CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the results derived from the data collected for this study. Findings of each proficiency group will be displayed in Tables. Arab and Iranian participants with different proficiency levels and their use of CSs and simple frequency percentages of CSs used will be presented.

4.2 Findings

The two research questions in this study are:-

1. What are the communication strategies used by:
   - high proficiency Arab/Iranian speakers while communicating in English with each other?
   - low proficiency Arab/Iranian speakers while communicating in English with each other?
   - high proficiency Arab/Iranian speakers while communicating in English with low proficiency Arab/Iranian speakers?
   - low proficiency Arab/Iranian speakers while communicating in English with high proficiency Arab/Iranian speakers?
2. Which communication strategies are most often used by:-
   - high proficiency Arab/Iranian speakers while communicating in English with high proficiency Arab/Iranian speakers?
   - low proficiency Arab/Iranian speakers while communicating in English with low proficiency Arab/Iranian speakers?
   - high proficiency Arab/Iranian speakers while communicating in English with low proficiency Arab/Iranian speakers?
   - low proficiency Arab/Iranian speakers while communicating in English with high proficiency Arab/Iranian speakers?
3. Are there significant differences in the use of communication strategies between participants of low and high proficiency levels of English?
4. What is the correlation between the use of communication strategies and low and high proficiency levels in English?

In this chapter the answers to the research questions will be presented.

4.2.1 Type and Number of Communication Strategies

Consistent with the first research question regarding the type of CSs used by participants in the three proficiency groups i.e. high-high, low-low and high-low, the results show that all the participants in this study used 20 types of CSs out of the 26 (see 3.5.2, Table 3.4) different types of strategies. The 20 types of CSs used by the participants of the current study are shown in Table 4.1 below:

Table 4.1 The 20 Types of Communication Strategies Participants Used

DIRECT STRATEGIES	INTERACTIONAL STRATEGIES
A. Resource deficit-related strategies • Message abandonment • Message reduction (topic avoidance) • Circumlocution • Approximation • Use of all-purpose words • Word coinage • Literal translation (transfer) • Code switching (language switch) • Use of similar sounding words • Omission ***B. Own performance problem-related strategies*** • Self-repair • Self-rephrasing	***A. Resource deficit-related strategies*** • Direct appeal for help • Indirect appeal for help ***B. Own-performance problem-related strategies*** • Comprehension check • Own-accuracy check ***C. Other-performance problem-related strategies*** • Asking for repetition • Asking for clarification • Asking for confirmation • Response

Table 4.2 shows the total number of CSs used as well as the number and percentage of 'direct strategies' and 'interactional strategies' participants used in order to avoid a breakdown in conversation.

Table 4.2 Types of Communication Strategies Used

Direct strategies	Interactional strategies	Total
2207	284	2491
88.60%	11.40%	100%

Figure 4.1 shows the frequency of CSs participants of the three proficiency groups used. They used direct strategies (88.60%) more frequently than interactional strategies (11.40%).

