The Use of Communication Strategies and its Relationship with Willingness to Communicate and Speaking Competence in English as a Foreign Language

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Study Programme: Double Major MA Study Programme in English language and Literature – Teaching English as a Foreign Language and Croatian Language and Literature

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Master's Thesis

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Contents

Summary

This study examined the relationship between willingness to communicate (WTC), self-perceived speaking competence, and communication strategies (CSs) in English as a foreign language. The questions this research tries to answer are whether there is a difference between male and female students in terms of their WTC and the use of communication strategies, are WTC and the use of CSs correlated with students' self-perceived speaking competence, and is there a relationship between student's use of CSs and WTC. The results show that there is no statistically significant difference between male and female students regarding their WTC or their overall use of CSs. Participants who reported higher level of self-perceived speaking competence are more willing to communicate and they employ CSs more often than those who don't feel as competent. The results also show that students who employ wider range of CSs have higher level of WTC. This study indicates that there is a need to encourage students to communicate more and to teach them how to use CSs more often and more efficiently.

Key words: willingness to communicate (WTC), perceived speaking competence, communication strategies (CSs)

Sažetak

Ovaj rad istražuje odnos spremnosti na komunikaciju (SnK), samoprocjene sposobnosti usmenog izražavanja i upotrebe komunikacijskih strategija (KS) u nastavi engleskog jezika. U ovom se radu pokušalo otkriti postoji li razlika u stupnju SnK i uporabi komunikacijskih strategija između učenika različitog spola, jesu li SnK i upotreba KS povezani s učenikovom percepcijom govornih sposobnosti te jesu li SnK i upotreba KS povezani. Rezultati pokazuju da ne postoji statistički značajna razlika između učenika suprotnog spola niti u razini SnK niti u uporabi KS. Sudionici koji su svoju sposobnost usmenog izražavanja ocijenili višom ocjenom pokazuju višu razinu SnK i češće upotrebljuju KS od učenika koji su si dali nižu ocjenu. Rezultatu također pokazuju da učeniki koji više koriste KS imaju višu razinu SnK. Ovo istraživanje ukazuje na potrebu poticanja učenika na komunikaciju i poučavanje kako bi koristili KS češće i učinkovitije.

Ključne riječi: spremnost na komunikaciju (SnK), sposobnost usmenog izražavanja, komunikacijske strategije (KS)

1. Introduction

Nunan stated that the single most important aspect of learning a second or foreign language is mastering the art of speaking and that success is measured in terms of the ability to carry out a conversation in the language (1991: 39). Since the early 1970s, researchers have been stressing the importance of self-esteem, of developing individual strategies for success, and most of all focusing on the communicative process in language learning. The job of a teacher has significantly moved from teaching the rules and definitions to teaching students to communicate spontaneously and meaningfully in the second language (Brown, 2000).

When it comes to communication, one of the most important concepts is that of willingness to communicate (WTC). WTC is defined as "an individual's predisposition to initiate communication with others" (McCroskey, 1997: 77). There are two perspectives from which one can observe WTC: WTC as personality trait or WTC as a situational construct. Some scholars claim that first language (L1) WTC is a personality trait, while second language (L2) WTC should be observed as a situational construct (Takač and Požega, 2012). MacIntyre et al. (1999) claim that trait-level WTC creates a general tendency to seek situations in which comunication is expected. Once an individual finds him/herself in such a situation, situational WTC is responsible for whether or not communication occurs.

There are a lot of factors that might affect individual's WTC. Those factors are referred to as antecedents and they can have either positive or negative effect. Researchers have found that communication comprehension, introversion, anomie, and alienation have a negative effect on WTC, while self-esteem and self-perceived communication competence are positively correlated with WTC (Zakahi and McCroskey, 1989).

Most commonly, WTC in L2 is considered to be both a personality trait and a situational construct. When explaining WTC in L2, researchers most often use the heuristic pyramid model of WTC developed by MacIntyre, Clément, Cörnyei, and Noels (1998). They defined WTC as "a readiness to enter into discourse at a particular time with a specific person or persons, using an L2" (1998: e547). Their Pyramid Model describes relationship between WTC and variables such as intergroup climate, personality, intergroup attitude, interpersonal motivation, self-confidence, and desire to communicate.

One of the factors affecting WTC is speaking competence which includes knowledge of grammar, vocabulary, comprehension, fluency, and pronunciation. Individuals with high level of speaking competence usually tend to be more willing to communicate. Even though speaking competence is a great predictor of WTC, research has shown that self-perceived speaking

competence is more associated with WTC than actual communication skill (McCroskey and Richmond, 1990). Speaking competence also includes ability to use various communication strategies (CSs). CSs can also be observed from two perspectives: interactional and psycholinguistic. From interactional perspective, CSs are "mutual attempts of two interlocutors to agree on a meaning in situations where requisite meaning structures do not seem to be shared" (Tarone, 1980: 420). When defining them from psycholinguistic perspective, CSs are learner's problem-solving behaviours resulting from the gaps in their lexical knowledge" (Nakatani and Cho, 2007: 208; as quoted in Rastegar and Gohari, 2016: 403). Generally accepted definition is that "CS is a systematic technique employed by a speaker to express his/her meaning when faced with some difficulty" (Corder, 1981, 103; in Dörnyei, 1995).

There are quite a lot of taxonomies when it comes to CSs. Dörnyei (1995) followed traditional categorisations and divided CSs into three groups: avoidance or reduction strategies, achievement or compensatory strategies, and stalling or time-gaining strategies. Similarly, Nakatani (Nakatani and Cho, 2007: 208; in Rastegar and Gohari, 2016: 403) categorised CSs into eight categories which he referred to as *factors*. Those eight factors are as follows: Social Affective, Fluency-Oriented, Negotiation for Meaning While Speaking, Accuracy-Oriented, Message Reduction and Alteration, Nonverbal Strategies While Speaking, Message Abandonment, Attempt to Think in English.

The aim of this diploma paper is to examine the relationship between the use of CSs, WTC in class, and self-perceived speaking competence. First part describes development of WTC construct, the difference between personality-trait WTC and situational WTC, conceptual model of WTC (MacIntyre, Babin, and Clément, 1999), WTC in second language, and most frequently used model when describing L2 WTC: the heuristic pyramid model of WTC developed by MacIntyre, Clément, Dörnyei, and Noels in 1998. Next part describes the concept of speaking competence, indicators of high level of speaking competence, components of speaking competence, and the relationship between self-perceived speaking competence and WTC. Fourth chapter explains different perspectives when describing CSs, various taxonomies of CSs, and the development of Nakatani's (2006) Oral Communication Strategy Inventory (OCSI).

Next chapter concisely reviews some of the studies regarding WTC, the use of CSs, and self-perceived speaking competence.

The final chapter describes empirical research exploring the relationship between the use of CSs, WTC in class, and self-perceived speaking competence.

