiun Sheng Chang

Jiun Sheng thought meaning replacement and “generalization” were too similar for him. Additionally, he believed, when translating Chinese idioms, that the meaning replacement strategy should be applied. In the first interview, Jiun Sheng thought “generalization” could be a type of usage in meaning replacement strategy:

Meaning replacement and “generalization” were similar strategies. They both suggested that I should use a word with a broader meaning to express. For example, I could use “fruit” to replace and generalize different specific types of fruits. I found these two strategies both made the intended meaning expressed and a vague meaning received.

In the second interview, Jiun Sheng perceived that the Chinese idiom could be translated through the meaning replacement strategy. He observed when translating idioms from Chinese to English, the Chinese people would have higher comprehension due to the cultural knowledge background:

I would use meaning replacement to translate Chinese idioms into English. Using it was as if I considered in Chinese and then translated my thought into English. It was tough to translate accurately Chinese idioms associated with Chinese culture into accurate English. I noticed the listeners who were people with a Chinese background like Chinese people or foreigners studying Chinese would be able to grasp my idiom translated from Chinese with meaning replacement strategy.
Jiun Sheng explained to the researcher why he used meaning replacement to translate Chinese idioms.

I was interested in studying Chinese literature since I was a junior high school student. I had learned and memorized hundreds of Chinese idioms in my mind. It is my routine to ponder in Chinese idioms and answer the others’ doubts with the philosophies in the idioms.

Jian Guo Huang

Jian Guo talked about meaning replacement only in his first interview. He perceived that resorting to meaning replacement might not be a perfect way to express the difficult intended meanings. Additionally, Jian Guo also perceived meaning replacement was like “Slang” as Jian Guo felt:

I believed although I could not express as clear as using an accurate word, it at least made the others know what I meant. For example, I would replace “Highball Glass” and “Whiskey Glass (Straight Glass)” with “Glass,” which were known as daily-life articles. From a view of profession, facilitated words could be indistinct and confusing. On the other hand, meaning replacement was like “Slang.” They all were easier, understandable and lower level English. The difference was slang seemed to be clearer.

Jian Guo talked about when the replacement strategy would be applied more
frequently. He explained that the level of his speech productions simply would be based on different stages of his English proficiency. Jian Guo was a sophomore. Therefore, he should not speak with this strategy as frequently as when he was a freshman.

**FIGURE 4.3.**
Perceptions of the Meaning Replacement Strategy

About the third strategy, meaning replacement, 5 students (Cheng Shih, Tien Long, Ling Mei, Pei Pei, and Jian Guo) provided their convinced perceptions about it. As can be revealed in Figure 4.3., they conceived that, although this method made them articulate their intended meanings slowly, they somehow gained a method to convey it. The other 2 students (Sung Ru and Jiun Sheng) did not display their standpoints obviously and said the “message replacement” strategy was an adaptable strategy. They offered their different reasons why they would or would not use it, and
their suggestions as to how they would use it.

A finding for the meaning replacement strategy showed that most students believed that meaning replacement was an applicable and effective strategy. Although some students talked about how ambiguous meanings or informal language (slang) could be produced, most of the students mentioned it was better to have access to getting to know their interlocutor’s intended meaning. Furthermore, some students believed the language through meaning replacement would be influenced by the cultural knowledge and native language.

Research Question Four

What Do Taiwanese University Students Perceive in Learning the Interlanguage Strategy?

Six of the seven students admitted that the interlanguage strategy enhanced their communication ability. Some students pointed out that they could apply the usages in this strategy to express their intended meanings easily. The reason was that they usually thought in Chinese and spoke in English during English communication. The collected data contributed to the findings, which indicated the impact of culture and language on strategy application. First, the students believed that the usages in interlanguage were influenced by the speakers’ language and cultural setting. Second, most of the students perceived interlanguage was easy and valuable.

Sung Ru Liu

Sung Ru reflected that this strategy was applicable, and she perceived that the language generated through this strategy would be more comprehensible by people from the same culture:

For interlanguage, the foreigner might not catch my meaning
straightforwardly. If they have been in Taiwan, they would comprehend what I mean more effortlessly. For “A large crowd of people, 人山人海,” Chinese would say “People Mountain People Sea.” But for foreigners, they would not comprehend the meaning as rapidly as Chinese.

Those comprehensible languages generated through interlanguage was a little bit funny. It was fresh, comprehensible, and humorous. I felt my classmates who used “word-coinage” were those who had enough creativity and courage. I perceived that my classmate, Jiun Sheng, was able to use a lot of “word-coinage” because of his personality. I perceived that Jiun Sheng was more creative and outgoing than the other classmates.

In the first interview, Sung Ru stated that she used interlanguage to translate Chinese idioms:

Many Chinese idioms could be translated and created as new English words. One day, many new words will be spread far and wide. So, I perceived that, in the beginning, people might think it is not standard English but, finally, many people comprehended what it meant and accepted it, finally, it became common English and might be spoken by many people.

Sung Ru, in her first interview, provided an example of using interlanguage strategy:

Many of my classmates used interlanguage. I used “paragraph” to describe
“Dachshund 腊腸狗.” I said, “Its legs are shorter, and it has a longer body.” I believed when I had a low proficiency, I should use a lot of “generalization.” It would be clearer if I used “generalization” with “paragraph.”

In the second interview, Sung Ru addressed that she would work out interlanguage privately so she would not lose face:

I would use interlanguage in the private circumstances instead of in the public. I did not perceive losing face if I talked to my good friends or some acquaintances with interlanguage. They knew my language and cultural background, so they did not detect that my language was strange. However, I would avoid using them in the public where people might expect to hear more standard English.

Sung Ru used her imagination to describe how she perceived interlanguage in her second interview:

As to my perception about the restructuring skill in interlanguage, it was like encountering a road block on the way home, so I had to make a detour. It took more time for me to reach my destination; however, I was able to find a way to go home. The block was the challenging vocabulary and the detour was the dialogues for explaining the difficult words.

Sung Ru described how she perceived generation and “word coinage” in the interlanguage interview:
I felt “generation” was like looking for a bigger concept for details under that concept. For example, my major is Food Science. Under this big subject, we have to learn its related knowledge, such as “Food Chemistry,” “Food Preservation,” and “Manufactured Food.” It meant I could generalize all the subordinate subjects as subject of Food Science.

When I used “word-coinage,” I considered in Chinese first, and then I produced English words to express the difficult meaning. I perceived many of my English speeches created through “word-coinage” were based on my mother tongues, Chinese and Taiwanese. I sometimes directly translated Chinese into English and produced words.

Sung Ru told the researcher that the reason she could learn interlanguage easily was because she had heard this type of speech from the mass media before she entered Tunghai University. Sung Ru learned this strategy from TV news, radio, and internet. Besides, she had gained knowledge of it from her teachers in high school.

Cheng Chih Chen

Cheng, in his first interview, said that he believed that although the interlanguage strategy was useful, he also believed that it was not easy to employ. He described that this strategy was helpful, especially when he needed to introduce Chinese and Taiwanese cultures. After 10 weeks of training, he shared his learning experience of applying Interlanguage and clearly analyzed how he created words through “word-coinage.” After 5 weeks of training, Cheng Chih perceived that
interlanguage was applicable when introducing the Chinese and Taiwanese cultures. He gave the following examples:

Interlanguage was a practical strategy because it did help you to express. Especially when I introduced Chinese culture, I would use a lot of interlanguage. For example, I explained “Puppet Show 布袋戲,” by saying, “It is played by hand,” and “It is a kind of carved wooden figure.” Then, my classmates realized what I was talking about.

For “Taiwanese Opera 歌仔戲,” I said, “It comes from China, and then I distinguished it from puppet show in order to avoid misunderstanding.” I further explained, “The actors need to make up and it is not played by hand.”

Cheng Chih described how stressful he was when using the interlanguage strategy:

Sometimes using interlanguage made me nervous. My classmate might notice me nervous. It was difficult to “create a new word,” “exemplify,” or “restructure” in a short time during talking. I was stressful when I got to think of something for a difficult word.

Cheng Chih believed that imagination was a factor to create and understand the interlanguage:

When using “paragraph,” I had to stimulate my partners’ ability of
imagination. If I would like to say “Jade Mountain,” I might say, “There are many trees, and it is the highest mountain of Taiwan.”

Cheng Chih, in his first interview, suggested that the speakers should apply more information to make the listener get the meaning provided through “generalization”:

About “generalization,” it might sometimes be vague. I would add one or two explanations to make it clearer. For example, if I would like to say “Apple,” I would not say, “It is a kind of fruit.” I would say, “It is a red fruit.” If a person would like to buy a car, he should describe the brand of the car, and the place of the production. So I believed that I also have to offer some clue for the listeners to follow.

In his first interview, Cheng Chih perceived that he would use “word coinage” to introduce culture, especially in a situation where he was not able to find a word related to Chinese culture in the English dictionary:

“Word coinage” was suitable for me to use when introducing culture. Some words related to a certain culture can not be found in the dictionary. I can give you some words that can not be found in the Chinese dictionary, and finally Chinese people give a name for those things, such as “Sofa”: “Safa,” “Pan” (Bread in Spanish): “Pan,” “Lime”: “LiMu,” “Tomato”: “Tamado,” (Tamato in Japanese) “Formosa” (Beautiful Island in Portuguese): “Fuermosha,” and “Benz”: “Binshu.” Taiwanese people usually select some suitable words to
create a new word for productions from overseas. I detected that superstition was a point of selecting words. For example, for “Benz,” we would not use the sound of “s,” which meant “die” in Taiwanese dialect. I found many words were translated and newly created from the other languages.

In the second interview, Cheng Chih offered many examples of interlanguage in order to demonstrate how he interpreted the strategies in the interlanguage:

Two methods of the ancient Chinese word creator, Tsang-Jei, applied to create Chinese characters also could be applied to “coin a word with pronunciation” (形聲: 應 鷹 填) and “coin a word with deconstruction.” (會意: 休 婦 森 信) These two skills applied word producing methods through the “pronunciation” and “deconstruction” of a word to produce new words.

Cheng Chih stated that some Taiwanese people would listen to pronunciation and create some foreign words, which can not be found in a dictionary. The similar Chinese sounds of the foreign words made listeners quickly realize which foreign word the speakers meant. He said:

For example, “Formosa,” (beautiful island in Portuguese) 福 (lucky) 爾摩沙 (sand); and “Benz,” 鵬馳 (huge bird running speedily) were words with the same pronunciations as the original lexis and also with the precise meanings. Taiwanese people listen to the sounds of words and create new Chinese words that make sense with the original words.
Cheng Chih believed that “word coinage” could be like deconstructing a Chinese word and translating it into English. Cheng Chih believed:

For example, “Balloon 氣球,” I translated it directly into “Air 氣 Ball 球.” For a “Light Bulb 電燈泡,” I translated it into “Electric 電 Light 燈 Bubble 泡.” For “Glasses 眼鏡,” I translated them into “Eye 眼 Lens 鏡.” For “Curtains 窗簾,” I translated them into “Window 窗 Cloth 布.” I felt that it was really easy and comprehensible.

Since my word was created through Chinese translation, some words might not be interpreted by foreigners well when I am overseas. Therefore, I should use paraphrase strategy to clarify my meaning if they still could not be understood. For example, if I needed to translate “Video Camera 攝影機” as “Catch 攝 Picture 影 Machine 機,” it might be misunderstood as “A Television” or “A Camera.” Hence, I should exemplify one or two differences among “Video Camera,” “Television,” and “Camera” in order to avoid miscommunication. I perceived that I should minimize my listeners’ range of imagination by telling them that it was not a computer, not a TV, not a regular camera, and it was for taking pictures.