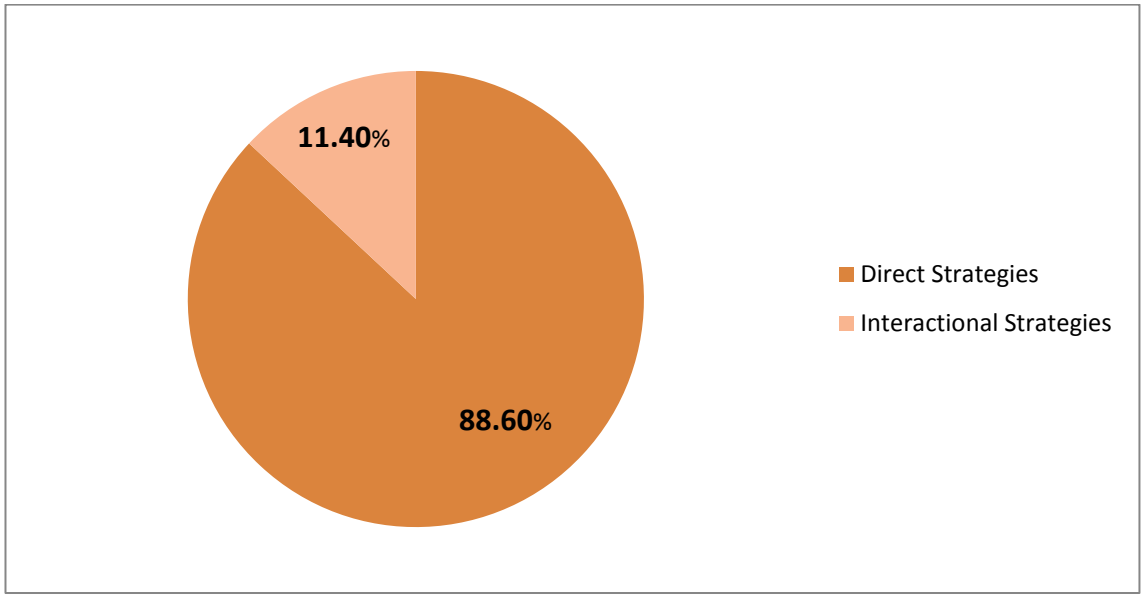

Figure 4.1 Frequency of Communication Strategies Used

4.3 Discussion

In this section the results of CSs used by each proficiency group will be discussed separately and in the overview (see 4.3), the overall results of the three groups and their relationships will be presented. This discussion will be based on the CSs in the taxonomy presented for the data analysis of this study (see Table 3.4).

4.3.1 High Proficiency Group

According to the taxonomy of Dornyei and Scott (1997) employed for this study, CSs are divided into Direct Strategies and Interactional Strategies. The CSs participants in

the high-high group employed are shown in Appendix A. Direct strategies were used more frequently (details of frequency use are shown in Figure 4.7) than interactional strategies by the participants of the high-high group.

4.3.1.1 Direct Strategies

As explained earlier in 2.5 direct strategies are those CSs which offer alternative and independent ways to be able to get meaning across. According to the taxonomy of Dornyei and Scott (1997) direct strategies are divided into three sub-categories i.e. resource deficit-related, own performance problem-related and other performance problem-related strategies (see Table 2.3). Every sub-category includes both L1-and L2-based CSs. In this section the direct strategies employed by the participants of high-high group of the current study will be presented.

A. Resource Deficit-related Strategies

As mentioned in 4.2.1.1 direct strategies include three sub-strategies. In this section, resource deficit-related strategies and its sub-categories, i.e. L1- based and L2-based resource deficit-related strategies will be presented.

I. L2-based Resource Deficit-related Strategies

Based on Dornyei and Scott (1997) resource deficit-related strategies include both L1- and L2-based strategies. Table 4.3 presents L2-based resource deficit-related strategies employed by the participants of the high-high group. The results shown in this table indicate that message reduction and circumlocution were the most frequently used CSs. Message reduction was used 66 times (12.70%) and circumlocution 31 times (5.98%) out of the total number (523 times) of CSs used in the high-high group. The use of the CSs in this category, with examples from the transcripts will be provided.

Table 4.3 High-High Group - Direct Strategies: L2-based Resource Deficit-related

Communication Strategies	Iranian		Sub Total	%	Arab		Sub Total	%	Total	%
	MO	E			F	AO				
Message reduction	14	12	**26**	**5**	23	17	**40**	**7.70**	**66**	**12.70**
Circumlocution	6	11	**17**	**3.27**	6	8	**14**	**2.70**	**31**	**5.98**
Approximation	4	6	**10**	**1.92**	10	2	**12**	**2.62**	**22**	**4.54**
Use of all purpose words	6	8	**14**	**2.70**	7	5	**12**	**2.30**	**26**	**5**
Word coinage	0	0	**0**	**0**	1	0	**0**	**0.19**	**1**	**0.19**
Use of similar sounding words	0	1	**1**	**0.19**	3	1	**4**	**0.77**	**5**	**0.96**
Omission	8	10	**18**	**3.46**	5	3	**8**	**1.54**	**26**	**5**

a. Message reduction

According to Dornyei and Scott (1997) message reduction means reducing the message by avoiding certain language structures or topics considered problematic or by leaving out some intended elements due to problems in linguistic resources. Message reduction includes 12.70% of the total CSs used by participants in the high-high group that is 66 out of 523 CSs (see Appendix A). Examples 1 and 2 include message reduction instances, where E, an Iranian participant tried to keep the flow of the conversation moving by avoiding the problematic area and communicating the intended message in another way. In Example 1, E, the Iranian participant said "people come to Malaysia" in line 1, then he left the message unfinished and continued with "I had some other idea about Malaysia".