2. Willingness to Communicate (WTC)

2.1. Development of the WTC Construct

According to McCroskey, willingness to communicate is "an individual's predisposition to initiate communication with others" (1997: 77). The WTC construct has evolved from concepts such as *unwillingness to communicate, predisposition toward verbal behaviour*, and *shyness*. All three constructs proposed a personality variable that is responsible for general tendency to participate in a communicative situation. Based on those ideas, McCroskey and Richmond (1990) introduced the WTC construct that referred to the individual's tendency to start communication when given a choice. According to them, WTC in first language is a personality trait which is relatively stable across various situations (Zarrinabadi and Tanbakooei, 2016: 30). This does not mean that an individual is equally willing to communicate in all communication contexts or with all types of receivers. It only implies that the level of individual's WTC in one communication context (with a small group) or with one type of receiver (with friends) is correlated with the individual's WTC in other communication context (public speaking) or with other types of receivers (with acquaintances and strangers). In other words, if one person is more willing to communicate than another person in one communication setting, it is assumed that the same will be true in other communication settings. (McCroskey and Richmond 1990: 23).

According to Dörnyei, the WTC construct is "a composite individual difference variable that draws together a host of learner variables that have been well established as influences on second language acquisition and use, resulting in a construct in which psychological and linguistic factors are integrated in an organic manner" (2005: 210).

Many scholars distinguish personality trait WTC and situational or state level WTC. Pavičić Takač and Požega claim that, when it comes to L1, WTC is a stable personality trait that develops over time and creates a personality-based orientation toward talking. But "when it comes to L2 use, the level of one's L2 proficiency and L2 communicative competence, they are unstable variables. That is the reason why L2 WTC needs to be conceptualised as a situated construct that includes both state and trait characteristics" (2012: 70).

MacIntyre, Babin, and Clément argue that "trait-level WTC prepares individuals for communicative experiences by creating a general tendency to place themselves in situations in which communication is expected. However, once in a particular situation, state willingness can influence whether communication takes place. If communication does occur, then other variables

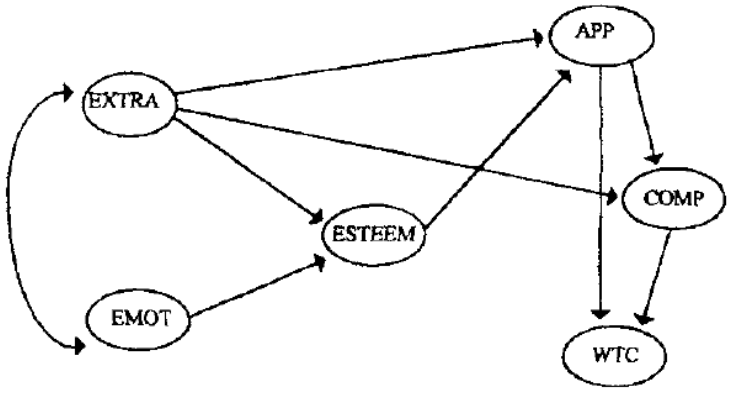
important to communication such as anxiety or perceived competence, become more relevant to communicative behavior" (1999: 226-227).

Chan and McCroskey (1987) conducted a study which confirmed that participation in communicative situations is not merely a situation-specific response but it might be more associated with individual's orientation toward communication. Researchers have found that WTC is negatively associated with communication apprehension, introversion, anomie, and alienation, and positively correlated with self-esteem and self-perceived communication competence (Zakahi and McCroskey, 1989: 98). Those variables that lead to differences in WTC are usually referred to as antecedents. It is believed that antecedents are not causes of variability in WTC – they develop simultaneously with the WTC predisposition (McCroskey and Richmond 1990: 23).

2.2. Conceptual Model of WTC

MacIntyre, Babin, and Clément (1999) examined how previously mentioned personality traits, such as introversion, self-esteem, perceived communication competence, and communication apprehension, might affect individual's WTC. They proposed a model that represents the psychological processes that are associated with WTC in general. The model (Figure 1.) is organised so that the most general personality traits are placed to the left, and the most specific variables are shown to the right.

Figure 1: Conceptual model of WTC



NOTE: EXTRA = EXTRAVERSION
EMOT = EMOTIONAL STABILITY
ESTEEM = SELF-ESTEEM
APP = APPREHENSION
COMP = COMPETENCE
WTC = WILLINGNESS TO COMMUNICATE

This model shows relationships between the variables as arrows which shows that the change in one variable will initiate the change in the following variable. Extroverts and emotionally stable individuals are predicted to have higher self-esteem and are more likely to engage in communicative experiences. Self-esteem is believed to affect WTC through communication apprehension, and communication apprehension and perceived communication competence are the most immediate antecedents of WTC.

2.3. WTC and Second Language Acquisition

WTC in second language is considered to be both a personality trait and a situational construct. WTC presents an opportunity to incorporate psychological, linguistic, educational, and communicative approaches to research in second language acquisition (SLA) that have been independent of each other. "WTC may be seen as both an individual difference factor facilitating L2 acquisition, especially in a pedagogical system that emphasizes communication, and as a non-linguistic outcome of the language learning process" (MacIntyre, 2007: 564).

The first studies in the field of second language teaching and learning focused on the relationship between L2 WTC and biological variables. Maclntyre, Baker, Clément and Donovan (2002, 2003) found that WTC is influenced by gender and age. Other researchers focused on the role of psychological variables such as motivation, anxiety, and identity in second language WTC. They concluded that self-perceived communicative competence and speaking anxiety were the strongest predictors of second language WTC (Zarrinabadi and Tanbakooei, 2016:31).

When describing L2 WTC, scholars usually use the heuristic pyramid model of WTC based on the assumption that "authentic communication in L2 can be seen as the result of a complex of interrelated variables" (Macintyre et al., 1998: 547).

2.4. The Pyramid Model

The Pyramid Model (Figure 2) was developed by MacIntyre, Clément, Dörnyei, and Noels in 1998. They defined second language WTC as "a readiness to enter into discourse at a particular time with a specific person or persons, using an L2" (1998: 547) and developed a model that explained variables such as intergroup climate, personality, intergroup attitude, interpersonal motivation, self-confidence, and desire to communicate which influenced an individual's level of second language WTC. This multi-level model of WTC consists of six separate layers which include all of the variables that influence WTC in the second language. The bottom three layers show enduring influences, while layers III, II, and I present the situational ones. Both immediate

situational factors and more enduring influences affect individual's decision to communicate in the second language (MacIntyre, Clément, Dörnyei, Noels, 1998).