Cheng Chih talked about how he was inspired to learn the interlanguage strategy. He said that when working as a waiter in a restaurant, he found out that the menus of Japanese dishes and Cantonese dishes all were in interlanguage, for
instance, “Shu-Shi 寿司,” and “Dim-Sum 點心.” Therefore, Cheng Chih was able to learn this strategy quickly, and he expanded the same logic learned in the restaurant to create his speech productions in class discussion through interlanguage.

Jiun Sheng Chang

Jiun Sheng commented on interlanguage in both of his interviews. He felt that it assisted him in expressing difficult meanings. He demonstrated several examples from his learning experiences in class. In the first interview, Jiun Sheng believed that “paraphrase” was a valuable strategy. Also, Jiun Sheng believed that describing a word was an easy strategy to use:

“Paraphrase” was a valuable strategy. In my learning experience, when using “paraphrase,” I usually made my partners realize what I meant. In group discussions, I offered a lot of examples to explain. If I wanted to say “apple,” I said, “It is like a ball, in red color, and delicious.” I also told the others that, “Newton had discovered gravity through it, which had fallen from a tree to the ground.” I believed that it was quite clear to portray an object this way.

Similarly, if I wanted to say eagle, I said, “It is able to fly and spiral, and it is an invader with wings.” I would say, “It is a symbol for America.” I was confident that my partners in class comprehended what I meant when I used the usages in this strategy. My perception about paraphrase was that the languages created through it were like languages that a teacher used to illustrate terms for his students. In my learning experience, the following exemplifications could replace the difficult term of “Carbon Positive Ion”: “It
is a carbon lacking an electron. An electron is a negatron, so it is called a positive ion of a carbon.”

Jiun Sheng said that describing a word should be quite easy. Jiun Sheng described:

Whatever I would like to describe, I usually was able to find its relative things to exemplify. It was like looking for a location in a coordinated graph; you always could describe it with its location on the x axis and its location on the y axis.

In Jiun Sheng’s second interview, he talked about his perceptions toward “word coinage.” Moreover, he provided examples created through “paraphrase”:

My perception of “word coinage” was that the language created through it was too childish and funny, but really comprehensible. Some words might sound like baby talk, and the listeners would think the speaker’s purpose of saying it was for making a joke. It is possible the listeners think this way when they do not know anything about communication strategies.

When the listener comprehended the speaker’s meaning in this humorous way, he cleverly would smile at the speaker for implying his understandability, but and not laughing at me. I perceived that “word coinage” sometimes was an excellent way to compensate for limited vocabularies. If someone told me that I was amusing when I used this strategy, I would not think it was
surprising. I would think it was at least a satisfactory way to communicate and make people comprehend a meaning, laugh, and feel relaxed. I did not see any reason why we shouldn’t apply it.

In the member check, Jiun Sheng reflected his perceptions of using Interlanguage to the researcher again. He responded that his textbooks all were in English, which contained countless terms and high-level vocabularies. Neither could he think of the meaning when encountering a learned word, nor could he discuss with his classmates effectively with the professional terms. Therefore, Jiun Sheng every now and then turned on interlanguage to discuss and communicate with his classmates.

Jian Guo Huang

Jian Guo’s insights into “paraphrase,” “exemplification,” “generalization,” and “word coinage” were provided after five weeks of training. Jian Guo described how he applied “paraphrase” to convey knowledge he had learned from the subjects of his major:

For “paraphrase and exemplification,” I liked to exemplify a word in a scientific way. For example, I would illustrate creatures with their category. In biology, there are very specific ways to classify Systems of Plants (界 Regnum Kingdom, 門 Divisio Division, 級 Classis Class, 目 Ordo Order, 科 Familia Family, 屬 Genus Genus, 種 Species Species) that I can apply to paraphrase generate and exemplify a word for creature. “Paraphrase, Generate and Exemplify” helped me to express a word in a way that I could
use my common sense, so I believed that it was quite useful. For example, I would exemplify horse and donkey by saying, “They both are mammals in a same family, but in a different breed. “They can proliferate their later generation, mule, which has no ability of giving birth.”

Jian Guo explained that he would be able to use “exemplification” in order to say the specific words he did not know:

I would exemplify “Panda” and “Koala” by saying that “They were both mammals.” Their difference was that “Koala grows up in a suckle bag.” I would describe this word from a view of biology,

Jian Guo perceived that among four strategies in interlanguage, the “generalization” was the only one he did not accept:

I believed that “generalization” was not a perfect strategy because it did not indicate the differences among things. The listeners are not able to access the correct information with this strategy. I choose not to adopt this strategy.

Jian Guo believed that before his English could reach a higher level, “word coinage” would be a helpful strategy that he needed to use:

As to “word coinage,” I believed that it was an adoptable strategy before my English became good. The speech made was comprehensible. I believed foreigners would not mind that the newly created word was non-native like.
As long as the meaning could be received, any kind of newly made word should be acceptable.

Similarly, when my partners made new words, I would guess what they intended to express, and I would tell them what the correct words were. I perceived that after a new word was made, the information of appealing for help was also expressed. In class, I benefited from “word coinage,” because I had learned some new words this way. This contributed to both my communication and language learning.

Jian Guo told the researcher that he was accustomed to speaking and analyzing the language from a scientific view. Jian Guo’s major was Hospitality Management, and he had learned to use Interlanguage to introduce things based on the scientific way he had learned. As mentioned above, Jian Guo was capable at expressing the subjects of creatures based on their classification methods.

Tien Long Lee

Tien Long did not provide a position on interlanguage. However, he had many perceptions about it. Tien Long expressed that he recognized that interlanguage was a suitable strategy of introducing Taiwanese culture. Tien Long observed that he did not use “word coinage,” although he had heard many examples from his classmates. Additionally, he believed that the ability to react and a person’s knowledge were factors of how well s/he could apply “paraphrase.” He believed that “restructuring” was acceptable in a situation of language learning.

After 10 weeks of training, Tien Long gave examples that he had generated in
class to demonstrate for the researcher his deep understanding about “exemplification” and “word coinage.” Additionally, Tien Long talked about how the speakers’ personalities influenced their ability to employ “word coinage.” Tien Long also perceived that “generalization” was a less advantageous strategy. In Tien Long’s first interview, Tien Long talked about how his classmates had applied the strategy of “word coinage” to introduce Taiwanese culture.

In terms of “word coinage,” I rarely use it. However, I heard a lot of newly created words, especially some words related to Taiwanese culture, such as “Oyster Noodle” for “Oamishua 蚵仔麵線,” a kind of famous Taiwanese noodle and “Fried Stinky To-Fu” for “Cho Do Fu 臭豆腐.” I believed when introducing Taiwanese culture, that “word coinage” was an important strategy because those words could not be found in standard English. And these words should be words heard by foreigners for the first time.

Also, some other items that can be found only in Taiwan might be introduced through “word coinage.” My major is Food Science, so I offer example like a kind of common vegetable of Taiwan. The “Water Celery” might not be easily figured out by the foreigners in Taiwan and Taiwanese. However, if you say “Empty Stem Vegetable 空心菜,” it could be comprehended more quickly. Instead of using the biological term “Water Celery,” using “Empty Stem Vegetable 空心菜” may be clearer and more comprehensible by the foreigners in Taiwan and Taiwanese.
Tien Long observed that a person’s personality influenced the speaker’s ability to use “word coinage:”

I found that classmates who had creativity and a sense of humor were those people who have the ability of creating words. I perceived the words needed to be created with a sense of humor; otherwise, people thought you were boring. Also, the created words must be easily comprehended and with a sense of humor.

When my classmates used “word coinage,” I believed that they were brave. Not only did they not worry about not being able to think of a new word in time, but they did not worry that their created words might be incomprehensible for his/her peers.

In Tien Long’s first interview, he perceived that “paraphrase” was not an easy strategy, so he became nerve-racking when using it:

For “paraphrase,” I perceived it was useful. Sometimes it was not really uncomplicated. I was stressed when I was thinking about how to describe a word. When I was not able to do it, I sometimes used the topic avoidance strategy to change topics. Once in class, I was thinking how to describe a word and felt stressed. My classmate noticed my nervousness and assisted me in my expression. I perceived that I was good neither in “exemplification” nor “describing.” So, I did practice this strategy frequently.
After five weeks of training, Tien Long talked about his observation of one of his classmates, Ling Mei. Tien Long concluded that a person must be talented in reacting to the urgent situation in order to apply “paraphrase” well:

I found Ling Mei’s (classmate) ability of “paraphrase” was really good. It was because she could react to a word very quickly and she was knowledgeable. I was not clever in using this strategy because I did not have enough knowledge for restating a same meaning with other words or explaining many things.

Tien Long believed that “restructuring” was acceptable when learning English:

As to “restructuring,” I believe that “changing plan” in the middle of talking should be allowable. When I was able to express my intended meaning with restructuring, my partners would consider the pause in the middle for changing plan to be acceptable and correct. I observed that restructuring was especially acceptable at school because everybody understood that the pause or changing mind of expressing would be allowed under a status of learning.

In the second interview, Tien Long displayed his understanding about interlanguage.

I can provide examples about what a certain chemical substance could be explained through paraphrase if I were a chemistry teacher. For example, I
described that “Diamond” was “Substance that was composed with the polymer of several carbon atoms.” Also, I described an “Atom” as “the smallest unit in a chemical compound.”

In the second interview, Tien Long eventually expressed that the “word coinage” was helpful for him, especially in the situation of introducing Taiwanese culture:

In the very beginning of training, I thought “word coinage” in interlanguage was not very helpful for me. The 2 reasons were: I worried I was not able to create a word in time, and I worried that the listeners could not comprehend the word I created. However, after practicing and using it for a long time, I started to feel it is useful. For some words related to Taiwanese culture, which I could not find in the dictionary such as 蚵仔麵線, I would name it “Oyster Noodle.” However, I think I should explain it in detail without just using the created new name for it: “Oyster Noodle.” I described, “It was a kind of thin noodle cooked with oyster, vinegar, starch, and cilantro.” I thought because there was no 蚵仔麵線 in foreign countries, so it was more appropriate that I illustrated what it was if I explained it to the foreigners. I believed that the created word “Oyster Noodle” could be understood if many people used it very often or if it became popular one day. For example, the “Stinky To-Fu 臭豆腐,” or “Long Time No See. 好久不見” had been accepted and well known by the foreigners.

In the second interview, Tien Long pointed out that he believed that a confident
person would be able to apply “word coinage” more competently than those who were timid. He also expressed that the “paraphrase” made a compensation for his failure of expression through using “word coinage”:

As to “word coinage,” I perceived that the confident people could apply them better because they did not have to worry that they were not able to create a word in a short time. Also, they did not have to worry that their created words were not comprehensible. I perceived that I was not very confident in using “word coinage,” so I usually had to predict that I would use a word I created to my partners in order to make sure that they were not too surprised with my new word. Currently, I also would use “paraphrase,” if my partners could not understand what my created word meant. I often used “word coinage” and “paraphrase” to interpret a meaning.

Besides “word coinage,” Tien Long also perceived that “generalization” was acceptable:

About the skill of “generalization” in the interlanguage strategy, I believed that it was acceptable but it was not perfect idea. People could at least catch a broad meaning, but they could not access the specific word I would like to express whenever I had difficulty in expressing it.

However, I still had to learn how to express the vague meaning, just like everyone should buy insurance. I never know whether in my future, I might
have to say a very specific word that I have not learned yet. So I believed that I had to use “generalization.”