Example 1:

40	E:	1	Well, actually I have um::: let me say something, <u>people come</u>
		2	<u>to Malaysia…,I had some other idea about Malaysia, really.</u> I
		3	thought that they're very simple a:nd so::: uh:: credulous, but
		4	after coming to Malaysia, was wrong, really. They are so
		5	smart in most cases believe me an:d uh: I have a problem
		6	really in in in still now after maybe seven months of staying
		7	here, whenever I am going to ask for address, I have problems
		8	really and I can't trust them at all. Because they gave me the
		9	wrong address.

In Example 2, E started the sentence with "I hope" in line 2 then he reduced the intended message by using a filler and after that restructured the utterance and continued with "let's cross our finger and hope for the best".

In Example 3, F an Arab participant used message reduction in line 1, when he started the utterance by saying "Egyptians they would say we'd nev…", but did not complete the sentence and soon started with a new sentence. Although F was a high proficiency speaker, he used message reduction frequently.

Example 2:			
51	E:	1	Everything is getting more and more expensive, daily and
		2	daily, really. So::: uh::: these are my experience so far.
		3	I hope uh::: let's cross our finger and hope for the best.
Example 3:			
54	F:	1	Back in, in Arab countries, Egyptians they would say we'd
		2	nev… they ask them any direction, he knows it. Even he
		3	doesn't know what is it, he pretend that he knows.

b. Circumlocution

According to Dornyei and Scott (1997) circumlocution is exemplifying, illustrating or describing the properties of the target object or action. Circumlocution was employed 31 times (5.98%) by participants in the high-high group. They used circumlocution to clarify those parts of speech that they believed might not be understood properly by the listeners. This strategy was used most frequently by E, an Iranian participant. For instance, in example 4, E paraphrased the word reduplication in line 2 and exemplified it in line 3 so as to transfer his intended meaning to the interlocutors. In Example 5, F an Arab, did not know the meaning of the word "clergy", therefore as shown in line 707, E paraphrased the word and used body language to convey the message.

Example 4:

115	E:	1	And in another point is this. Uh:: they use, too much
		2	reduplication in their language. They are using the same words
		3	two times maybe several times for example, *bunga bunga* and
		4	even they use, and use see, and they use, you know nasalaized,
		5	nasalization a lot. Um: as I said *bunga bunga*, sorry? Bunga
		6	bunga, bunga bunga. Oh it is different then, anyway.

Example 5:

707	E:	They have to ribbon the head, they have ribbon.
708	F:	Yeah, yes, anyways, what's they call it?
709	E:	umm clergy in English.
710	F:	Clergy, [a new word for me.]

In Example 6, AO an Arab, used literal translation in line 3, where he said "the English fall down" which he believed might not be clear to the other participants and in order to ensure that his interlocutors understood his conveyed message, he used circumlocution strategy in line 3 when he explained that he was referring to "the level of English". Later on he extended his explanation by saying "and they started to car.., I mean put curricular words". In Example 7, AO used circumlocution in line 1 when he said "these people who sell" instead of the word sales person this can be due to lack of vocabulary.

Example 6:

181	AO:	1	Because, I heard that English used to be very strong here, and
		2	they used to use English daily and it was like standard English
		3	there, but in the couple, in the last ten years the English fall
		4	down, the level of English, and they started to car.., I mean put
		5	curricular words. Is it for me? Thank you.

Example 7:

442	AO:	1	They have, these people who sell, they are very good, they
		2	attract you to buy something, they will, uh: you come to see
		3	only, but you find yourself with a bag, carrying, you already
		4	bought something.

In Example 8, MO an Iranian, was unable to recall the word "guidance school" as a level in school education therefore he explains the level and the order which must be

followed to arrive at this level of education as seen in lines 3 and 4. Then he gave a synonym by saying "junior high school" in line 4 and kept the flow of the conversation until he remembered the word that he needed to produce. In Example 9, F used the word "caption" in line 765 which probably though would not be understood by the other interlocutors, therefore he paraphrased the word "caption" to be able to convey his intended message. In line 766 MO provided him with the synonym "subtitle" for the word "caption" according to the paraphrase F has provided.