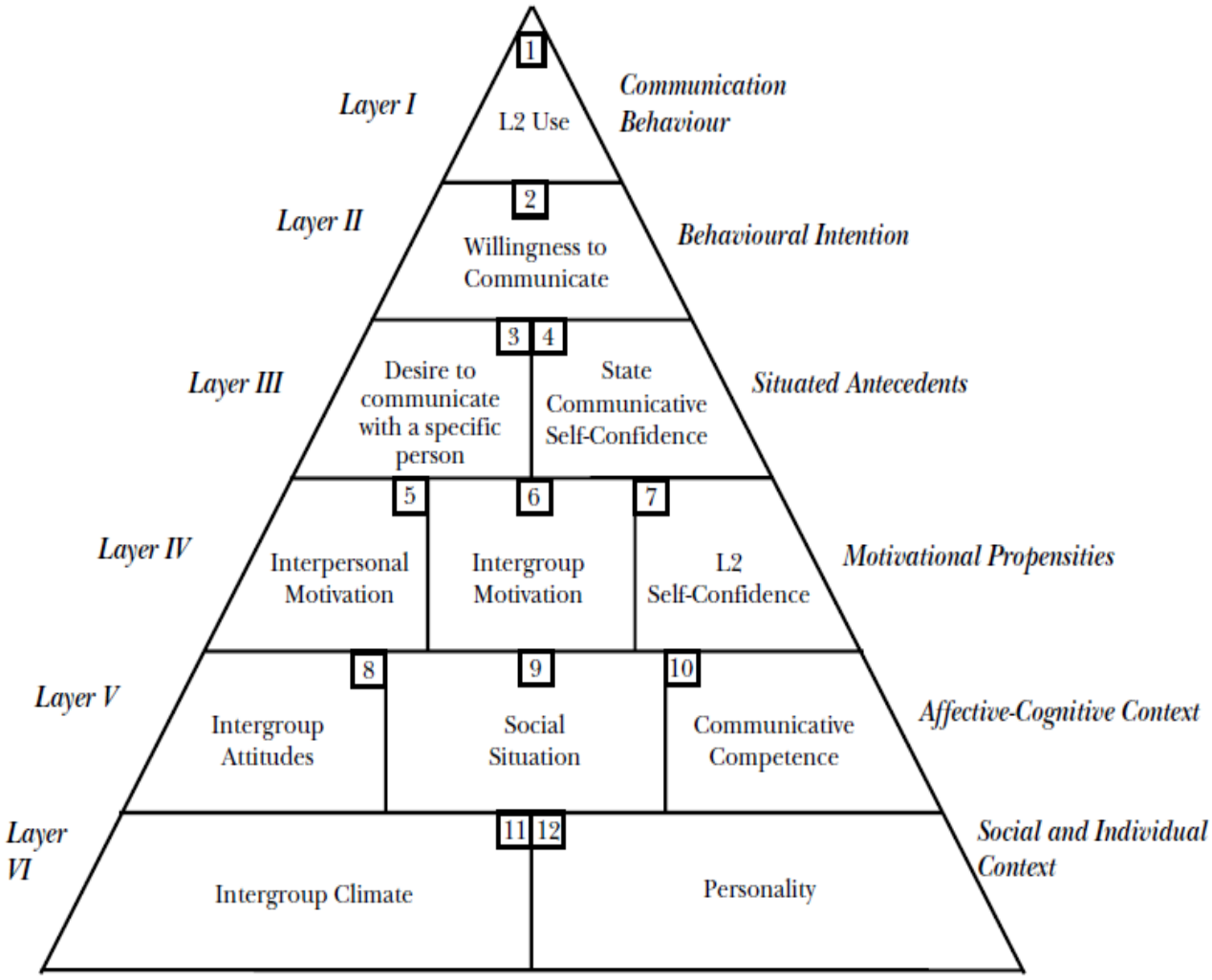


Figure 2: The Pyramid Model of WTC

2.5. Layers of the WTC Pyramid Model

As it was mentioned, the pyramid model consists of six layers. This shape was chosen because it shows "the immediacy of some factors and the relatively distal influence of others" (MacIntyre et al., 1998: 546).

Layer VI is the societal and individual context. "The societal context refers to the intergroup climate in which interlocutors evolve, whereas the individual context refers to stable personality characteristics found to be particularly relevant to communication" (MacIntyre et al, 1998: 555).

Layer V is affective and cognitive context and it consists of intergroup attitudes, social situation, and communicative competence. Intergroup attitudes are influenced by integrativeness,

fear of assimilation, and motivation to learn the L2. Integrativeness is connected to individual's desire to be a part of the L2 community, while fear of assimilation refers to fear of losing one's cultural identity. Motivation to learn L2 is influenced by learner's previous experiences with L2. Social situation describes a social encounter in a particular setting. People have a certain way of communicating depending on where they are, who they are talking to, or what they are talking about. Communicative competence consists of five main competences: linguistic competence, discourse competence, actional competence, socio-cultural competence, and strategic competence (MacIntyre et al, 1998).

Layer IV includes motivational propensities which are usually stable individual differences that apply in several situations. There are three important variables to be considered here: individual motivation, intergroup motivation, and L2 confidence. Interpersonal motivation is connected to the person's individual characteristics and is caused by control or affiliation. Control initiates communication behaviour that aims at limiting the cognitive, affective, and behavioural freedom of the communicator. This type of communication is usually initiated by the more powerful interlocutor. Affiliation is present when communication is initiated by the desire to start or maintain a relationship with someone. It is affected by person's attractiveness, proximity, and familiarity. Intergroup motivation is also caused by control or affiliation. Unlike interpersonal motivation, it is derived directly from individual's belonging to a particular group. Third variable, L2 confidence, concerns the relationship between the individual and the L2. L2 confidence represents individual's belief in being able to efficiently communicate in L2 and it is primarily defined by personal assessment of proficiency (MacIntyre et al, 1998).

Layer III is situated antecedents of communication which refers to the desire to communicate with a specific person and state communicative self-confidence. Desire to communicate with a specific person arises from a combination of interpersonal and intergroup motivations. Affiliation and control motives are theorised to foster the desire to communicate. Affiliation often occurs with persons who are familiar, who are physically attractive, or those who are similar to us in various ways. Self-confidence includes perceived competence and a lack of anxiety. State anxiety varies in intensity, can change over time, and negatively affects self-confidence and WTC. Perceived self-confidence is greater if a person has positive experience with L2 communication and has developed appropriate language knowledge and skill (MacIntyre et al., 1998: 548).

Layer II is willingness to communicate which is defined as "a readiness to enter discourse at a particular time with a specific person or persons, using a L2" (MacIntyre et al., 1998: 547). Macintyre et al. (1998) state that opportunity to communicate is not required for WTC to exist.

This means that students raising their hands to answer a question should be seen as an indicator of their willingness to communicate since it shows that they are willing to answer the question if given the opportunity to do so.

Layer I is communication behaviour which includes activities like speaking up in class, reading L2 material, watching L2 television, or using L2 on the job. The main aim of the language learning process is to encourage students to seek out communication opportunities and to instil in them willingness to actually communicate in those situations. “A proper objective for L2 education is to create WTC. A program that fails to produce students who are willing to use the language is simply a failed program” (MacIntyre et al., 1998: 547).

3. Speaking Competence

3.1. Defining Speaking Competence

According to Nunan, "speaking is a productive oral skill which consists of constructing systematic verbal utterances to convey meaning" (2003: 48; as quoted in Gani et al., 2015: 20). Brown (2004) says that speaking consists of five components: grammar, vocabulary, comprehension, fluency, and pronunciation (2004: 172; as quoted in Gani et al. 2015). To be able to speak fluently in English, one needs to be able to pronounce phonemes correctly, use appropriate stress and intonation patterns and speak in connected speech. But what is more: one has to be able to use a variety of conversational and conversational repair strategies (Harmer, 2007).