Ling Mei Fang

Ling Mei remarked that interlanguage was a suitable strategy for her to use. She believed that some other strategies had to be used cooperatively. Although Ling Mei perceived that sometimes using this strategy might be wasting time, it was still worthy. Additionally, Ling Mei believed that interlanguage would be more applicable when talking to people who were from similar backgrounds. Ling Mei offered examples of “word coinage” that she observed from her classmates. Ling Mei also provided some ideas of how to teach “generalization” and “exemplification.” In Ling Mei’s first interview, she talked about how she believed some strategies should be applied to compensate for the failure of expressing:

For the “generalization,” I would not simply use it alone, but I would use it with another strategy. For example, if I would like to say “koala,” I would say more through circumlocution, “An animal living on the tree and eating Eucalyptus leaves.” Only saying “animal” made the focus too ambiguous.

Using the other strategy with “generalization” made the meaning clearer. In my learning experiences, I was not able to find a generalized word to replace some words very easily. Therefore, I would not say, “Whale is a mammal in the ocean,” instead, I should say, “It is a huge and viviparous mammal.” I perceived that I should use two strategies. I believed that exemplification and
generalization should be both applied.

In the interview, Ling Mei perceived that although the application of “paraphrase” was time consuming, it was worthy to spend more time to express a difficult word:

For the “paraphrase,” it wasted me more time to think of better words or how to explain. On the other hand, it made me express more accurately what I would like to say. It was worthy to spend some more time to make my partners know what I was thinking.

Ling Mei perceived that her language produced through interlanguage would be more comprehensible by people from a Chinese background:

When I made a word by translating Chinese into English, Chinese would figure out more quickly. For example, the newly created sentence, “People Mountain People Sea. 人山人海” and “Long Time No See. 好久不見” were sentences that my classmate could, in a second, understand what they meant, but for foreigners, they needed more time to figure out. The reason was that they were directly created through translating Chinese idioms. For this strategy, I perceived that when people were from the similar language and cultural backgrounds, they would have more common understanding. For foreigners, they also should be able to comprehend the new word, but it needed more time.
In the second interview, Ling Mei provided similar perceptions as in her first interview. Ling Mei perceived the language created through the interlanguage strategy would be more comprehensible by folks from the speakers’ cultural backgrounds.

I believed interlanguage was very suitable for me to use when I talked to people who had the same language background as mine. My classmate was able to comprehend my language created through interlanguage strategies because they understood the language structure (Chinese structure) in my mind, and they knew how I created the words or sentences through our mother tongue.

Differently, if I used the interlanguage to speak with foreigners who have different language backgrounds from mine, they needed more time to realize what I was talking about due to the diverse cognition. For example, my Taiwanese classmates knew what “People Mountain People Sea 人山人海” and “Morning Nine Evening Five” were without effort because they were translated from a Chinese idiom. Dissimilarly, if I said the same sentences to the foreigners, they might think of them for one more second, and then they might be able to figure out.

Ling Mei offered an example of “word coinage” that she heard from her classmate:
The language created through “word coinage” made the language obviously far removed from standard English. For me, it was a kind of “deformed” language. However, it was understandable and acceptable for Chinese people in the casual situations. My classmate, Jiun Sheng, liked to translate many Chinese idioms into English. He said “Think three times before you do it” for 三思而後行. The standard English for this idiom should be “To look before you leap.” I perceived that it was more equal if you use interlanguage when talking to people from the same cultural and literature background as yours. Foreigners would be confused for a while and then comprehend what you were talking about if you used skills of “word coinage” or describing based on your own culture.

Ling Mei suggested to the researcher how she believed that “generalization” and “exemplification” should be taught:

I believed that it was better in learning skills in interlanguage when we played games and learned the skill of “generalization” and “exemplification.” The reason was that the learning experience would be more relaxing and motivation stimulating. In class, the game was so interesting. A student stood in front of the class and the teacher gave him a specific word. The student gave hints through “exemplification” or a “generalized word” to his/her classmates. His classmates guessed what word he wanted them to presume according to the hints he provided. For example, the student in front of the class was given the word “Carrot” by the teacher, and then he said, “It is a type of vegetable.” (generalization) and “It is red which rabbit likes”
Another example, the student had the word “Hammer,” and signals his classmate the word was a kind of “Tool for knocking nail” (generalization).

Ling Mei perceived that “paraphrase” can be used under a situation where she would like to help the others in understanding a difficult meaning:

I believed that after my English becomes better; I would rather not use “word coinage” and “generalization.” The usage of “paraphrase” still should be available when I am more proficient in English, because I would use this strategy to explain to the others when telling them a high-level word they haven’t learned yet. I believed that native speakers also used a lot of “paraphrase” strategy in speaking, not because their English was not superior, but because they needed to explain for non-native speakers some words they could not comprehend.

Ling Mei’s perceptions toward “restructuring” and topic avoidance were similar. She felt that both of them interrupted a communication:

As to the restructuring strategy, it made the conversation inarticulate and not fluent. “Restructuring” was like “keeping silence” in topic avoidance strategy because both of them made the whole communication pause in the middle and might confuse our interlocutor suddenly. Both of these two strategies did not predict for our interlocutors that there would be pause or silence in the
In the second interview, Ling Mei believed that the “paraphrase” strategy was applied by the business field most often. Also, she believed that teachers at school apply it to demonstrate deeper concepts for students:

Some experts of professional fields also used “paraphrase” in order to illustrate some terms quite often, because they would like to illustrate in-depth what the term was for some people who were not familiar with his profession. Some English teachers also used “paraphrase” to explain a new word for their students.

In the second interview, Ling Mei perceived that “generalization” and “paraphrase” should be applied in teaching and learning situations:

Languages created through “generalization” and “paraphrase” were facilitated languages. The words used through them were words that everybody could understand easily. They could be used both in learning and teaching. They built for me an impression that I was a person who was amiable and easy to access. A teacher should apply these two communication strategies as teaching strategies to make the difficult knowledge be absorbed by his students easily and quickly.

Ling Mei expounded that she perceived that cooperatively expressing a difficult intended meaning should not be a long-term solution in English.
communication for her. Ling Mei suggested that responsive English learners should try to build more vocabularies in order to express themselves without resorting to too many communication strategies.

Pei Pei Hu

Pei Pei related interlanguage to the method of how the Chinese word creator, Tsang Chieh, created characters. Pei Pei talked about how the cultural backgrounds of the speakers and the listeners were key factors for how people can understand each other. Additionally, Pei Pei perceived that the speech productions of interlanguage were like language that the young people use to interact on the internet.

In the first interview, Pei Pei believed that the “paraphrase” was not helpful for explaining every word:

“Paraphrase” was a strategy that more accurately expressed my intended meaning than meaning replacement that only used a word to express. However, I found it only functional in describing some concrete objects.

When I wanted to describe a conceptual idea or a type of emotion, it was not as undemanding to think of how to describe it. It was more difficult for me to describe things that were invisible.

In the first interview, Pei Pei believed that she would not use “generalization”:

I did not prefer to use “generalization.” My major was animal science. I perceived that generalizing different types of animals as “Animal” was too vague. I perceived that we should use more details and descriptions; at least
we should describe its behavior, characteristics, living habits, or any other specialty in order to make our speech more logical or reasonable.

Pei Pei described that the language generated through “word coinage” was like “Mars Language”:

My languages produced through “word coinage” might not be comprehended quickly by foreigners, because I usually translated Chinese thinking in mind into English as a newly created word. For example, I would say “Record Sound Tape” to represent tape. Words created through “word coinage” were like some “Mars Languages” that were prevalent on the internet. You had to think for a while and then you would be able to figure out what it meant. Some of them were very strange and not comprehensible. An example of this kind of language, “ORZ” meant “Admire Very Much.” It looks like a person, who is bending the knees and worshiping.

Pei Pei believed that the “restructuring” was not easy to use:

“Restructuring” was very hard for me. I was nervous and stressed when I changed my plan in the middle of a sentence. I might require many in-class practices in order to use this strategy naturally. This strategy might be useful for those people who could react to a difficult meaning in a short time.

In the second interview, Pei Pei perceived that she refered to the method of Chinese work maker, Tsang Chieh’s method, and created interlanguage:
I perceived that I refer to the word-constructing method of Tsang Chieh, who created Chinese characters to use communication strategies. After analyzing the insightful meaning of a single word, I used two or more words to describe a single word. Chinese characters were created by combining different meanings into a word. For example, 武 (military) was combined with the two words of “stop 止” and “halberd 戈,” which meant a soldier should stop the wrong thing from happening with his halberd. I used the similar way when I applied all the strategies in interlanguage.

Pei Pei talked about an underlying principle wherein she believed the interlanguage and “Mars Language” were pretty similar.

I perceived that interlanguage and “Mars Language” were very much similar because both of them had a sense of humor to me. They should be both welcome by teenagers or young generations. In addition, when using one word of interlanguage or “Mars Language,” the listeners should be able to figure out the expanded meaning.

I think that Mars Language and interlanguage are similar because both of interlanguage and “Mars Language” are welcome by the young. People at a younger age do not have high English proficiency, so they would use more interlanguage than the elders. Moreover, younger people usually like to persuade fashion; therefore, they would use fashionable slang when talking to peers.
When compared to the reduction set of communication strategies, the interlanguage and cooperation strategies in the achievement set were regarded by most students as imperative in English communication. As displayed in Figure 4.4., for the fourth strategy, interlanguage, all of the seven students perceived that it was a profitable and accessible one that they would like to learn. Some students answered that they believed that interlanguage was uncomplicated because the strategies “generalization,” “paraphrase,” “word coinage,” and “restructuring,” made their language structure similar to the structures of their native language. They perceived that this strategy assisted them in facilely engaging it by referring to the structures of Chinese characters.

Students had positive attitudes for the strategies of interlanguage. Most of the
students offered their tips on how they used interlanguage to produce speech, which obviously was related to their own language and cultural backgrounds. Some students did not tend to stand on any “pro” or “con” position for the application of communication strategy. However, they shared their interesting perceptions and in-class learning experiences of communication strategies.

Research Question Five

What Do Taiwanese University Students Perceive in Learning the Cooperation Strategy?

Among the seven respondents, Sung Ru, Cheng Chih, Jiun Sheng, Jian Guo, Tien Long, and Ling Mei clearly provided positive feedback regarding learning the cooperation strategy as part of the findings from the fifth research question in this study. Jiun Sheng and Ling Mei expressed their face problem when appealing for assistance from others, but they still held a cooperative attitude in that communication was important and necessary. Pei Pei perceived that when using cooperation strategy, the communication would become similar to a discussion instead of a conversation. Furthermore, Pei Pei talked about when she had learned cooperation strategy before entering the university.

Sung Ru Liu

Sung Ru mentioned that she would not use cooperation strategy in her daily life, but also that she would use it when going overseas. Sung Ru believed that the cooperation strategy contributed to both learning and friendship. In the first interview, Sung Ru answered:

I used cooperation strategy in my daily life, especially when my classmates
asked me what our home assignments were. It was nice to help each other and learn together. As a student, I believed that it was necessary that we asked and learned from the others things we did not know.

After graduating from school, I would study in the other countries, and working in the society, I would be more confident to talk using the cooperation strategy. I liked to help the others. When helping the others, I was happy.

In the second interview, Sung Ru talked about the advantage of the cooperation strategy:

Cooperation strategy contributed not only to learning, but also to friendship between me and my classmates. I made more friends when using this strategy in group discussions. Through cooperation strategy, I gained more opportunities to interact with each other. Through appealing for assistance from the others and helping the others by clarifying their doubts, my classmates and I knew each other much better than before.