Example 8:

656	MO:	1	Well, English. They sta, they start learning English when they
		2	are, if you want to compare, grade six, I mean this, that like
		3	after they pass the first primary school period, then they start
		4	the secondary. I mean umm as {name given}said middle one
		5	which is some, some people call it junior high such, [junior
		6	high school] or guidance|

Example 9:

765	F:	1	Yeah, I remember even a caption, you know a caption when
		2	you are translating the movie for you and it has bad words?
766	MO:	1	Subtitle.

c. Approximation

Approximation is an L2-based resource-deficit problem-related strategy, and is used by L2 speakers when they have a difficulty in the target language. According to the definition of Dornyei and Scott (1997) approximation is using a single alternative lexical item or a related term, which shares semantic features with the target word or structure. As shown in Table 4.3, 4.54% of the CSs used by the high-high participants were approximation. For Arab participants 2.62% and for the Iranian participants 1.92% of the CSs used are categorized under approximation. The examples 10-12 show the instances where approximation was used by the participants in this group. In Example 10, MO uses "air" instead of "weather" in line 4. Example 11 shows that F says "snow"

for “cold” in line 1 and finally in Example 12, E uses the word “brand” instead of saying “type” or “kind” in line 2.

Example 10:

252	MO:	1	Yeah, fine. So, many, uh::, so I’m OK with this type of , but
		2	we don’t have such humidity like all over the year like one or
		3	two months of the year in summer. In June, July and August,
		4	we got this, get this kind of air, with this this much humidity
		5	in my area. So, I’ve been living in UAE for a couple of years,
		6	so, I’m, I’m OK with this weather.

Example 11:

259	F:	1	I live, I lived in snow weather for almost te::h: four years and
		2	a half in Minnesota, where I graduated my Master from there.

Example 12:

360	E:	1	And then really, it is so enjoyable, for example we like to have
		2	بربری “a type of bread in Iran” one brand [is بربری .

d. Use of all purpose words

Based on Dornyei and Scott’s (1997, p. 188) definition of use of all purpose words, it is the extension of a general, empty lexical item to contexts where specific words are lacking such as the use of “thing, stuff, make, do, thingie, what-do-you-call-it”. According to the results presented in Table 4.3, this CS was employed equally by both Arab and Iranian subjects of high-high group in 5% of instances. The two following examples show how MO and E used this CS.

In Example 13, MO tried to use a word, probably “believe”, in line 4, but to fill the gap due to not being able to remember the word, he used “What-do-you-call-it” (line 4). Similarly in Example 14, E tried to say a word but he was unable to recall it, therefore he used “this” in two consequent lines (lines 135 & 137). The fact is that speakers use all purpose words CS when they have difficulty in vocabulary.

Example 13:

14	MO:	1	I have to think about how Malaysian toward, well, I mean if
		2	they compare Malaysians, I mean if you compare Chinese,
		3	Indians and Malay, well, number one is that I can't seriously,
		4	uh:::: (2.0) what-do-you-call-it (.) say believe, what uh:::: first
		5	of what I have thought, uh::::, it takes (.) like some time for
		6	me, I can't trust them, for a time, I mean, for the first time, for
		7	the first, the first place, unless I get accustomed to them.
		8	Unless, I get, unless, unless, uh::: I make friends with them. I
		9	have problems with taxi drivers. Have you, have you uh:: |

Example 14:

135	E:	Even he has problems in this|
136	MO:	Yeah.
137	E:	I mean this|

e. Word coinage

Word coinage is "creating a non-existing L2 word by applying a supposed L2 rule to an existing L2 word" as defined by Dornyei and Scott (1997, p. 189). Table 4.3 shows that word coinage was used only once by an Arab participant. The following is the only example of using word coinage in the high-high group, where F created the new word "airporting" (line 4) by combining the noun "airport" and the ending "-ing" to refer to the assistance or service provided in the airport.

Example 15:

29	F:	1	There is no rule and regulation. They don't believe in this nice
		2	highway, nice train, underground. Their airport actually get
		3	the best airport two-thousand eight and two-thousand seven
		4	and two-thousand six of the best airporting service. But the
		5	problem is you know, uh::: people, I mean the local people,
		6	they don't believe in their I mean, uh:::

f. Use of similar sounding words

According to the definition of Dornyei and Scott (1997, p. 188), use of similar sounding words is "compensating for a lexical item whose form the speaker is unsure of, with a word (either existing or non-existing) which sounds more or less like the target item".

This CS was hardly used by the participants in the high-high group compared to the participants in the low-low group (see Table 4.6 and 4.9). Participants in the high-high group employed use of similar sounding words only 5 times out of 523 (0.96%) while the low-low group used it 33 times 1160 (2.84%). Examples of using similar sounding words will be given in the low-low group where the participants used it more frequently (see Examples 60 & 61).

g. Omission

According to Dornyei and Scott (1997, P.189) omission means "Leaving a gap when not knowing a word and carrying on as if it had been said". Results shown in Table 4.3 demonstrate that the use of omission by Iranian participants was slightly higher than Arab subjects. Iranian participants used omission 18 times (3.46%) compared to Arab participants who used it only 8 times (1.54%). Speakers usually use omission in order to maintain the flow of the conversation and prevent interruption in conveying a message (as a result of insufficient, appropriate vocabulary knowledge). The following examples show the situations where subjects in this study resorted to omission as a CS.