Brown states that if someone has high level of speaking competence, he/she has to be able to:

1) Imitate a word or phrase or possibly a sentence (imitative ability).
2) Produce short stretches of oral language designed to demonstrate competence in a narrow band of grammatical, phrasal, lexical, or phonological relationship (intensive ability).
3) Respond to a very short conversation, standard greetings and small talk, simple requests and comments (responsive ability).
4) Take the two forms of either transactional language which has the purpose of exchanging specific information, or interpersonal exchanges which have the purpose of maintaining social relationships (interactive ability).
5) Maintain social relationships with the transmission of facts and information (interpersonal ability).
6) Develop oral productions including speeches, oral presentations, and story-telling, during which the opportunity for oral interaction from listener is either highly limited or ruled out altogether (extensive ability). (Brown, 2004: 141-142; as quoted in Indramawan, 2013: 20)

Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: learning, teaching, assessment (CEFR) describes in great detail what language learners have to learn to use a language for communication and what knowledge and skills they have to develop to be able to act effectively. Table 1 presents 'Can Do' descriptors for speaking competence at each language proficiency level (CEFR, 2001: 26-27).

Table 1. Common Reference Levels: self-assessment grid

	SPEAKING	
	Spoken Interaction	Spoken production
A1	I can interact in a simple way provided the other person is prepared to repeat or rephrase things at a slower rate of speech and help me formulate what I'm trying to say. I can ask and answer simple questions in areas of immediate need or on very familiar topics.	I can use simple phrases and sentences to describe where I live and people I know.
A2	I can communicate in simple and routine tasks requiring a simple and direct exchange of information on familiar topics and activities. I can handle very short social exchanged, even though I can't usually understand enough to keep the conversation going myself.	I can use a series of phrases and sentences to describe in simple terms my family and other people, living conditions, my educational background and my present or most recent job.
B1	I can deal with most situations likely to arise whilst travelling in an area where the language is spoken. I can enter unprepared into conversation on topics that are familiar, of personal interest or pertinent to everyday life (e.g. family, hobbies, work, travel, and current events).	I can connect phrases in a simple way in order to describe experiences and events, my dreams, hopes and ambitions. I can briefly give reason and explanations for opinions and plans. I can narrate a story or relate the plot of a book or film and describe my reactions.
B2	I can interact with a degree of fluency and spontaneity that makes regular interactions with native speakers quite possible. I can take an active part in discussion in familiar contexts, accounting for and sustaining my views.	I can present clear, detailed description on a wide range of subjects related to my field of interest. I can explain a viewpoint on a topical issue giving the advantages and disadvantages of various options.
C1	I can express myself fluently and spontaneously without much obvious searching for expressions. I can use language flexibly and effectively for social and professional purposes. I can formulate ideas and opinions with precision and relate my contribution skilfully to those of other speakers.	I can present clear, detailed descriptions of complex subjects integrating sub-themes, developing particular points and rounding off with an appropriate conclusion.
C2	I can take part effortlessly in any conversation or discussion and have a good familiarity with idiomatic expressions and colloquialisms. I can express myself fluently and convey finer shades of meaning precisely. If I do have a problem I can backtrack and restructure around the difficulty so smoothly that other people are hardly aware of it.	I can present a clear, smoothly flowing description or argument in a style appropriate to the context and with an effective logical structure which helps the recipient to notice and remember significant points.

3.2. Self-Perceived Competence and WTC

Self-perceived competence is "a person's evaluation of their ability to communicate" (McCroskey and McCroskey, 1988; as quoted in Donovan and MacIntyre, 2004: 421). According to MacIntyre, Noels, and Clement, there are two possible mismatches between self-perceived competence and actual competence: self-enhancement and self-derogation. Self-enhancement originates in a need to increase personal satisfaction and self-worth. Such individuals tend to view themselves in a positive light and they may become unrealistically optimistic. Some researchers even argued that self-enhancement helps during the acquisition of new skills. On the other hand, some individuals have a tendency to underestimate their abilities. Self-derogation is more common with highly anxious or depressed individuals who have little faith in their abilities.

4. Communication Strategies (CSs)

4.1. Defining Communication Strategies

Rebecca L. Oxford defines learning strategies as "steps taken by students to enhance their own learning". She continues by stating that "strategies are especially important for language learning because they are tools for active, self-directed involvement, which is essential for developing communicative competence" (1990: 1).

Some people can communicate effectively in a second language with a very limited vocabulary using their hands, imitating sounds or movements, mixing languages, or describing. In other words, they communicate that by using communication strategies (Dörnyei, 1995). The term *communication strategies* was first used by Selinker in 1972 as one of the five fundamental processes in L2 learning (Kovač and Sirković, 2015: 18). Researchers have not decided on one definition of CSs, but most commonly used definition is that of CS as "a systematic technique employed by a speaker to express his/her meaning when faced with some difficulty" (Corder, 1981, 103; as quoted in Dörnyei, 1995). Similarly, Tarone, Cohen, and Dumas defined CS as a systematic attempt by the learner to express or decode meaning in the target language, in situations where the appropriate systematic target language rules have not been formed" (1976; as quoted in Rastegar and Gohari, 2016: 402). Cohen revised that definition and stated that communication strategies "comprise a subset of language learning strategies, focusing on approaches for conveying meaningful information that is new to recipient" (Cohen, 1996; as quoted in Rastegar and Gohari, 2016: 403).

There are two perspectives from which one can view CSs: interactional and psycholinguistic. Tarone examines CSs from interactional perspective and defines them as "mutual attempts of two interlocutors to agree on a meaning in situations where requisite meaning structures do not seem to be shared" (1980: 420). According to Nakatani and Gho, "CSs are regarded not only as problem-solving phenomena to compensate for communication disruptions, but also as devices with pragmatic discourse functions for message enhancement" (2007: 208; as quoted in Rastegar and Gohari, 2016: 403). From psycholinguistic perspective, CSs are learner's problem-solving behaviours resulting from the gaps in their lexical knowledge (Nakatani and Cho, 2007: 208; as quoted in Rastegar and Gohari, 2016: 403). Faerch and Kasper also defined CSs from a psycholinguistic perspective as "individual's mental responses to a problem rather than as a joint response by two people, which means that CSs deal with language production problems that occur at the planning stage" (1983: 36; as quoted in Rastegar and Gohari, 2016: 403).

What all of these scholars agree on is that CSs are strategies that learners employ to overcome language difficulties and to contribute to the communication. It is believed that by developing an ability to use specific communication strategies that enable them to compensate for their L2 deficiency, learners can improve their communicative proficiency (Nakatani, 2006).

4.2. Taxonomies of Communication Strategies

Variety of definitions of CSs results in a variety of taxonomies. Next few paragraphs deal with some of the most commonly mentioned taxonomies.

Tarone's work is considered one of the most important contributions in this field of research (Kovač and Sirković, 2015). In 1977, she proposed a taxonomy (Figure 3) in which CSs are divided into five categories: avoidance, paraphrase, conscious transfer, appeal for assistance, and mime (Zhang, 2007: 46).