Sung Ru mentioned why she could use the cooperation strategy well. Sung Ru was influenced greatly by her elementary school teacher. Her teacher was a creative teacher who played music while teaching class. This teacher encouraged her to make more friends instead of being alone. Sung Ru became more outgoing and open-minded after being taught by her teacher.
Cheng Chih Chen

Cheng Chih presented his perceptions of learning cooperation strategy, which was focused on the advantages he received from using the strategy. Cheng Chih perceived that the cooperation strategy helped him to make a comprehension check. Cheng Chih also perceived that those who were willing to use cooperation strategies were learners who had higher motivation for learning. In the first interview, Cheng Chih answered:

Cooperation strategy was a good strategy to learn. It was a strategy that taught us to prove our comprehension and complete the comprehension check with our interlocutors. Furthermore, it was like exchanging information and knowledge with our partners in communication. My perception to “appealing for help” was that it had a function of learning. I perceived that a common conclusion made through this strategy pushed two sides and reconfirmed that their thinking was exactly the same.

In the second interview, Cheng Chih talked about his perceptions toward his classmates who applied cooperation strategy:

For my classmates who tended to use a lot of cooperation strategy, I believed that those were students who had stronger learning motivation. Usually, they were not afraid of losing face, and they thought appealing for help was just for a purpose of learning.
Cheng Chih conveyed, when doing a chemistry experiment in a lab, that he perceived the advantages of cooperation. When doing an experiment in a group of 5 to 7, some people observed the target objects under the microscope; some people reported the result in writing, and some people orally presented the findings in the class. Cheng Shih further explained his perceptions:

In the situation of communication, the cooperation strategy contributed to learning new words he did not know. Similarly, in the situation of doing an experiment, the cooperation strategy made everyone gain a chance to acknowledge information deeply from the experiment.

Jiun Sheng Chang

In the second interview, Jiun Sheng expressed that he encountered the face problem during his experiences of learning cooperation strategies. Jiun Sheng perceived a loss of face when “appealing for assistance” from the others. Jiun Sheng believed that his male classmates should have similar problems. In the first interview, Jiun Sheng expressed that he had to resort to a sense of humor in order to use cooperation strategy.

When using cooperation strategy, I sometimes worried that my partners would think that my English was in a low level, so I could not directly appeal for assistance from them. I used some sense of humor when I asked them how to say a word. For example, I said, “Let me test you. Tell me. How I should
read this word!” in order to cover my embarrassment caused from asking for help.

Jiun Sheng mentioned the advantages that he received from the cooperation strategy.

I was happy when someone wanted me to teach them. In class, I perceived my classmates’ appreciation when responding to their questions. I was pleased that my English was good enough for the others to rely on me. I was a passionate person when I aggressively clarified for the others some difficult words they didn’t know.

Jiun Sheng also perceived that the cooperation strategy would let him increase his friendship with classmates.

It was opportunity for interaction, learning, and assisting, so we later became good friends.

Jiun Sheng held his positive attitude for the cooperation strategy. He described some opportunities to give the others a hand. In contrast, he also was worried when his interlocutors asked him a word with which he was not acquainted:

In group discussion, I was proud that someone asked me a word I learned before. However, I also had a perception that if someone asked me a difficult word which I did not know, I would be very abashed and frustrated. When
this happened very frequently, I perceived losing my face in front of my classmates.

Jiun Sheng perceived losing face when he could not answer his classmate’s question. Jiun Sheng believed that most Taiwanese males would have the same face problem as he stated:

Taiwanese males should have a very strong sense of self-respect. Hence, many of them did not like to ask the others questions. They did not like to have an impression that they need to rely on the others. For me, I preferred asking my teachers questions instead of asking my peers. I was not sure if my peers could give me a right answer when I appealed for assistance from them. Therefore, I would appeal for assistance only from people whom I trusted.

Jiun Sheng recounted what were the important characteristics that he needed to maintain when taking a male role:

I needed to talk more like a man. My speaking tone needed to be stable and firm. The voice needed to be much louder than a woman. I should not argue for the trivial disagreements. Also, I tended not to impose a difficult task on my interlocutors, especially female partners.

Jiun Sheng described why he intended to build a powerful male impression during talking; Jiun Sheng emphasized that he would not appeal for assistance, especially
There were two factors why I developed my talking behaviors to be male-dominated. First, I perceived that it was my mature speaking pattern, which was developed gradually and naturally. Second, I was influenced by my friends. Among my male friends, a high percentage of them talked in a very powerful way, which made others perceive that they were generous, earsplitting, and commanding. Hence, it was impossible to imagine how I and my chap friends would appeal for assistance from the females when we were talking like this.

Jian Guo Huang

Jian Guo believed the application of cooperation strategy should be combined with the other strategies. Jian Guo pointed out that he would clarify a vague meaning through using the cooperation strategy. Jian Guo used cooperation strategy to reconfirm the meanings. In the first week, Jian Guo emphasized that the cooperation strategy should be employed after someone used the interlanguage strategy.

After I conveyed a meaning with interlanguage strategy, the cooperation strategy could be applied for making an accurate meaning and learning a new vocabulary. I believed that interlanguage made you formulate your intended meaning successfully and the “cooperation” was like a springboard, which made you jump higher and put the meaning in words more accurately.
Cooperation upgraded your English proficiency immediately in a win-win way. In my learning experience, I usually used interlanguage to explain my meaning and then I used cooperation strategy to ask the others if they knew what the correct word was. Sometimes, I would be able to learn a new word promptly. From my learning experience, I believed that the interlanguage should be applied with the “cooperation” strategy in order to achieve the purposes of accurate expressing and aggressive learning.

Jian Guo believed that the application of the cooperation strategy should contribute to the international trade for Taiwan:

Cooperation strategy had to be applied, especially when you were talking to the foreigners. Nowadays, there are a lot of foreigners coming to Taiwan do different things. Communication with people outside of Taiwan becomes very common. Since there are so many Taiwanese people doing business with foreigners, we have to appeal for their assistance whenever encountering any vague information they convey to us.

Jian Guo told the researchers why he could use the cooperation strategy very well after learning the strategy. Jian Guo said it was because of the influences he received from his parents and from teachers. Jian Guo was taught to get along well with his brothers, sisters, and classmates. Jian Guo also imitated his parents’ and teachers’ cooperative social forms, and learned how to compromise with the others.

Tien Long Lee
Tien Long perceived that he gained a mood of attainment when learning cooperation strategy. Also, Tien Long offered this reason why students should cooperate with each other when learning English communication:

Cooperation strategy was necessary and important. In class, we discussed in group and helped each other through the cooperation strategy. I gained a mood of attainment when my classmate appealed for assistance. Also, I detected I was like a mentor or a counselor when my classmate learned a word from me.

The reason why the cooperation strategy was important was because I had to learn from the others, and no one was perfect. Cooperation meant helping the others out when s/he needed to make clear what he had to know.

Tien Long expressed that in a working situation, the cooperation strategy should be applied more often. At the same time, it was necessary to observe whether the interlocutors would be comfortable answering questions or not:

In a company, colleagues and workers should apply cooperation strategies frequently to learn how to work more efficiently. All information and details should be conveyed and received accurately in a working place where English is used. When appealing for help from the others, we should consider whether our partners are comfortable to answer us or not. For example, I observed if my partners had sufficient time to answer, and if his/her English was at an advanced level. Also, I believed that we should pay attention and tried not to
bother the others when using the “cooperation” strategy.

Tien Long suggested that besides simply asking what a word meant, some description or guessing about the word also was needed. This would allow a person to request assistance from others in answering the questions. Tien Long suggested the cooperation strategy should be applied this way:

In my learning experience for the cooperation strategy, I should not only ask our partners a specific difficult word. It would be better if I also could describe that difficult word and ask our partners a correct word. When all the group members were not able to answer, we appealed to our teacher for support.

In Tien Long’s second interview, he used his imagination and provided his impression of the cooperation strategy:

Cooperation was a strategy that the basketball coach used, which made the players, cooperate with each other and draw on the strength of each other to offset the weakness of the other. In learning English, my classmates helped each other and finally achieved their common purpose of learning and communication.

Ling Mei Fang

Ling Mei stated the cooperation strategy should be useful when learning at school, but it might be not applicable in a competitive working situation. In the first
interview, she revealed her perceptions of learning the cooperation strategy, when talking about the issues of motivation and the face problem:

If you worked in a foreign company, you could not use cooperation to ask your boss a question because what he needed was a professional and smart person. He would not want you asking him questions or resolving problems for him. Your boss would not answer your questions. This strategy made the others think you were not smart and professional. Therefore, I perceived this strategy could be used with friends and classmates in their daily lives, instead of in the professional field. It made the others think that you were only an amateur because you did not know how to say a term in your field in English.

In the first interview, Ling Mei recommended that the cooperation strategies should be applied:

From my learning of the cooperation strategy, this strategy was a nice method that deals with an emergency in communication. This method could be applied in a situation where your partner would like to talk to you. But when encountering a more serious topic or when the other’s willingness to talk was not high, this strategy was unsuitable to use. In class practicing, I used the cooperation strategy when I perceived that my partner had trouble expressing a word. I helped him find an exact word or explained for him what he wanted to say and made him continue to talk.
In the first interview, Ling Mei mentioned her face problem when using the cooperation strategy:

I was shy to appeal for assistance. I worried that my classmates again and again would explain for me, and I still could not understand. I worried that my classmates thought I was not smart or felt it was wasting time.

In the second interview, Ling Mei perceived that the cooperation strategy contributed to her learning through interacting with her classmates:

I believed that the cooperation strategy was helpful in learning because you immediately could ask your partner a word you did not know. When you asked the others, you learned a new word. On the other hand, when you were asked by the others, you obtained an opportunity to review the word again. Also, when you listen to the others asking a difficult word, you got an opportunity to self-exam if you really had caught the meaning of that word. Cooperation strategy had a function of interaction, which contributed to effective learning.

Ling Mei stated that the cooperation strategy should be applied only in a status of learning. Ling Mei had experienced that asking for assistance in a working situation showed a weakness in the employee:

I used to have a colleague when I was working as a part-time employee. She
asked me too many questions, and I perceived her anxiety and incapability. Therefore, I believed that it should be important not to request assistance from the others when working together.

Pei Pei Hu

Pei Pei did not share much information about her perceptions for the cooperation strategy. Pei Pei only talked about how communication became similar to an in-class discussion but not in a daily life conversation:

When using cooperation strategy, it was like I was discussion with my classmates in a seminar. My classmates and I exchanged information and knowledge and learned from each other at the same time. It was also more like a “discussion” situation. It is more complex than just a simple communication situation.

Pei Pei expressed that cooperation was a foundation of friendship and, within cooperation, there would be no misunderstanding and doubts among friends. Pei Pei advised that whenever any doubts appeared when communicating with anyone, the behavior of clarifying should emerge, especially during doubts in communication. Pei Pei remarked that she had observed that the spirit of cooperation would be found without difficulty in the situations of playing balls, such as playing baseball, softball, or basketball. In the athletics class at school, she enjoyed cooperating with her classmates and playing ball with them. Pei Pei pointed out when the members in a team can cooperate with each other; this team would win over the other side easier.
For the fifth strategy, cooperation, the seven students commented on it differently. Through referring to Figure 4.5, although all of the 7 students thought it was expedient in English communication, two of them (Jiun Sheng and Ling Mei) pointed out that they might not avail themselves of it in some situations out of class. Jiun Sheng believed he could not apply it when talking to women. Ling Mei perceived “appealing for assistance” in the “cooperation” strategy could be used only in learning situations at school, but not in competitive occupational fields. Why the above 2 respondents perceived that cooperation strategy could not be applied in the occupation field or to women was because they believed it might cause them to lose face because of the commercial principles and traditions in Taiwan. Most Taiwanese regard confident and independence are important qualities in working.