In Example 16, MO employed omission in line 1 where he said "their language is uh::" probably because he was unable to recall the name of the language and in order to keep the flow of the conversation without being interrupted.

Example 16:

88	MO:	1	Their lan, their language is <u>uh::</u> they believe that the they
		2	have, there is a variety of English called, Malaysian English.

In Example 17, E used omission in line 2 where he said "when I was in uh::" and omitted the word which probably was a name of a place, city or country. He employed omission perhaps because he was unable to recall the intended word and in order to continue the conversation without interruption. In Example 18, line 1, AO failed to

recall a word due to limited vocabulary, where he said "Yes, so I'm trying to…" and left a gap and therefore employed 'omission' in order to prevent being interrupted.

Example 17:

257 E: 1 But unfortunately, I have problems with the weather, really.
2 I keep sweating over and over, when I was in uh::, I'm so
3 accustomed to cold weather. I like, I love cold weather.

Example 18:

948 AO: 1 Yes, so I'm trying to…, this is my problem actually, it's not
2 with the supervisor, I tell you|

II. L1-based Resource Deficit-related Strategies

This section presents the L1-based resource deficit-related direct strategies used by participants in the high-high group. Literal translation and code switching are the two CSs discussed (see Table 4.4).

Table 4.4 High-High Group - Direct Strategies: L1-based Resource Deficit-related

Communication Strategies	Iranian		Sub Total	%	Arab		Sub Total	%	Total	%
	MO	E			F	AO				
Literal translation	21	14	**35**	**6.73**	38	15	**53**	**10.19**	**88**	**16.93**
Code switching	34	24	**58**	**11.15**	34	11	**45**	**8.65**	**103**	**19.80**

a. Literal translation

Dornyei and Scott (1997, p. 189) defined literal translation as "Translating literally a lexical item, an idiom, a compound word or structure from L1/L3 to L2". In the high-high group Arab participants used literal translation more frequently than the Iranian participants. Arab participants employed literal translation 53 times (10.19%) while Iranian participants used the same CS 35 times (6.73%). This can probably be due to the fact that the Arab participants appear to have more problems in L2 linguistic resources

compared to their Iranian interlocutors. They constantly used their L1 when dealing with the target language. The following are some examples of the 'literal translation' employed by participants in this group.

In Example 19, F an Arab participant literally translated "لبستنی" which means "dressed me up" from Arabic to 'put on me' (line 1). In Example 20, F literally translated "وسیله" which carries two meanings ("way" and "means") from Arabic when he used the word "means" instead of "way". In other words, instead of saying "That's the only <u>way</u> we are different" he said "That's the only <u>mean</u> we are different" (line 4).

Example 19:			
459	F:	1	She just <u>put on me</u> with the mirror, she said look with this tie,
		2	and then I when I say I like it and finally I too three. I came
		3	over just to buy one, I end up with three.
Example 20:			
520	F:	1	I would like to, Sorry {name given} uh uh about the
		2	university, a compare between may country and Malaysia,
		3	which is no big different. Only in courses or you can take
		4	your thesis right away. That's the only <u>mean</u> we are different
		5	on it.

In Example 21, line 2, F used the word "facility" which is a literal translation of the Arabic word "طریقه" instead of "clue" or "way" because he is translating from L1 into English. In Example 22, line 2, AO the Arab participant said "they are needing help" which is the literal translation of the Arabic phrase " انهم یحتاجون مساعده" because he referred to Arabic grammar and used present continuous, where as in English he should say "they need help". He used literal translation in line 2 for the second time when he said "they are been" for the Arabic phrase "انهم کانوا الذین" instead of "they are" because he referred to his L1 structure and therefore used 'literal translation'.

Example 21:

534	F:	1	Or from the police you've been caught or accident or
		2	something, that's it. Otherwise you have no uh facility
		3	or chance.

Example 22:

581	AO:	1	But when you compare the Malaysians, to the Iranians and
		2	Arabs specially, not Iranians actually Arabs is they, they are
		3	needing help, they are been the one who need help in writing,
		4	their, their English, their writings, it's very terrible.