Figure 3. Tarone's Typology of conscious CSs

1. Avoidance
   a Topic avoidance
   b Message abandonment
2. Paraphrase
   a Approximation
   b Word coinage
   c Circumlocution
3. Conscious transfer
   a Literal translation
   b Language switch
4. Appeal for assistance
5. Mime

To quote Bialystok, "the varieties of taxonomies proposed in the literature differ primarily in the terminology and overall categorizing principle rather than in the substance of the specific strategies. If we ignore, then, differences in the structure of the taxonomies by abolishing the various overall categories, then a core group of specific strategies that appear consistently across the taxonomies clearly emerges. Differences in the definitions and illustration for these core strategies across the various studies are trivial" (Bialystok, 1990: 61; as quoted in Dörnyei, 1995: 57). Bialystok (1990) proposed three-part classification; strategies based on L1, strategies based on L2, and non-verbal strategies (Kovač and Sirković, 2015).

Following traditional conceptualisation, Dörnyei (1995) divided CSs into three groups: avoidance or reduction strategies, achievement or compensatory strategies, and stalling or time-gaining strategies. Avoidance or reduction strategies refer to alteration, reduction, or complete abandonment of the intended message. Achievement or compensatory strategies involve

manipulating available language to find alternative ways to convey the intended message. While first two groups are used to compensate for some language difficulties, stalling or time-gaining strategies are used to gain time and to keep the conversation going (57). Figure 4 (Dörnyei, 1995: 58) shows strategies that fall under each of those categories. Nakatani (2006) states that achievement or compensatory strategies are considered as *good learner* behaviours because learners work on an alternative plan for reaching their goal by using whatever resources are available while avoidance or reduction strategies are typical of low-proficiency learners because they tend to avoid solving a communication problem and completely abandon conveying their message.

Figure 4. Dörnyei's taxonomy of CSs following Traditional Conceptualisations

Avoidance or Reduction Strategies

1. Message abandonment—leaving a message unfinished because of language difficulties.
2. Topic avoidance—avoiding topic areas or concepts which pose language difficulties.

Achievement or Compensatory Strategies

3. Circumlocution—describing or exemplifying the target object or action (e.g., *the thing you open bottles with* for *corkscrew).*
4. Approximation—using an alternative term which expresses the meaning of the target lexical item as closely as possible (e.g., *ship* for *sail boat).*
5. Use of all-purpose words—extending a general, empty lexical item to contexts where specific words are lacking (e.g., the overuse of *thing, stuff, make, do,* as well as using words like *thingie, what-do-you-call-it).*
6. Word-coinage—creating a nonexisting L2 word based on a supposed rule (e.g., *vegetarianist* for *vegetarian).*
7. Use of nonlinguistic means—mime, gesture, facial expression, or sound imitation.
8. Literal translation—translating literally a lexical item, an idiom, a compound word or structure from L1 to L2.
9. Foreignizing—using a L1 word by adjusting it to L2 phonologically (i.e., with a L2 pronunciation) and/or morphologically (e.g., adding to it a L2 suffix).
10. Code switching—using a L1 word with L1 pronunciation or a L3 word with L3 pronunciation in L2.
11. Appeal for help—turning to the conversation partner for help either directly (e.g., *What do you call . . . ?)* or indirectly (e.g., rising intonation, pause, eye contact, puzzled expression).

Stalling or Time-gaining Strategies

12. Use of fillers/hesitation devices—using filling words or gambits to fill pauses and to gain time to think (e.g., *well, now let me see, as* a *matter of fact).*

Kovač and Sirković (2015) present a table with a list of CSs comprised by Dörnyei and Scott (1995). They included notes on whether any of the following scholars mentioned specific CSs in their classifications: T – Tarone 1977, F&K – Faerch and Kasper 1983, B – Bialystok 1983, P – Paribakht, W – Willems 1987, N – Nijmegen group 1987. Table 2 (Kovač and Sirković, 2015: 28-31) shows the list of CSs by Dörney and Scott (1995) as presented by Kovač and Sirković (2015).

Table 2: A List of Communication Strategies

	Strategy	Also included in:
1.	Message abandonment	T, F&K, W
2.	Message reduction, topic avoidance	T, F&K, W
3.	Message replacement	F&K, W
4.	Circomlocution – paraphrase	T, F&K, W, P, B, N
5.	Approximation	T, W, B, P, F&K, N
6.	Use of all-purpose words	W
7.	Word-coinage	T, F&K, B, W, N
8.	Restructuring	F&K, W
9.	Literal-translation	T,W, N, F&K, P, B
10.	Foreignizing	B, W, F&K, N
11.	Code switching – language switch	T, F&K, B, W, N
12.	Use of similar-sounding words	
13.	Mumbling	
14.	Omission	
15.	Retrieval	
16.a	Self-repair	W
16.b	Other-repair	
17.	Self-rephrasing	T
18.	Over-explicitness-waffling	T
19.	Mime-nonlinguistic/paralinguistic strategies	T, F&K, B, P, W, N
20.	Use of fillers	
21.a	Self-repetition	T
21.b	Other-repetition	
22.	Feigning understanding	
23.	Verbal strategy markers	
24.a	Direct appeal for help	T, F&K, W
24.b	Indirect appeal for help	T, F&K, W
25.	Asking for repetition	
26.	Asking for clarification	W
27.	Asking for confirmation	W

28.	Guessing	
29.	Expressing non-understanding	
30.	Interpretive summary	W
31.	Comprehension check	W
32.	Own-accuracy check	
33.	Response: repeat, repair, rephrase, expand, confirm, reject	

4.3. The Oral Communiation Strategy Inventory

Nakatani decided to use the term oral communication strategies which "specifically focus on strategic behaviours that learners use when facing communication problems during interactional tasks" (2006: 152). He developed a questionnaire for investigating the use of oral communication strategies named the Oral Communication Strategy Inventory (OCSI). Since both speaking and listening skills are essential for oral communication, his OCSI is divided into two parts: strategies for coping with speaking problems and strategies for coping with listening problems. Questionnaire consists of 32 items for coping with speaking problems and 26 items for coping with listening problems. Since this paper focuses on speaking aspect of communication strategies, term oral communication strategies will from now on be used to refer only to communication strategies for coping with speaking problems. Table 3. shows strategies for coping with speaking problems as suggested by Nakatani (2006: 163-164).

Table 3. Strategies for Coping with Speaking Problems

1.	I think first of what I want to say in my native language and then construct the English sentence.
2.	I think first of a sentence I already know in English and then try to change it to fit the situation.
3.	I use words which are familiar to me.
4.	I reduce the message and use simple expressions.
5.	I replace the original message with another message because of feeling incapable of executing my original intent.
6.	I abandon the execution of a verbal plan and just say some words when I don't know what to say.
7.	I pay attention to grammar and word order during conversation.