The fifth finding had shown that most students appreciate their learning
experience of the cooperation strategies. The results indicated that Taiwanese university students interpreted their perceptions for the cooperation strategy differently according to their various personalities. Some of them mentioned that the face problems challenge their application of the cooperation strategy. Some of them discussed whether the cooperation strategy should be applied in a working situation. After analyzing, students tended to believe this strategy contributed to their language learning rather than practicing English communication outside of school.
CHAPTER V

THEMES

This study was designed to explore students’ perceptions about learning five communication strategies. Taiwanese students’ responses about their learning experiences of five communication strategies were explored. In general, their perceptions toward learning communication strategies collected using a qualitative format revealed that students’ perceptions of strategy application were related to the themes of comprehensibility, intentionality, politeness, first language, face-saving, interlanguage system, time-saving, and key-words. Given the paucity of qualitative studies in the field of communication strategy, especially regarding students’ perceptions of each communication strategy, inquiring into students’ psychological levels is quite significant in order to gain a profound understanding about how Taiwanese university students value the usages in two sets of communication strategies.

Discussion of Perceptions

The major research question for exploring students’ perceptions and experiences of learning communication strategies was: What do Taiwanese university students perceive in learning Faerch and Kasper’s (1983c) five communication strategies. Based on each communication strategy, this chapter revealed the themes emerged from findings of students’ perceptions and experiences. The following paragraphs in this chapter were composed with the themes associated with the five specific research questions for five communication strategies, which were conceptualized through the comparison analysis method. In the discussions of the emerged themes, each conceptualized and concluded theme mostly was repeated
by more than one respondent. That is to say, the recognized themes were significant and could not be ignored because they were not a single individual’s opinions or biased concepts.

Themes Emerged from Students’ Perceptions about the Topic Avoidance Strategy

This study revealed that the seven respondents made a connection between “politeness” and “keeping silence” in their interviews. Students at Tunghai University mentioned that it is important to consider politeness in communication. Although they agreed that changing topic was necessary, they did not support the technique of “keeping silence.”

Sung Ru mentioned politeness was her habit since she was a pupil. Sung Ru believed that being patient was obligatory when encountering trouble in a topic. Cheng Chih suggested that using “polite language” to change the topics might be a better skill than just “keeping silence.” Jiun Sheng was embarrassed if he kept his silence, so he proposed that at least “Mmm…,” or “Ohh….” sounds needed to be articulated in order to inform the speaker that the topic was not attractive. Jain Guo suggested gradually, rather than totally, changing a topic was a strategy he would use. He believed ignoring an ongoing topic might not be appropriate in communication.

Additionally, Ling Mei perceived that she politely had to say “I might not like this topic” or “I have a need to change this topic” when asking to change the topics. Pei Pei addressed that she needed to be polite when changing topics, especially in an international situation or a formal situation. Pei Pei’s opinion about politeness in communication was that the requester should say, “Excuse me” or “I am sorry” before expressing his/her need to change a topic. More than two cases had implied an indirect but a clear way of requesting a change in topic should be a more
appropriate way of interacting. Similarly, in Leech’s (1983) pragmatic principle of politeness, the indirect way of requesting was recommended as a better pattern than a direct request. However, how to find a polite, clear and an indirect way of expressing intended willingness of changing topic becomes a difficult task in upgrading the usages of communication strategies.

In Figure 5.1., major theme was “keeping silence” did not convey the signal the topic was boring. Jain Guo suggested the interlocutors should inform speakers aggressively and verbally. The third theme was topic avoidance provided a function of protecting the student’s privacy. Tien Long and Ling Mei mentioned they would use it to get rid of topics offended their privacy. Generally speaking, themes analyzed and concluded from the first research question were associated with issues of “politeness,” “verbally and directly informing the need,” and “privacy.”

**FIGURE 5.1.**
Themes Associated with the Topic Avoidance Strategy
Themes Emerged from Students’ Perceptions about the Message Abandonment Strategy

This study suggested that the issue of “time-saving” was associated with students’ decision to use the message abandonment strategy in communication. Also, it revealed that the message abandonment strategy might offer a function of saving face.

First of all, Sung Ru’s feedback actually suggested that when the discussion time is longer, the message abandonment strategy would be used less frequently by the students. The reason is that if the students were allowed to speak with sufficient time, the other strategies, such as the restructuring strategy, interlanguage strategy, or cooperation strategy should be allowed to be relaxingly applied by learners so that the message abandonment would not be as useful.

In addition, Jiun Sheng observed that when the in-class group discussion time assigned by the lecturer was not long enough, many students frequently abandoned messages that were not understood by their partners. Interestingly, Jiun Sheng observed a systematic relation between the use of abandonment strategy and time limitations in class discussions. Jiun Sheng perceived that, when the class discussion time allowed by the trainer was not long enough, his classmates would resort to abandonment strategy more often and not try to explain or describe the high-level lexis. Because the students did not have enough time to contemplate how to express themselves, they chose to omit the message they thought would be too time-consuming.

Furthermore, the second major theme for the second research question was that using the message abandonment strategy might save face for lower-level
proficiency English learners. Sung Ru perceived the abandonment strategy had a wondrous function of keeping her from losing face. Sung Ru revealed that she was allowed that she did not have to explain a challenging word, which might compel her interlocutors to laugh at her because the word would be incredibly unproblematic for them. Sung Ru said that she perceived her classmates and teacher might doubt why she did not know how to say this simple word. Sung Ru worried that if she explained what a difficult word was for her and an easy word for her discussion partners or her teacher; she might be failed or graded as a lower-level student in her course. Hence, Sung Ru appreciated the opportunity to learn the message abandonment strategy, which saved her from losing face many times.

The third significant theme of the second research question was that the key word could not be abandoned easily because it might make the whole communication lose its focus. In the interviews, Jain Guo, Pei Pei, and Jiun Sheng all perceived in the same way and argued that no matter which words were abandoned; the key words had to be explained clearly by resorting to the other strategies.

As you can see in Figure 5.2., overall, themes emerged from the second research question were mainly associated with the themes of “time-saving,” “face-saving,” and “key word.” Besides, some students (Sung Ru, Cheng Chih, and Jiun Sheng) were free when using the abandonment strategy because their doubts were clear, and they would be able to continue to talk.
Themes Emerged from the Students’ Perceptions about the Meaning Replacement Strategy

Students’ perceptions about the third research question suggested that the theme of “comprehensibility” was associated strongly with students’ perceptions of the meaning replacement strategy. Furthermore, the issue of intentionality as well as the automatic reaction to the strategy application also was mentioned by a student (Sung Ru). Finally, some students pointed out that the language generated through the message replacement strategy could be influenced greatly by the individual’s cultural and linguistic background.

All seven students agreed that the meaning replacement strategy would contribute to their communication. The students’ various types of descriptions for the comprehensible speeches produced by the message replacement strategy could be
found. Students reflected that the speeches generated through the meaning replacement strategy were similar to slang (Cheng Chih), as translations of Chinese idiom or an interlanguage system in mind (Jiun Sheng), or as interlanguage (Ling Mei).

The theme of “intentionality” was implied by Sung Ru. Sung Ru perceived that, whenever she encountered a condition where she could not use the replacement strategy successfully, she turned on the strategy of message abandonment. Sung Ru mentioned that she needed at least 30 seconds to figure out how to use a simpler word. If Sung Ru perceived that discussion time assigned by the trainer was not sufficient or her classmates had noticed that she was too stressed when thinking how to construct the expression, she automatically resorted to the abandonment strategy to release herself.

Importantly, Tien Long and Ling Mei pointed out that the English speakers from different areas created language through the meaning replacement strategy from their own perspectives, which were based on the perspectives of their own cultures or their mother tongue. Therefore, the language generated through meaning replacement might not be comprehended easily or accepted by people from different cultural or linguistic backgrounds.

Besides, Sung Ru offered some of her suggestions for using it. Sung Ru believed that accurate grammar and pronunciation would enhance the comprehensibility for the speech production generated through meaning replacement. Also, Sung Ru suggested that a long-term practice would make the learners apply it in an easier way. As can be seen in Figure 5.3., the themes that emerged from the third research questions were constructed by “comprehensibility,” “intentionality,”
and “individual’s own interpretation.”

**FIGURE 5.3.**

Themes Associated with the Meaning Replacement Strategy

![Diagram of themes associated with the Meaning Replacement Strategy]

*Themes Emerged from the Students’ Perceptions about the Interlanguage Strategy*

Through a glance in Figure 5.4. of page 170, this study revealed that most respondents related the interlanguage strategy with themes of “mother tongue,” and “intentionality.” Besides, some of the students also emphasized that interlanguage strategy was suitable and effective when they were introducing their own cultures to foreigners in Taiwan. Finally, some students perceived that the application of the interlanguage strategy could be affected strongly by the speakers’ personalities.

First of all, most of the students revealed how they had applied their own native languages, Mandarin or Taiwanese, in order to plan and process their speech productions through interlanguage. For instance, Cheng Chih demonstrated how he
deconstructed Chinese characters and words and transformed them into new English words through the skill of “word coinage” in the interlanguage strategy. He was familiar with how the Chinese words were originally invented. Therefore, he easily demonstrated his ability in using interlanguage. Cheng Chih talked about how he implemented interlanguage through Tsang-Chieh’s methods of “creating through pronunciation,” and “creating through deconstruction.”

Likewise, Pei Pei displayed how she borrowed the word-creating method of Tsang Chieh, the ancient Chinese word creator, in order to generate her speeches through interlanguage strategy. Another student, Ling Mei also stated that whenever she translated a Chinese idiom into English, the people from Chinese backgrounds would comprehend it more quickly and correctly. Since most people from Chinese backgrounds have been educated with Ancient Chinese literatures, or philosophical stories developing the Chinese idioms, they could understand the profound meaning of the translated idioms. In contrast, the native English speakers might not catch it easily because of their lack of background knowledge of idiom origins.

Apparently, Cheng Chih, Pei Pei, and Ling Mei felt that the ability to create words and the ability to comprehend the speech productions created through interlanguage were controlled greatly by their proficiency in their native language, Chinese. At the same time, these abilities of understanding each other also were affected by the Chinese literal knowledge of the interlocutors’ mother tongue. The better the interlocutors’ proficiency is, the more effectively the communication can be controlled.

As to the theme of “intentionality” as well as the systematic reaction to the usages in communication strategies, Cheng Chih’s perceptions toward the systematic
translation from Chinese to English did explain why interlanguage has been activated in Asian societies. Non-native speakers from the same speech community tend to practice the usages in interlanguage because they used foreign languages as well as mother tongues to think.

Importantly, the intentionality displayed by Cheng Chih was that he would use interlanguage to handle the condition where his culture needed to be introduced. Cheng Chih’s case explained why people in Asia, systematically and gradually, develop various forms of English, including Chinglish, Singalish, and Taiwanlish as well as interlanguage systems. Indeed, these three new types of Englishes (Chinglish, Singalish, and Taiwanlish) are intended by Chinese people and can be spoken and comprehended systematically, even automatically.

Four students in this study (Sung Ru, Cheng Chih, Tien Long, and Ling Mei) believed that the interlanguage strategy would contribute to their communication fluency when they needed to introduce Taiwanese culture. The informal speeches generated through interlanguage would assist them in interpreting specific objects related to the cultures of Taiwan since some words about Taiwanese culture might not be found very easily in the dictionary or contents of their textbooks. Besides, some students (Sung Ru and Tien Long) observed that users of this strategy usually had personalities that were braver in facing challenge, more creative, or more humorous than the other students in the same class.