In Example 23, line 3, AO the Arab participant used literal translation when he wanted to refer to the quality of education in Malaysian universities. He translated from his L1 "انها اقوى من عمان" to English and said "it's stronger than Oman" instead of saying "it is better than Oman" or "it has a better educational system compared to Oman".

Example 23:

597	AO:	1	Uh university in our Oman. I really I found that, I think the
		2	Malaysian education especially in the curriculum level, the
		3	universities and like that, It's: I think, it's stronger than Oman.
		4	Oman|

In Example 24, line 3, F used "focusing you for engineering" because he translated literally "يركزونک على الهندسه" from Arabic to English.

Example 24:

627	F:	1	OK, you are going to Medicine, they will focus three years
		2	for you in Medicine, but you might regret that after three years
		3	studying for they're focusing you for engineering or to be in a
		4	Medicine, but when you graduate, what's his grade is. If you
		5	got from high school like, four something, um we are out of
		6	five, here out of four, you reach like 4.5 OK, you are qualified,
		7	you are (not clear) not. So it depends, you go to science
		8	college or something you know.

b. Code switching

According to Dornyei and Scott (1997, P. 189) code switching means "Including L1/L3 words with L1/L3 pronunciation in L2 speech; this may involve stretches of discourse ranging from single words to whole chunks and even complete turns."

Results in the high-high group showed that code switching was the most often used CS. As shown in Table 4.4 code switching was used 103 times (19.80%). Iranian participants employed code-switching 58 times (11.15%) while Arab participant used it 45 times (8.65%). Participants in the high-high group not only switched to their L1 (Arabic & Persian) but also to the Malaysia's national language i.e. Bahasa Malaysia. The Iranians participants not only code-switched to Persian which is their L1 (31 times) but also to Arabic (21 times) and Bahasa Malaysia (6 times) while the Arab participants code-switched to their L1 (Arabic) most frequently (40 times), to Bahasa Malaysia (4 times) and only once to Persian (see 4.3.2.1, Table 4.22). Below are some examples of code switching in this study.

In Example 25, F the Arab participant code switched to Bahasa Malaysia several times. Example 26 and 27 show that both MO the Iranian participant, and F the Arab participant, code switched to Arabic.

Example 25:

108	F:	Who taught me Bahasa Melayu, and he really helped me, seriously. Now I *chakab Bahasa Melayu.* (speak in Malaysian Language)
109	E:	um:::
110	F:	Some places when I go, I went to in my way, small village to see, to look around. If you talk to them where is the bathroom? Where is the wash? Washroom? And they just look at you like this. You have to say *Demana tandas*? (Where is the toilet?) In their own language.
111	MO:	*Tandas awam*. (Public toilet)
112	F:	Uhm:: *dema demana tandas*? (whe, where is the toilet?) They are using English, I mean exactly what you are talking about English, just in the hotels, exactly what you say, something in business.

Example 26:

164 MO: Pay your money and then you خلی یولی (let it be or leave him alone) ((laugh)).
165 F: خلی یولی (let it be or leave him alone)

Example 27:

223 MO: You have lots of رطوبه (humidity) there. Is that right? {Or is it|]
224 F: Yes, [no], uh: much more رطوبه (humidity) there.

In Example 28, all the participants in high-high group i.e. AO and F the Arab participants as well as MO and E the Iranian participants, code switched to Arabic in their conversations. In Example 28 the Arab participants, code switched to Arabic to talk about preparation for prayers. And in Examples 29 and 30 the Iranian participants MO and E, code switched to their L1 (Persian) in order to refer to the name of different kinds of food in Iran.

Example 28:

271 AO: Do you have your? عندک وضو (Have you washed up for prayers?)
272 F: لا والله بتوضی انا (no, I have to wash up for prayers)
273 AO: بس انا بصلی معاک بعدین (but I will pray with you later)
274 F: Yeah, حیاک (welcome)
275 E: ماشاالله، ماشاالله (praising words) Am I right? Uh, this is one of the, one of those words, you can use in Persian.
277 F: Yes.
278 MO: By the way, we also use تقبل الله. Do you have this in Arabic, too. تقبل الله (hope God accepts your prayers), ha?
279 F: تقبل الله (hope God accepts your prayers), yeah.
280 MO: تقبل الله (hope God accepts your prayers)

Example 29:

360 E: 1 And then really, it is so enjoyable, for example we like to have
2 **بربری** (a type of bread in Iran) one brand [is **بربری** .