8.	I try to emphasise the subject and verb of the sentence.
9.	I change my way of saying things according to the context.
10.	I take my time to express what I want to say.
11.	I pay attention to my pronunciation.
12.	I try to speak clearly and loudly to make myself heard.
13.	I pay attention to my rhythm and intonation.
14.	I pay attention to the conversation flow.
15.	I try to make eye-contact when I am talking.
16.	I use gestures and facial expressions if I can't communicate how to express myself.
17.	I correct myself when I notice that I have made a mistake.
18.	I notice myself using an expression which fits a rule that I have learned.
19.	While speaking, I pay attention to the listener's reaction to my speech.
20.	I give examples if the listener doesn't understand what I am saying.
21.	I repeat what I want to say until the listener understands.
22.	I make comprehension checks to ensure the listener understands what I want to say.
23.	I try to use fillers when I cannot think of what to say.
24.	I leave a message unfinished because of some language difficulty.
25.	I try to give a good impression to the listener.
26.	I don't mind taking risks even though I might make mistakes.
27.	I try to enjoy the conversation.
28.	I try to relax when I feel anxious.
29.	I actively encourage myself to express what I want to say.
30.	I try to talk like a native speaker.
31.	I ask other people to help when I can't communicate well.
32.	I give up when I can't make myself understood.

These strategies are further divided into eight factors. Table 4 presents those factors and strategies that belong to each factor.

Table 4: Factors for Strategies

	Factor name	Items
Factor 1	Social Affective	23, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29
Factor 2	Fluency-Oriented	9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14
Factor 3	Negotiation for Meaning While Speaking	19, 20, 21, 22
Factor 4	Accuracy-Oriented	7, 17, 18, 30
Factor 5	Message Reduction and Alteration	3, 4, 5
Factor 6	Nonverbal Strategies While Speaking	15, 16
Factor 7	Message Abandonment	6, 24, 31, 32
Factor 8	Attempt to Think in English	1, 2

5. Research History

There has been a lot of research regarding WTC, self-perceived competence, and CSs use. Next paragraphs offer summaries of small number of studies that have not been mentioned yet but are valuable for the present research. Tannen (1990, as quoted in Donovan and MacIntyre, 2004) concluded that adult men talk more in meetings, in the classroom, and in mixed-group discussions that adult women, but when adolescents were concerned, girls showed higher WTC levels than boys. Research conducted by Donovan and MacIntyre in 2004 examined age and gender differences in willingness to communicate, communication apprehension, and self-perceived communication competence. The results show that female students show higher level of WTC than male students regardless of their age, but self-perceived competence proved to be a significant predictor of WTC primarily among male students.

Valadi et al. (2015) researched the relationship between language learners' WTC and their speaking proficiency and the relationship between gender and WTC. The results show that there was a strong and positive relationship between WTC and speaking proficiency. As for the difference between male and female students, there was no statistically significant difference.

Djigunović and Letica (2009) conducted a research in which they investigated Croatian university students' WTC in classroom. The results show that there is a statistically significant relationship between WTC in classroom and their overall success.

Recent research on WTC has indicated the importance of an individual's perception of their speaking competence. If an individual perceives themselves as competent, it is assumed that they will be more likely to engage in a communicative behaviour. It is believed that self-perceived competence will greatly affect individual's willingness to engage in communication (Barraclough, Christophel, and McCroskey, 1988: 188). Some researchers also state that self-perceived speaking competence is more associated with WTC than actual communication skill. "Since the choice of whether to communicate is a cognitive one, it is likely to be more influenced by one's perceptions of competence (of which one usually is aware) than one's actual competence (of which one may be totally unaware)" (McCroskey and Richmond, 1990: 27).

Bagarić and Takač (2009) researched the relationship between communication strategies use and communicative competence. Their aim was to determine which communication strategies participants use according to their level of communicative competence. There was a statistically significant difference between the use of CSs of participants regarding their level of competence. Less competent students more often resort to interactional strategies, while students with higher competence level more often use indirect CSs. As for the direct strategies, students with lower

competence level more often use message abandonment and code-switching, while more competent students more often use synonyms and approximation.

In 2014, Mesgarshahr and Abdollahzadeh investigated the impact of teaching communication strategies on Iranian EFL learners' WTC. They defined CSs as "all those techniques that language learners employ, in spite of deficient language competency, when target language items are not available" (55). The results show that the level of WTC for participants who received CSs training dramatically improved in comparison with participants who followed regular language instruction. They also state that CSs help learners achieve a higher perception of their communicative competence.

6. Research

6.1. Aim and Research Questions

The aim of this research was to explore the relationship between students' self-perceived speaking competence, WTC, and the application of CSs. Therefore, this study seeks to answer the following questions:

1. Is there a difference in WTC between male and female students?
2. Is there a difference in the use of communication strategies between male and female students?
3. Is there a relationship between students' self-perceived speaking competence and WTC?
4. Is there a relationship between students' self-perceived speaking competence and their use of CSs?
5. Is there a relationship between students' the use of communication strategies and WTC?

6.2. Methodology

1.1.1. Sample

This study involved 105 students from two primary schools in Slavonski brod, "Blaž Tadijanović" and "Đuro Pilar". Table 5. summarises the demographic data.

Table 5. Demographic data

	Frequency	**Percent**
male	48	45.7
female	57	54.3
Total	105	100

As can be seen, the sample included 48 male students and 57 female students. Participants were 8th graders who have been studying English for seven years.

Table 6. Students' Self-Perceived Speaking Competence

	Frequency	**Percent**
2	12	11.4
3	22	21
4	49	46.7
5	22	21
Total	105	100

Most of the students would say that their speaking competence is very good, which can be seen in Table 6. More than two thirds of students would give themselves good grades for their

speaking competence (4 and 5), while only 34 of them would give themselves weaker grades (2 and 3).

6.2.2. Instruments

Participants were given two questionnaires which were translated into their native language to avoid any possible misunderstandings. Participants were asked to grade their speaking competence on a scale from 1 to 5.

WTC in class was measured using the questionnaire created by Mihaljević Djigunović and Letica (2009). The questionnaire consists of 12 statements about students' feelings and opinions regarding speaking in class and communicating in English with friends and teacher. Participants were supposed to determine to which extent each of the statements applies to them using a five point Likert-type scale in which 1 stands for *It absolutely does not apply to me*, and 5 stands for *It absolutely applies to me*.

The second questionnaire was regarding the communication strategies. For the purposes of this study, a modified version of Nakatani's (2006) Oral Communication Strategy Inventory was used. Some of the items from Nakatani's questionnaire were deleted and some were paraphrased so that they were easier to understand. The questionnaire that was used consists of 24 statements regarding the usage of communication strategies. Participants were supposed to report the frequency with which they use a particular strategy using a five point Likert-type scale with 1 meaning *It absolutely does not apply to me* and 5 meaning *It absolutely applies to me*.

6.2.3. Procedure

The questionnaires were administered to the participants during their English classes as a single test battery. Before the administration of the test, the participants were informed of the purpose of the study, they were given instructions, and they were told that the test is anonymous. The data was analysed using the program *SPSS for Windows*, specifically descriptive statistics and correlation analyses.

6.3. Results

6.3.1. Descriptive statistics for WTC and CSs

Table 7. shows the descriptive statistics for willingness to communicate (WTC) and the use of communication strategies (CSs).

Table 7. Descriptive statistics for WTC and CSs

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
WTC	1.42	4.83	3.572	.782
CSs	1.92	4.75	3.553	.637

Results in Table 7. show us that students' willingness to communicate is quite high with mean value of 3.572 and that students exhibit high usage of communication strategies.