Major themes of the 4th research question were thinking through “mother tongue,” and “intentionality” of speaking within Chinese society. “Cultural orientation,” when using Interlanguage and “personalities” associated with the capabilities of creating Interlanguage were perceived by language learners.
Themes Emerged from Students’ Perceptions about the Cooperation Strategy

Major themes that emerged from the fifth research question were “face-saving,” “friendship,” and “function of the strategy.” Students with different views provided their similar feelings, which were concluded in Figure 5.5.

First of all, students held two positions about the theme of “face-saving” associated with the application of the cooperation strategy. Some students (Cheng Chih and Pei Pei) emphasized that they would ask questions without worrying about losing face because their partners would understand it was under a status of learning. Contrastingly, Jiun Sheng and Ling Mei suggested not using this strategy too frequently because it might make them lose face due to their gender identity or working situation.
Jiun Sheng said he perceived he was embarrassed when appealing for aid from interlocutors. He believed that many Chinese males should have a common concern of “face-problem,” since Chinese males tended to build a more powerful impression than females. Traditionally, Chinese males also tended to make females think that males should be relied on but would not rely on others. Jiun Sheng called attention to how he modified and regulated his language for saving face when using the cooperation strategy. Jiun Sheng stated that he usually applied the cooperation strategy covertly and employed a sense of humor to hide his shyness.

The other case related to losing face was when Ling Mei perceived that she lost her confidence in asking her partners about words she did not know through the cooperation strategy. Ling Mei was worried and anxious that she still would not understand the meaning of a difficult word after her interlocutors explained it to her too many times. Ling Mei also worried that the others might think she was not clever after the words had been explained fully.

From a different view, Sung Ru believed that the application of the cooperation strategy had nothing to do with losing face; she pointed out that learning with her partners provided opportunities for her to make more friends. Sung Ru enjoyed the newly established friendships through helping the others understand what she meant and asking questions when she encountered problems. In comparison, Pei Pei perceived that using the cooperation strategy frequently was like interacting and resolving tough problems in a seminar. She believed that cooperation was a foundation of friendship.

Besides, Jain Guo and Cheng Chih argued that the cooperation strategy provided them a more complex function, which can be combined with the other
strategies to achieve the purpose of mutual understanding. Jian Guo tended to apply the cooperation strategy with interlanguage, and Cheng Chih tended to apply it for reconfirming his comprehension for simplified meanings expressed by partners.

Using cooperation strategy, language could become non-native like, or speakers might lose face. Most of the students agreed that interlanguage strategies offered them an access to express the concepts which were established through their mother tongue. Furthermore, it provided a second chance to make a comprehension check after a vague meaning was received.

**FIGURE 5.5.**
Themes Associated with the Cooperation Strategy

---

**Conclusions**

The themes conceptualized from the five research questions were overlapped and mentioned by more than one or two students. An idea mentioned by only one
student was not regarded as a significant theme in this study.

Throughout the two 90-minute interviews after 5 and 10 weeks of trainings, students’ perceptions can be expanded into 8 themes that are discussed theoretically by the prestigious scholars and researchers in the field of language learning or communication strategies (e.g., Bialystok, 1990; Faerch & Kasper, 1983c; 1984; Kocoglu, 1997; Krashen, 1988; Leech, 1983; MacIntyre, Clement, Dornyei & Noels, 1998; Rababah, 2002a, 2002b, 2002c, 2002d, 2003; Siennicki, 2000; Tarone, 1983, Vygotsky, 1987; Wannaruk, 2006; Watts, Ide & Ehlih, 1992; Watzel, 1998; Yoshida-Morise, 1998). Several themes, such as face-saving and foreign like language (native language) were very much emphasized by previous scholars in the field of communication strategies (Faerch & Kasper, 1983c, Tarone, 1980).

Based on several significant theories related to second language learning and the research findings of face-saving and native language issues in the field of communication strategy that previous researchers had contributed, chapter VI revealed and discussed the expanded 8 issues retrieved from the findings of the five research questions. They were about issues of comprehension, politeness, intentionality, native language, face-saving, interlanguage system, time-saving, and keywords.

Each issue was discussed by at least two students or more. Also, some students related a same theme to different strategies. How the students reflected their perceptions with the 8 themes was displayed in Figure 5.6. as follows.
FIGURE 5.6.
Major Themes Retrieved from Students’ Perceptions

Major Themes

- Comprehension in Speeches
- Politeness & Appropriateness
- Intentionality in Communication
- Native Language & Interlanguage Strategy
- Face-Saving
- Time-Saving
- Interlanguage System
- Key Words
CHAPTER VI

DISCUSSIONS, SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study argued that English educators of communication strategies should respect the learners’ perceptions and choices of learning, and use communication strategies instead of forcing students to accept all the alternative methods of English communication. Faerch and Kasper (1983c) mentioned, “Communicating is a problem-solving activity and one which requires skillful planning and choice on the part of the speaker.” (p. 12) Additionally, Krashen (1982) argued that a positive attitude definitely is necessary during learning. When the English learners have a sense of confidence, lower anxiety, and higher motivation in their academic experience, they would be able to gain more language while taking a class. Therefore, this study recommended that learners be allowed to discern which communication strategies they would be more competent using, and would be more willing to use, so they competently and relaxingly can use those strategies to resolve their communication problems.

Consequently, the qualitative design of this study intended to provide Taiwanese university students with an opportunity to probe their own perceptions associated with their personal willingness, plan, and choice of using communication strategies. After being interviewed by the researcher, seven Taiwanese university students were explicit about their own preference, intentionality, and decision about how they would take advantage of communication strategies after learning them.

Discussions

The findings of this study pertained to students’ learning experiences and perceptions about five communication strategies. The results voiced students’
impressions about each skill in five communication strategies and their different reasons why these skills were or were not accommodating or acceptable based on their feelings. Some of their reflections had been debated in previous studies. Some of them were whole new discoveries on their part. Overall, students were willing to use most of the learned strategies.

Because this study adopted a comparison method of analysis, most of the displayed subjects shared commonly repeated feelings. Regarding to several more assorted themes offered by only one student or discussed by students too slightly, this study did not categorize them into findings and discussions. These assorted themes were regarded as the abnormal outliers, which might have an inverse effect on the accuracy of the central findings in this study. This study included only concepts related to the findings that were clearly reflected and emphasized by at least two respondents.

The issues of comprehension, politeness, intentionality, native language, face-saving, and teachability had been addressed in previous studies (Bialystok, 1990; Dornyei, 1995; Faerch & Kasper, 1983c, 1984; Selinker, 1972; Vygotsky, 1987; Wannaruk, 2006). Some students’ perceptions, attitudes, and beliefs as well as the issues in this study that had hardly ever been discussed and researched in this field, also were revealed. These issues were about interlanguage system, affective filter, time-saving and key word issues in using communication strategy.

Comprehension in Speeches

While the students argued the importance of expressing their intended meaning, the theme of comprehension in speech also was emphasized by students when they reflected their perceptions about the topic avoidance strategy, meaning
replacement strategy, interlanguage strategy, and cooperation strategy. Many of them pointed out how they tried to make the other understand their intended meaning. The subject matter of comprehension had been addressed implicitly by Vygosky (1987): “Speech cannot be separated from understanding. This inseparability of speech and understanding is manifested identically in both social use of language as a means of communication and in its individual use as a means of thinking.” (p. 50) Besides, Tarone (1983) also argued that achieving comprehensive talk was one of the chief purposes in communication. He proposed a definition for communication strategies from a comprehensive perspective, “…a mutual attempt of two interlocutors to agree on a meaning in situations where requisite meaning structures are not shared.” (Tarone, 1983, p. 3)

Responsively, all seven students agreed that topic avoidance was a strategy they would like to apply because they believed the active understandable interaction on a familiar topic was more imperative than just pretending they understood. Students offered several suggestions on how to select topics based on interlocutors’ background. Similarly, although the speech productions generated through meaning replacement might be indistinguishable, after all, would contribute to the intellectual capacity of the intended connotation. Students emphasized that they would use interlanguage and cooperation strategies although the speech could become non-native like, or they might lose face. The reason was that applying them would improve interlocutors’ level of comprehending during communication. Most students perceived Interlanguage offered them an access to express concepts they had established through mother tongue. The cooperation strategies provided them a second chance to make a comprehension check after a vague meaning was received.
Language learners pointed out meaning replacement might make the speech imprecise; they as a final point would attain their goal of expressing intended meanings.

**Politeness**

The issue of politeness was mentioned a great deal in the first findings of this study. Taiwanese university language learners believed “topic avoidance” was not an appropriate strategy, not only because it did not express clearly their need to change the topic, but keeping silence could cause confusion during verbally interaction.

Actually, the issue of politeness in communication was regarded as significant both in the east and west. According to Confucius (551-479 BCE), anyone who possesses the fine virtues of politeness, tolerance, generosity, honesty, diligence, and benevolence would be regarded as a person of humanity. He persuaded Chinese people to be polite because politeness saved one from insults by others. In Analects of Confucius, he noted that, “Without politeness, the respectfulness becomes laborious bustle. Without politeness, the carefulness becomes timidity. Without politeness, the courage becomes insubordination. Without politeness, the frankness becomes rudeness.” (Confucius, BC 500, Taibo) He argued, “If it is not polite, don’t listen to it; if it is not polite, don’t say it” (Confucius, BC 500, Yenyun).

In comparison, Brown and Levinson (1987) and Leech (1983) in the west also emphasized the importance of politeness in communication. Leech (1983) provided pragmatic principles for gaining politeness. Brown and Levinson (1987) pointed out if the speeches were not articulated in a polite way, they might cause potential face-threatening situations, especially in the speech acts of requests and invitations.

In this study, many students discussed the importance of politeness for the
strategy of topic avoidance. Their statement was similar to Watts, Ide, and Ehlih’s (1992) notion of politeness. They believed that the form of politeness might not need to be formal, yet the sense of respect can be felt. Watts, Ide, and Ehlih (1992) asserted there were countless polite expressions in different cultures around the world. They conceived that politeness could be expressed by both verbal and non-verbal communications. Sometimes, a tap on the shoulder would mean more than a thousand words. Likewise, to look your interlocutor in the eyes, or to smile at him/her could show your expressions of politeness and your altitude of education. Similarly, in Leech’s (1983) pragmatic principle of politeness, the indirect way of requesting was recommended as a better pattern than a direct request.

**Intentionality**

Students’ perceptions related to the replacement strategy and the interlanguage strategy had responded to Faerch and Kasper’s (1983c) theory of “intentionality.” Faerch and Kasper (1983c) explained intentionality was, “…the speaker has control over the strategy that is selected, and the choice is responsive to the perceived problem.” (p. 5) In the theory of “intentionality,” Faerch and Kasper (1983c) emphasized, “The implication of communication strategies being intentional is that there would be systematic relations between the use of specific communication strategies and specific conditions of the communicative situation.” (p. 5)

Language learners had talked about their problems of “comprehension,” “face-saving,” “struggling process,” and “time-saving,” which were the major factors that influenced the students, use or non-use of a certain strategy. They explained their intentionality in choosing strategies. Their reasons associated with their methods of
comprehension check, automatic reaction when talking to people from the similar language backgrounds and gender difference in communication did provide evidence for “intentionality” that Faerch and Kasper had argued. The following four cases showing how students chose the strategies explain why the “intentionality” of selecting a certain strategy exists in the communication.

First, Jian Guo stated how he intended to systemize and manage numerous learned skills in order to reach his purpose of expressing himself. In the fourth findings, Jian Guo described how he always combined the usages of interlanguage strategy and cooperation strategy in order to attain a fully comprehensive input during communication. Jian Guo perceived his routine processes he had completed for attaining the comprehensive communication were as follows. First, he would make a comprehension check through cooperation strategy whenever encountering a situation where he received a vague message created through Interlanguage. Second, he would enlighten what the accurate and standard vocabulary was to his partners who expressed it indistinctly in order to attain a function of learning collectively. Jian Guo’s intentionality appearing in communication was that he constantly chose to utilize the cooperation strategy to act in response to a stipulation where a indistinguishable meaning existed in the verbal exchange.