Example 30:

377 MO: 1 The place you live, but my place Pantai Hillpark, I have
2 ordered this, I have ordered this, the::: shop keeper, we have a
3 shop there. I have given him a list like **خیارشور** (cucumber
4 pickle), like **رب انار** (pomegranate paste), like **کشک** (whey,
5 curd), like **نان** (bread) and he prepared all these things from the
6 shop, from Ampang area.

Although code switching is one of the CSs, it can be seen in the Examples above, not all code switching used in this data are examples of CSs, as code switching was used for other reasons, such as showing the ability to talk in Bahasa Malaysia, to show solidarity with the participants of other ethnic group and to refer to ethnic based vocabulary items.

The socio-linguistic benefits of code-switching have also been identified as a means of communicating solidarity or affiliation to a particular social group. It has been suggested by Crystal (1987) as one of several rationales for code-switching by indicating that switching commonly occurs when an individual wishes to express solidarity with a particular social group. Rapport is established between the speaker and the listener when the listener responds with a similar switch.

B. Own Performance Problem-related Strategies: L1- or L2-based

This section presents the L1- or L2-based own performance problem-related strategies which is a sub-category of direct strategies based on Dornyei and Scott's (1997) taxonomy of CSs. Table 4.5 shows the own performance problem-related CSs employed by the participants in high-high group. Each CS will be presented with examples taken from the data collected for the current study.

Table 4.5 High-High Group - Direct Strategies: Own Performance Problem-related

Communication Strategies	**Iranian**		**Sub Total**	**%**	**Arab**		**Sub Total**	**%**	**Total**	**%**
	MO	**E**			**F**	**AO**				
Self-repair	23	25	**48**	**9.22**	25	17	**42**	**8.07**	**90**	**17.29**
Self-rephrasing	2	7	**9**	**1.73**	0	4	**4**	**0.77**	**13**	**2.5**

a. Self-repair

Dornyei and Scott (1997, p. 190) defined self-repair as "Making self-initiated corrections in one's own speech." As mentioned earlier in 3.5.2 retrieval according to Dornyei and Scott (1997) is a resource deficit-related CS. However, here it is included

in self-repair category. Self repair is the second most frequently used CS in the high-high group. The rationale for including retrieval in self-repair is that retrieval is a self-repair with the difference of producing several, different options of self-repair, before arriving at a final form. The use of this CS was nearly similar in both ethnic groups. As shown in Table 4.5 Iranian participants employed self-repair 48 times (9.22%) and Arab participants used it 42 times (8.07%). The instances where the participants of the high-high group used self-repair are shown in the examples below. The results presented in Table 4.5 show that, participants in the high-high group used self-repair more frequently as compared to the high-low and the low-low groups. The excessive use of self-repair in this group suggests that being proficient English language speakers, participants were constantly monitoring their language production, and were aware of the mistakes produced and able to correct them instantly. Examples 31-33 present illustrations of self-repair employed by the participants in the high-high group.

In Example 31, line 2, E an Iranian participant, corrected himself and said 'has worked' immediately after he used the simple past verb 'worked'. In Example 32, F an Arab participant repaired himself twice, first when he wanted to say the word "Chinese" he uttered an incomplete word but then corrected the use of the word and second when he wanted to refer to the Chinese, he first used 'Chinese' but then corrected himself and used 'Malaysian Chinese'. In Example 33, F corrected himself grammatically when he used 'I lived' after he has used the present tense 'I live'.

Example 31:

91	E:	1	And it happened, my supervisor uh::: Dr. {name given} uh:::
		2	um:: worked, has worked on Menglish or as they say
		3	Malaysian English, and then it is her thesis, Ph.D. thesis. Yes
		4	go ahead please.

Example 32:			
209	F:	1	Even Chinese you know, Chi, Chinese people, when
		2	uh: when I mean uh: Chinese, Malaysian Chinese, they
		3	don't pronounce the R.
Example 33:			
259	F:	1	I live, I lived in snow weather for almost te::h: four years and
		2	a half in Minnesota, where I graduated my Master from there.

b. Self-rephrasing

According to Dornyei and Scott (1997) self-rephrasing is repeating a term already uttered, not literally, but by adding something or paraphrasing. Results shown in Table 4.5 indicate that participants in the high-high group seldom used self-rephrasing. It was used by Iranian participants 9 times (1.73%) while Arab participant used self-rephrasing 4 times (0.77%). This CS is L1- or L2-based own performance problem-related direct strategy which means that subjects refer to this strategy when they feel that what is uttered may not be able to convey their intended message; therefore they resort to self-rephrasing in order to make their message understood by the other interlocutors. Below are examples where subjects used self-rephrasing in their conversations.