6.3.2. RQ1

First question was whether there is a difference in WTC between male and female students. Table 8. shows the results of independent t-test used to determine the previously mentioned differences.

Table 8. Difference in WTC between male and female students

	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Male	3.653	.707	.968	103	.335
Female	3.504	.840			

The results show that there is no statistically significant difference between male and female students regarding their WTC.

6.3.3. RQ2

Second question was concerning the difference between the two groups, male and female students, in terms of their frequency of strategy use. Table 9. demonstrates the results of an independent sample t-test which was used to determine the differences between the participants' use of strategies regarding their gender.

Table 9. Difference in strategy use between male and female students

	Mean	Std. Deviation	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Male	3.516	.660	-.438	103	.662
Female	3.570	.631			

The results show that there was no statistically significant difference between male and female students regarding the use of CSs.

As it was already mentioned, Nakatani (2006) divided communication strategies into eight factors. A more detailed descriptive analysis for each group of strategies was carried out in order to determine whether there is a difference is using each factor of strategies regarding the gender. The results are presented in Table 10.

Table 10. Difference in strategy use between male and female students (Nakatani's taxonomy)

		Mean	**Std. Deviation**	**t**	**df**	**Sig.(2-tailed)**
Social Affective	male	3.719	.809	.925	103	.357
	female	3.561	.121			
Fluency-Oriented	male	3.625	.121	.804	103	.423
	female	3.500	.100			
Negotiation for Meaning	male	3.552	.129	.304	102.478	.762*
	female	3.492	.153			
Accuracy-Oriented	male	3.333	.127	.105	103	.916
	female	3.316	.109			
Message Reduction	male	3.663	.089	-2.013	103	.047
	female	3.909	.083			
Nonverbal Strategies	male	3.229	.191	-1.033	103	.304
	female	3.509	.189			
Message Abandonment	male	3.438	.193	-2.094	96.502	.039*
	female	3.965	.162			
Attempt to Think in E.	male	3.125	.179	-1.392	91.195	.037*
	female	3.439	.136			

* $p < .05$

The results point to a statistically significant difference between the groups in the usage of strategies in Factor 7 and in Factor 8. Female students reported that they use strategies belonging to two factors (*Message Abandonment* and *Attempt to Think in English*) more often than male students.

6.3.4. RQ3

Third question was regarding the relationship between students' self-perceived speaking competence and WTC. Table 11. shows the correlation between those variables.

Table 11. The correlation coefficients between Self-Perceived Speaking Competence and WTC

		WTC
Self-Perceived	Pearson Correlation	.733**
Speaking	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
Competence	N	105

** p < .01

There is a statistically significant correlation between the two variables which means that the better that individual perceives their speaking competence, the more willing to communicate they are.

6.3.5. RQ4

Fourth question was regarding the relationship between students' self-perceived speaking competence and their use of CSs. Table 12 shows the relationship between those variables.

Table 12. The correlation coefficients between Self-perceived Speaking Competence and CSs Use

	Self-Perceived Speaking Competence	
	Pearson Correlation	**Sig. (2-tailed)**
Social Affective	.507**	.000
Fluency-Oriented	.471**	.000
Negotiation for Meaning	.491**	.000
Accuracy-Oriented	.560**	.000
Message Reduction	.418**	.000
Nonverbal Strategies	-.052	.596
Message Abandonment	.003	.976
Attempt to Think in E.	.001	.994
Total CSs	.515**	.000

** p < .01

The results show that there is a statistically significant correlation between self-perceived speaking competence and CSs use. Students who consider themselves more competent, report to use CSs more often than those who don't feel as competent.

6.3.6. RQ5

Fifth question was concerning the relationship between students' SCs use and WTC. The results are presented in Table 13.

Table 13. The correlation coefficients between WTC and CSs Use

	WTC	
	Pearson Correlation	**Sig. (2-tailed)**
CSs Total	.596**	.000
Social Affective	.646**	.000
Fluency-Oriented	.499**	.000
Negotiation for Meaning	.586**	.000
Accuracy-Oriented	.629**	.000
Message Reduction	.454**	.000
Nonverbal Strategies	.059	.551
Message Abandonment	.078	.427
Attempt to Think in E.	.-.063	.523

** $p < .01$

The results indicate that students who employ wider range of CSs have higher level of WTC. However, it does not apply to the strategies pertaining to the last three categories of CSs.

1.2. Discussion

The results show that there is no statistically significant difference between male and female students regarding their willingness to communicate or their use of communication strategies. These results are supported by Valadi et al. (2015) but they are inconsistent with most of the previous research. Results of the research done by Tannen (1990) reveal that girls showed higher WTC levels than boys. Donovan and MacIntyre (2004) conducted a research with the same results, female students show higher level of WTC than male students regardless of their age. Although the difference was not significant, the results show that male students have slightly higher levels of WTC (male M=3.65, female M=3.50) which contradicts results from previous surveys. However, male students also reported slightly higher level of self-perceived competence than female students (male M=3.88, female M=3.68) which is consistent with the belief that there is a positive correlation between WTC and self-perceived competence.

The results show that students' self-perceived speaking competence is little above average (3.77), which means that students feel rather confident in their ability to speak English. Their level of WTC (M=3.57) corresponds to their level of perceived competence. That means the students have rather good perception of their competence and they choose to communicate accordingly. They are confident in their abilities and therefore willing to communicate with their teacher and their colleagues.

The main aim of this research was to explore correlation between WTC, the use of CSs, and the level of self-perceived speaking competence. The results show that there is a strong statistically significant correlation between self-perceived speaking competence and WTC. Students who reported higher levels of self-perceived speaking competence also have higher levels of WTC. These results support the belief that if an individual perceives themselves as competent, they will be more likely to engage in a communicative behavior. Students who have higher WTC do not feel uncomfortable when they have to speak in class, they do not mind speaking without preparation, and they like communicating with their teachers and classmates. Since they love communicating and presumably often find themselves in communicative situations, it is logical that they have a lot of confidence in their abilities and a great perception of their speaking competence.

There was also a strong statistically significant correlation between self-perceived speaking competence and the use of CSs (r=.515). That means that the more communication strategies students use the higher their perceived speaking competence. There is a positive correlation between self-perceived competence and the use of certain categories of CSs. Students with higher level of self-perceived competence more often use social-affective strategies, fluency oriented strategies, negotiation for meaning while speaking, accuracy-oriented strategies, and message reduction and alteration. These results correspond to results from the research done by Bagarić and Takač only in part. Bagarić and Takač (2009) show that students with lower competence level more often employ interactional strategies (e.g. asking for help) and message abandonment, while students with higher competence level more often use indirect strategies (e.g. fillers) or synonyms and approximation. Nakatani's (2006) research also showed that more proficient speakers use negotiation and social-affective strategies more often than students with low competence level, which supports the results of this study.

Last question that this research aims to answer is whether there is a relationship between students' usage of communication strategies and WTC. There was a strong correlation between WTC and the use of CSs in general, but also between WTC and the use of social-affective strategies, fluency oriented strategies, negotiation for meaning while speaking, accuracy-oriented strategies, and message reduction and alteration. That was to be expected because those strategies are used to continue social interaction and to compensate for some inadequacies. Students with higher level of WTC like to participate in communicative interactions so it is logical that they would use whatever strategies they have available to continue the conversation.