Cheng Chih described how his newly created words displayed his intention that he would translate Chinese to English on every occasion he talked to people who were from a Chinese background. Cheng Chih implied that the English speakers of Chinese societies, such as Taiwan, China, or Singapore, would be accustomed to using the interlanguage strategy analytically and automatically because of pursuing ancestor’s methods of constructing words.
Inspired by Cheng Chih’s perceptions and Faerch and Kasper’s theory of “intentionality,” these forms of English were created under a stipulation where people understood the interlanguage created by interlocutors from analogous backgrounds. The vocalizations generated through interlanguage strategy could be developed systematically, and then repeated and utilized in a homogenous society where people use English to interact in Chinese, Singapore, or Taiwanese societies. The “intentionality” of choosing to use interlanguage should be observed in a condition where culture needs to be introduced or where many interlocutors are from a similar language background as the speakers. That was why the “intentionality” could be found frequently in the common Interlanguage dialogues created by Chinglish, Singalish, and Taiwanlish communities.

Importantly, Jiun Sheng observed a systematic relationship between the use of the abandonment strategy and a condition of time-limited class discussion. Jiun Sheng observed that when the allowed class discussion time was limited, his classmates would apply the abandonment strategy frequently and not try to interpret difficult words. In a word, the intentionality displayed that the Taiwanese university students’ in-class group discussion was skipping over the difficult message in a time-limited condition.

Sung Ru’s perceptions supported Jiun Sheng’s. Sung Ru perceived whenever she encountered a condition where she could not use the replacement strategy successfully, she would turn to the strategy of message abandonment. Sung Ru mentioned that she needed at least 30 seconds to figure out how to use a simpler word. If the discussion time assigned by the trainer was not sufficient or her classmates had noticed she was too stressed when thinking how to construct the
expression, Sung Ru automatically resorted to the abandonment strategy to release herself.

The above examples fitting Faerch and Kasper’s (1983) theoretical foundation provided vivid models of how students intended to systemize their strategy application according to their various internal or external conditions to achieve the highest understandable outcome in EFL communication. From a perspective of a longer practicing term for communication strategies, the researcher believes that the students should develop their routines so that they could depend on their personality and the other situations they might encounter. They should practice to resort automatically to an applicable strategy. That is to say, this study implied that the students should judge how to select the appropriate strategies in relation to the common problems encountered during the communication, to their preferences of a certain strategy, or to their personalities and backgrounds.

Native Language

Most of the students revealed how they had applied their own native languages, Mandarin or Taiwanese, to generate their speech productions through interlanguage. Their illustrative statements actually corresponded to the creator of the communication strategy, Selinker’s definition of “interlanguage.” According to Selinker (1972), “…interlanguage utterances were actual utterances produced by native speakers of the native language when attempting to produce this target language norm.” (p. 227) Actually, the non-native like language and the characteristics of foreign-talk were also mentioned by Tarone (1980). Tarone (1980) emphasized in “Communication strategies, foreigner talk, and repair in interlanguage,” the ability of understanding interlanguage should be important for
Students expressed their ability of linguistics analysis for Chinese characters influenced a lot to their speech when using interlanguage strategy. The respondents indicated that their ability to use interlanguage strategy was associated with their proficiencies of Mandarin and Taiwanese. In fact, their perceptions also were mentioned by Bialystok’s description of communication strategy. Bialystok (1983), in one of her studies for communication strategies, consistently pointed out that “The communication strategies are revealed through linguistic analyses of the learner’s interlanguage. These strategies indicate the extent to which the learner’s utterances in the target language are affected by the native language.” (p. 101) Bialystok implied English learners’ ability to use interlanguage to communicate is in an equal rank with the English learners’ native language proficiency. As can be seen, participants’ perceptions reflected in the previous studies, which emphasized the close relationship between the application of interlanguage and the proficiency of the speakers’ native language (Bialystok, 1983; Selinker, 1972).

Face-Saving

In the field of communication strategies, the face-saving issue has been studied (Faerch & Kasper, 1984). In a significant study in the field of communication strategy, by Faerch and Kasper (1984), they revealed that advanced learners were more likely to experience face-saving problems when they were using interlanguage
strategies to communicate. They emphasized that, when the advanced learners’ communication was activated because of their increased interlanguage proficiency, the face problem started to emerge. Faerch and Kasper (1984) mentioned: “because of their clearly marked foreigner roles, their need for face-saving is often greater than is the case with less advanced learners. Covertly used communication strategies ideally are suited for such learners.” (p. 61)

In this study, although the students did not particularly point out that their face-problem accompanied their use of interlanguage that caused active communication, they designated their different face-saving needs related to two issues: competition in the job field and the traditional concepts in the society. The respondents pointed out that, in their learning experience of communication strategy, their face-saving problems noticeably appeared when they were practicing the abandonment strategy and cooperation strategy.

Sung Ru, Jiun Sheng, and Ling Mei in this study mentioned the issues of face-saving that were interrelated to the strategy application by revealing their psychological status. Sung Ru believed avoiding asking simple words in time saves her from losing face. She was afraid her partners’ might feel her level is low. Jiun Sheng believed a male should not be appealing readily for facilitations from the others. Ling Mei believed a low-level proficiency impression can not emerge in the working situation.

Jiun Sheng’s perceptions of dissimilar patterns between males and females are also reflected in Wetzel’s (1988) and Siennicki’s (2000) findings. In Wetzel’s “Are ‘powerless’ communication strategies the Japanese norm,” she addressed that different characteristics exist between Japanese male and female communication
strategies. Women tended to ask more questions, respond with more positive answers, adopt more “silent protest” strategy, and use more “we” and “you” to acknowledge the existence of the other speaker. In contrast, men tended to interrupt the ongoing conversation more frequently, challenge or dispute their partner’s utterances, ignore the comments, control the topic, and make more declaration of fact or opinion. Similarly, Siennicki (2000) asserted that men tended to reveal their emotion less, but tended to have more control during interactions.

In agreement with the above two studies related to gender differences in communication, Jiun Sheng revealed his need to keep his male characteristics in communication. Face-saving problem is less apparent in the West, because “research indicates that in the West, at least, differences in communication style often correlate less with gender than with factors such as a role and status.” (Wetzel, 1988, p. 560) Analyzing Ling Mei’s case, her face-saving problem is caused by the “affective filter” in Krashen’s (1988) language acquisition theory. Ling Mei’s stressful status that influenced her learning should be resolved by a calming environment of the in-class communication or an established confident attitude of learning.

Affective Filter

Based on Sung Ru’s and Jiun Sheng’s feedback, the message abandonment strategy provided a function for reducing students’ anxiety. Sung Ru pointed out that she was free when abandoning a message and she did not worry whether a word explained was easy for her classmates or not. Sung Ru did not have to worry about face-saving problem because she could abandon and continue to converse.

Similarly, Jiun Sheng perceived his struggling status of deciding whether he could resort to the other strategy. He felt released immediately after deciding to use
the message abandonment strategy. Jiun Sheng was free after abandoning a message.

The above two cases indicated that the message abandonment strategy contributed to reducing students’ anxiety in communication. Actually, Krashen (1982) pointed out that when learning language, the affective factor was one of the key factors in language acquisition. When the learners’ anxiety was lower, the input in language learning would be higher. Hence, this study indicated that although some students perceived that the message abandonment strategy was not an aggressive strategy, it still might contribute to enhance the input of language acquisition for the students.

*Time-Saving*

Based on findings from the second research question about the message abandonment strategy, this study suggested that the English teachers in communication courses would inform the students about the methods for how to decide if they would use the message abandonment strategy in communication. From Jiun Sheng’s reflections, he observed that, when the in-class group discussion time assigned by the lecturer was not long enough, many students frequently abandoned messages that were not understood by their partners.

This actually suggested that when the discussion time is longer, the message abandonment strategy would be used less frequently by the students. In contrast, if the students were allowed to speak in a formal way for a longer time, the other strategies, such as the restructuring strategy, interlanguage strategy, or cooperation strategy, would be applied so that message abandonment would not be as useful. Hence, this study recommended that the English teachers remind the students to be aware of how much time they are allowed to speak in order to decide whether they
are going to use the message abandonment strategy or resort to the other communication strategies.

*The Correlation between Key Words and Willingness to Communicate*

Based on the findings from the fourth research question that Cheng Chih, Jian Guo, and Ling Mei provided, the key words in the intended content of communication could not be abandoned. They believed that when the key word was abandoned, the message abandonment strategy became meaningless. Cheng Chih further stated that he discovered that native-speakers and non-native speakers in Taiwan mostly used only “key words” to communicate with him. From his experience of working in a restaurant, he perceived that they usually used key words to fulfill their need for communication in the restaurant. They would say only “toilet” or “sea food,” instead of talking to him with a complete sentence.

Indeed, the issue of “key words” inspired in this study is associated with the issue of “willingness to communicate” (WTC) mentioned by MacIntyre, Clement, Dornyei, and Noels (1998). The researcher believes that whenever the “key word” is expressed, the goal of “willingness to communicate” (MacIntyre, Clement, Dornyei & Noels, 1998) could be achieved. That is to say, when the difficult intended key word is created or explained, the WTC in MacIntyre, Clement, Dornyei, and Noel’s triangle model would be fulfilled, including “…the desire to communicate with a specific person, self-confidence, interpersonal/intergroup motivation, communicative competence, intergroup climate, and personality.” (p. 547)

Three students believed that no matter how intricate the key word was, it had to be expressed by hook or by crook. This means EFL speakers’ attempts to interact could be inspired when any type of motivation and willingness was stirred by a key
word expressed. This study suggested speakers should not abandon any intended key word in their intended content of expressing to execute their “motivation of communication.”

**Summary**

While past researchers reported dissimilar intentions of using different communication strategies influenced by diverse genders, English proficiency levels of language learners, speakers from different countries, and assorted types of pedagogies (Dornyei, 1995; Kocoglu, 1997; Rababah, 2002c; Yoshida-Morise, 1998), students’ personal willingness and perceptions toward each strategy never had been implemented as research topics in this field. Consequently, sharing students’ psychological level with the curriculum designers has become one of the most significant issues, since the educators need to respect students’ perceptions and motivations in learning in order to assist students in acquiring their highest in-put in learning and using communication strategies.

Krashen (1982) had mentioned “Higher motivation predicts more acquisition.” (p. 56) Students’ attitudes and beliefs about learning communication strategies were very important. Attitudes and beliefs affected students’ motivation to learn and their ability to use communication strategies. Therefore, this study emphasized that English educators and school administrators of English conversation courses must know their students’ perceptions as well as their attitudes and beliefs toward each skill in the communication strategies. Furthermore, the English teachers should confirm in which pedagogies and which principles of training their students would like to be educated. In summary, the researcher believes that if the students have an opportunity to learn communication strategies in the ways mentioned above,
they would be able to increase motivation in learning how to deal with their communication problems due to their limited linguistics knowledge and achieve their communicative goal.

This study emphasized the understandability in English communication, because English had become a common tool of international communication long time ago. However, Taiwanese adult language learners might not be able to communicate easily and catch up the tempo of the world communication. Hence, this study emphasized the significance of strategy application. Crystal (1997) argued that English would be a main tool of communication on this globe. Moreover, McKay (2002) also emphasized the compressibility in speeches might be more important than fluency. In this global age of 21st century, communication strategies should be very applicable and important for adult learners in Taiwan.