These results show that self-perceived competence, WTC, and the use of CSs are intertwined. Students with higher level of self-perceived competence are more willing to

communicate and they use CSs more often than students with lower level of self-perceived competence. Students who use CSs more often are more willing to communicate.

It can be argued that CSs should be taught in class because they have positive effect on WTC and self-perceived speaking competence. It students were taught how to use CSs they would feel more confident entering a communicative setting because they would know how to express themselves despite the difficulties and lack in language knowledge.

Results of a research done by Mesgarshahr and Abdollahzadeh (2014) show that the level of WTC dramatically improved after students received CSs training. Nakatani (2006) believes that developing an ability to use specific CSs to compensate for language deficiencies can help learners improve their communicative proficiency. He argues that it is important to introduce strategy training for future curriculum development.

According to McCroskey and Richmond (1990) students with higher WTC have all the advantages. Teachers have positive expectations for students with high level of WTC and negative ones for those with low level of WTC. Students with low WTC are also seen in a negative way by their colleagues, while students with high WTC usually have more friends and report being more satisfied with their school experience.

This is why every teacher should think about including CSs training in their lesson plans. Students who use CSs effectively have higher perception of their speaking competence and are more willing to communicate which leads to more confident and more satisfied learners.

7. Conclusion

The aim of this research was to explore the relationship between willingness to communicate, self-perceived speaking competence, and the use of communication strategies. The results of this study found that there is a statistically significant correlation between those variables which is consistent with previously conducted research, but there was no statistically significant difference between the genders for either of those variables, which differs from earlier findings.

When the relationship between self-perceived speaking competence and the use of communication strategies is concerned, there was a statistically significant correlation. Students who use communication strategies more often tend to have higher perception of their speaking competence. That means that if students know how to overcome language difficulties and certain gaps in their knowledge, they will feel more confident in their abilities. The results also show that students with higher levels of self-perceived speaking competence tend to be more willing to communicate.

Moreover, students who reported higher use of communication strategies have higher level of willingness to communicate. In other words, students who know how to use various communication strategies to express their opinions and continue the communication will be more likely to engage in communicative interaction.

To sum up, students who use communication strategies more often have higher level of self-perceived speaking competence and are more willing to communicate. Students who are more willing to communicate have better overall success (Djigunović and Letica, 2009). However, most of Croatian students have never received communication strategies training.

This study was conducted to simply explore the relationship between these variables, but there is a need to explore whether level of willingness to communicate will increase after communication strategies training.

Even now, teachers should try their best to include communication strategies training in their syllabus. By doing that, they will help their students to be more confident while communicating and more satisfied with their experience in school (McCroskey and Richmond, 1990). As MacIntyre et al. (1998) claim, second language education should strive to create willingness to communicate. "A program that fails to produce students who are willing to communicate is simply a failed program" (547).

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9. Appendix 1: Questionnaire 1

Upitnik o spremnosti na komunikaciju

Spol: M / Ž
Razred: _____
Škola: _____
Kako biste ocijenili svoju sposobnost usmenog izražavanja na engleskom jeziku (1-5)? ____

Ovaj se upitnik sastoji od niza tvrdnji o osjećajima pri učenju i komunikaciji na engleskom jeziku. Odredite koliko sljedeće tvrdnje dobro opisuju vaše osjećaje. Zaokružite odgovarajuću brojku:
1 – uopće se ne odnosi na mene
2 – većinom se ne odnosi na mene
3 – ponekad se odnosi na mene, a ponekad ne
4 – djelomično se odnosi na mene
5 – potpuno se odnosi na mene

1. Volim se na engleskom jeziku izražavati bez razmišljanja o sitnim gramatičkim pravilima.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Mislim da je zabavnije učiti u grupi nego sam.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Prije nego počnem koristiti neku riječ na engleskom, želim biti siguran/a da točno znam kako se koristi.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Volim razgovarati s nastavnikom na engleskom jeziku.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Volim razgovarati s ostalim učenicima na engleskom jeziku.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Nije mi problem na nastavi koristiti komplicirane rečenice na engleskom.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Nije me strah pogriješiti.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Nije mi problem na nastavi raspravljati na engleskom o kompliciranim temama.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Nije mi neugodno javljati se na nastavi.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Nije mi neugodno kada moram govoriti engleski pred drugim učenicima.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Volim ići na nastavu engleskog jezika.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Nisam nervozan/a kada moram govoriti na engleskom bez pripreme.	1	2	3	4	5

10. Appendix 2: Questionnaire 2

Upitnik o komunikacijskim strategijama

Odredite koliko vas dobro opisuju sljedeće tvrdnje. Zaokružite broj koji je najbliže onomu što se odnosi na vas:
1 – uopće se ne odnosi na mene
2 – većinom se ne odnosi na mene
3 – ponekad se odnosi na mene, a ponekad ne
4 – djelomično se odnosi na mene
5 – potpuno se odnosi na mene

Strategije za nošenje s problemima u govoru:

1. Razmišljam na hrvatskom pa to onda prevedem na engleski.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Prisjetim se rečenice koju već znam na engleskom pa ju pokušam prilagoditi da odgovara situaciji.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Koristim riječi koje su mi poznate.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Skratim poruku i koristim jednostavne izraze.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Kada se ne osjećam sposobnim/om izreći što želim, kažem nešto drugo.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Pazim na gramatiku i redoslijed riječi u rečenici tijekom razgovora.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Pokušavam naglasiti subjekt i predikat rečenice.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Uzmem si vremena kako bih izrazio/la ono što želim reći.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Pazim na svoj izgovor.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Trudim se govoriti jasno i glasno kako bi me čuli.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Pazim na ritam govora i intonaciju.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Koristim geste i izraze lica kada se ne mogu izraziti riječima.	1	2	3	4	5
13. Ispravim se kada primijetim da sam pogriješio/la.	1	2	3	4	5
14. Primjećujem da koristim izraz koji odgovara pravilu koje sam naučio/la.	1	2	3	4	5
15. Ako sugovornik ne razumije, objašnjavam primjerima.	1	2	3	4	5
16. Provjeravam razumije li sugovornik ono što želim reći.	1	2	3	4	5
17. Koristim poštapalice (*fillers*) kada se ne mogu sjetiti što želim reći.	1	2	3	4	5
18. Ne bojim se riskirati iako bih mogao/la pogriješiti.	1	2	3	4	5
19. Pokušavam uživati u razgovoru.	1	2	3	4	5
20. Pokušavam se opustiti kada se osjećam nervozno.	1	2	3	4	5
21. Pokušavam govoriti kao izvorni govornik.	1	2	3	4	5
22. Zamolim druge za pomoć kada se ne mogu dobro izraziti.	1	2	3	4	5
23. Trudim se čak i kada se ne mogu jasno izraziti.	1	2	3	4	5
24. Kada se ne mogu sjetiti riječi, objasnim ju na engleskom.	1	2	3	4	5