**Recommendations for Further Research Topics**

This study had been conducted by a qualitative method, which is seldom found in the field of communication strategy. Besides suggesting more qualitative methods should be applied to investigate students’ understanding, agreement, or the problems of using communication strategy, this study also recommended some important issues mentioned or not mentioned by the students. Based on the literature review and the collected data of this study, recommendations for future research topics were discovered. Through reviewing the seven volunteers’ responses in the interview, the significance of these suggested topics were highlighted.

Some of the following recommendations for future studies might have been completed by previous researchers in the field of communication strategy, but none of them yet had been conducted in Taiwan. Since different factors of languages and
traditions exist among different countries that influence the people’s choice and application of communication strategies, the researcher believes they need to be conducted in Taiwan in the future to contribute the results to the administrators and curriculum designers for Taiwanese EFL courses. The topics suggested were: 1. the relationship between different variables and strategy application, 2. acceptance of non-native like speeches, 3. training pedagogies, 4. the relation of proficiency level and strategy application, 5. the correlation between the gender and strategy application, 6. the application of cooperation strategy in working situation.

*Different Variables in the Learners and Trainers*

This study investigated the students’ perceptions for each strategy from various aspects that the students provided. It might be very useful to collect students’ background information such as their years of learning English, motivation of learning English, career plans, and English proficiency expectation, and examine how these variables affect the students’ responses regarding their feelings. Other diverse variables that might lead the students’ perceptions to be different would be the trainers’ attitudes, personalities, gender, and age that affect the ways learners learn and use the strategies.

Based on a larger population that offered more variables in students, trainers would aid the researchers to distinguish the following issues: 1. “Could these variables in students and the trainer have led to the students’ divergent angle to see communication strategies?” 2. “Could these variables in trainers cause the students to use the communication strategies with different characteristics?” Based on a more complete project with more variables, the various research findings can be expected, which would contribute as suggestions for English educators and administrators who
design the curriculum for conversation courses. The reason is that the findings given by the various populations practically could answer for the administrators and curriculum designers the questions as follows:

“How can curriculum designers depend on students’ various backgrounds and future needs in order to design a course for training communication strategies?”

“Which strategies should be adopted and which ones should not be adopted?”

“Should curriculum designers propose a course for training communication strategies based on a certain group of students’ homogenous backgrounds and their future needs?”

“If this is necessary, how can they, according to the results, design a suitable curriculum?”

Additionally, “Besides English proficiency, what are the specialties and individuality of the trainers that the students prefer when learning the communication strategies?”

**Students’ Acceptance Level of Non-native Like Language**

A core issue of foreign-like language was found in the findings for the fifth research question, which was an issue of Non-native like speech productions generated through communication strategies. This issue had been mentioned by Tarone (1983). The reason why the researcher believes it should be a central issue in the field of communication strategy is because it is related to the EFL students’ willingness to learn communication strategies.

Although the consistent and stable results from many previous scholars’ studies yielded the effectiveness and efficiency of the speech productions created through strategies (Chen, 1990; Littlemore, 2003; Rababah, 2002b; Yoshida-Morise, 1998), the factors that influence the students’ willingness to learn strategies, such as the factor of non-native like speech productions rarely are discussed and inspected.
The issue of an apposite balance between the non-native like language created through communication strategies and the insistence of achieving the standard English was found in the data of this study. However, it had not been discussed deeply.

Hence, the researcher thinks that no matter how much it had been mentioned by the participants, this part of the data implied that non-native like language might be a potential obstacle to the practice of communication strategies training and curriculum design. Therefore, it is compulsory that researchers of this field should conduct further studies by focusing on students’ perceptions, opinions, and evaluations of their non-native like language created through communication strategies. The research should assist the students to consider profoundly how they would be able to convey Standard English. Students should think about how much time they require and what types of courses they have to take to establish their English to be native-like. After measuring their need and their ability, students should be able to make a decision about how much they would espouse the communication strategies in their English interaction. The researcher believes that it is necessary for researchers to help the students to ascertain, “If the Standard English should be unattainable in a short time, how much Non-native like language can be allowed in their English conversation?”

*Training Pedagogies*

The issue of the pedagogies the trainer should apply when training students is significant. In the findings, the training method was mentioned slightly by students. The reason why the students did not discuss it deeply was probably because the trainer in this study mostly used group discussion activities to train the students. Only
one or two relaxing games were conducted for checking students’ abilities to use strategies after learning.

In fact, the pedagogy of training is a significant issue discussed by various previous researchers (Ansarine & Syal, 2000; Dornyei, 1995; Rababah, 2002b, 2002c; Wannaruk, 2006). The training process with the tasks of “story telling,” “picture describing,” “face-to-face conversation,” and “writing” were emphasized by Ansarine and Syal (2000) and Wannaruk (2006). Besides, Rababah (2002c) introduced several pedagogies in one of his studies, which mostly recommended that the learners should raising conscious to use strategies. Additionally, Dornyei (1995) presented four principles of training, which emphasized the value of effectiveness of the strategy, taking risks, demonstration, and cultural diversities.

The researcher believes that future research should be conducted to aid in training Taiwanese students to use these strategies. The researcher suggests that different types of pedagogies need to be designed to test the effectiveness of different methods. Through the face-to-face interview for obtaining the teachers’ opinions of different pedagogies and their comparison of the learners’ learning effect through different teaching methods, the results should reveal which types of training methods are the best. In other words, according to researchers’ evaluations for training pedagogies and the students’ performance displayed after being trained by different activities, the most successful training ways can be explored.

The Relationship between English Proficiency and Using Strategy

Various studies had been conducted to investigate the relationship between the strategy application, including the selection of specific strategies and their application frequency, and incongruent levels of language learners (e.g., Corrales,
The analysis of this study, based on the students’ perceptions about each strategy, indicated that the topic avoidance skill almost never could be used by the middle to high-level adult learners of Taiwan. In fact, respondents in Tunghai University were not much differentiated by their English proficiency in this study. Based on many homogenous outcomes obtained in a class with only one proficiency level, this study suggested that further studies should be conducted with more classes in different proficiency levels.

The researcher suggests that further research can be conducted with several levels of English learners. Students at different levels would help the researchers to investigate students’ intentions related to applying different strategies, different problems encountered in applying communications strategies, and different anticipations of using communication strategies.

*The Correlation between Gender and Strategy*

Inspired by this study, a comparison of strategy application between female and male students should be conducted. In the findings from the fourth research question, Jiun Sheng revealed that his face-problem, caused by his male position, compelled him not to use cooperation strategy, especially when talking to a female. Actually, Jiun Sheng’s perceptions suggested that a future study related to gender differences should be conducted in Taiwan.

Since there are vast differences between males’ and females’ communication strategies (Wetzel, 1988), the curriculum of strategy training needs to be designed based on the target students’ characteristics. It is not an effective method of training students to use communication strategy if the curriculum used is just a copy of strategy training from the other countries. Therefore, the researcher believes that this
study of gender comparison should explore the two genders’ different intentions and their reasons for applying or not applying certain strategies. That is, the researchers should discern the relationship between genders and students’ preferred strategy application. This study also may explore the impact of diverse cultures on each gender’s category anticipation and inflexible impression, which influence students’ willingness to apply communication strategies. The results of this study may provide the curriculum designers and the language learners with a more efficient course schedule, which is planned based on the students’ nature and willingness.

*Communication Strategy in a Working Situation*

In the findings from the fifth research question, two students (Tien Long and Ling Mei) mentioned their feelings of cooperation strategies to be used in the working situation. Tien Long and Ling Mei had opposite opinions about using it in a working situation. Tien Long expressed that in the working situation, the cooperation strategy should be applied more often in order to enhance the effect of working together. On the contrary, Ling Mei stated the cooperation strategy should be advisable only at school, but not in a vying working situation. Ling Mei felt that if a person appeals for help from his/her supervisors or colleagues in a working situation, it establishes an impression of low-level proficiency for that person.

Based on this controversy, this study recommends that research should be conducted through surveying jobholders and bosses in an office or in an occupation field in order to discover findings closer to the truths. This suggested study would find out, “Would a superior feel that his employee is inept because s/he asks her/his colleagues words or things s/he does not know?” Furthermore, “If a colleague would give a hand to his/her peers in order to complete their tasks when they appeal for
assistance on unknown language or information, would they assume that it is a behavior impeding his/her own promotion for the same higher position?”

Unquestionably, the occupation field always is filled with the atmosphere of challenge, positive competition, and even antagonism. People might encounter various reactions from their foremen or associates when they appeal for aid. Therefore, “Should the cooperation strategy be used in a competitive environment?” and “How can it be applied?” become noteworthy subject matter for further studies in the field of communication strategies.

*Examples through the Interlanguage Strategy*

In the findings from the fourth research question, Taiwanese types of speeches created through interlanguage can be found. In the collected data, the most common examples through interlanguage can be grouped into three types, which were Chinese idioms, particular things in Taiwan, and foreign words imported to Taiwan.

First, because Taiwanese students are educated in Mandarin, it is easy for them to provoke their thoughts with Chinese idioms and generate their languages by translating Chinese idioms. Hence, typical examples of interlanguage that Taiwanese students would create are examples like “Think three times before you do it,” “People Mountain People Sea.” and “Long Time No See.” Each country has its own idioms, which could be foundations for how people in that country think and behave in their daily lives. Hence, the researcher recommends that other researchers might conduct a study which looks into and reveals how the idioms of each country could be expressed through the interlanguage strategy.

Second, a considerable part of speech productions of interlanguage especially
were related to the particular things that only Taiwan possesses. For example, students need to use interlanguage in order to express foodstuffs or plants in Taiwan. This actually indicates a fact that folks from the non-native speakers’ countries might need to use interlanguage in order to express things that only their countries have. Because it is harder for non-native speakers to find them in the English dictionary, they have to establish their skills to exemplify, paraphrase, or describe it. It would be interesting if a research study could be conducted to delve into particular things in each country and how people convey them through Interlanguage.

Third, Cheng Chih talked about how the imported foreign products mostly were given their Taiwanese names. However, what Taiwanese call these goods were based on the pronunciations of the original foreign words, and Taiwanese gave them a name with the similar sound in a Taiwanese accent. “Sofa” is “Safa,” and “Pan” is “Pan.” Because of international trade and the improvement of transportation nowadays, a lot of goods could be exported and imported to each country. It would be an important study to compare what a certain good is called in its country of origin and the countries to which it is imported. “Code-switching” or “formal reduction of the pronunciation” might be the two most common methods of calling things imported from the other area, according to the findings in this study.

The examples of interlanguage in this study implied that the vocalizations through interlanguage produced by people from different countries would be widely divergent based on the differences in linguistics structures among languages around the world. Inspired by the above three reasons why the Taiwanese students’ language productions were developed into three groups of interlanguages, this study suggests future research topics to be done in other countries different from Taiwan. This study
recommends that the typical interlanguage examples of all the areas around the world, such as interlanguage patterns in countries of Asia, Africa, Middle East, Europe, or the Pacific, should be displayed and compared.
REFERENCES


Strategies in interlanguage communication (pp. 15-19). New York: Longman.


Gubrium & D. Silverman, (Eds.), Qualitative research practice (pp. 457-489). London: Sage Publications.


205
I, 163-174.


206


September, 3, 2006, from,


APPENDIX A

Instrument of Interview

General Question:

“What are your perceptions about learning five communication strategies?”

Specific Questions:

1. What do you perceive in learning the topic avoidance strategy?
2. What do you perceive in learning the message abandonment strategy?
3. What do you perceive in learning the meaning replacement strategy?
4. What do you perceive in learning the interlanguage-based strategy?
5. What do you perceive in learning the cooperation strategy?