In Example 34, MO said "And a lot of them" but then he paraphrased the utterance into "let's say many of them" and therefore used self-rephrasing. In Example 35, E said "I don't know" but then used self-rephrasing and paraphrased his utterance into "I'm not sure" perhaps to be able to convey his intended message in a better way.

Example 34:			
16	MO:	1	And a lot of them, not let's say many of them are (not clear).
		2	I mean taxi drivers, they're, you drive your car. Maybe you
		3	don't, you don't, feel like|
Example 35:			
356	E:	1	We have different kinds of uh, you know bread in Iran. I don't
		2	know, I'm not sure whether you are familiar with that or not.

4.3.1.2 Interactional Strategies

According to Dornyei and Scott's (1997) definition, interactional strategies are those CSs by which the participants cooperatively perform trouble-shooting exchanges. Similar to direct strategies which includes several sub categories, interactional strategies consist of several divisions shown in the modified Dornyei and Scott's (1997) taxonomy of CSs employed in this study (see Table 3.4).

A. Resource Deficit-related Strategies: L1- or L2-based

In this section resource deficit-related strategies, one of the sub-categories of interactional strategies based on Dornyei and Scott's (1997) taxonomy of CSs will be presented with examples provided from the data. Table 4.6 presents the number and types of resource deficit-related interactional strategies.

Table 4.6 Interactional Strategies: Resource Deficit-related

Communication Strategies	Iranian		Sub Total	%	Arab		Sub Total	%	Total	%
	MO	E			F	AO				
Direct appeal for help	1	4	**5**	**0.96**	1	1	**2**	**0.38**	**7**	**2.30**
Indirect appeal for help	1	1	**2**	**0.38**	0	0	**0**	**0**	**2**	**0.38**

a. Direct appeal for help

According to Dornyei and Scott (1997, p. 191) direct appeal for help is requesting assistance from the interlocutor with an explicit question about L2 knowledge gap. As shown in Table 4.6 participants in the high-high group hardly used direct appeal for help probably because they were proficient English speakers and they had the ability to use other CSs rather than appeal for assistance. Iranian participants resorted to direct appeal for help only 5 times (0.96%) while Arab participants employed this CS, 2 times (0.38%). Some examples of the usage of direct appeal for help in the high-high group follow.

In example 36, F, an Arab participant asked for the meaning of the word "development" in Arabic (line 1). However, he immediately remembered the word and proceeded without waiting for a response from AO. In Example 37, E, an Iranian participant used direct appeal for help in order to recall a word which starts with the letter "L" in his L1. However he soon remembered the word (line 2).

Example 36:			
31	F:	1	I mean people, <u>development</u>ايش معنى التطور حقهم ال? (***<u>what is the</u>***
		2	***<u>meaning of their development</u>***<u>? *The*</u>) <u>development.</u>
Example 37:			
374	E:	1	And uh: for, for example um::: آبگوشت "an Iranian food" for
		2	example, <u>it is better to have it with uh:: L:: what's it?</u> Um:::
		3	L لواش "a type of Iranian bread".

In Example 38, an Arab participant is unable to recall a word in the target language and directly appealed for help (line 4).

Example 38:			
871	AO:	1	And they will catch you. You cannot, you are not allowed to
		2	enter anything except one pencil and a pen and a ruler or a
		3	rubber, that's all. And in the inside the examination hall, there
		4	will be around twenty<u>, what do they call it in English?</u> I forgot
		5	the name.

b. Indirect appeal for help

According to Dornyei and Scott (1997, p. 191) indirect appeal for help is "Trying to elicit help from the interlocutor indirectly by expressing lack of a needed L2 item either verbally or nonverbally." The only two instances of indirect appeal for help in the high-high group were used by the Iranian participants of this group (see Example 39 & 40).

In example 39, line 6, MO primarily used a direct appeal for help when he said "What was that?" and immediately continued with an indirect appeal for help by saying "Bukit Bingtang?" with a rising intonation (line 6 & 7).

Example 39:

317 MO: 1 Yeah, just fun when you do it alone, but with the family the
2 kids, I want this, I want that and apart from the money, money
3 on one side, is it on the, uh:: apart from the money, then I
4 really get tired. I mean, I five, six hours of shopping. You
5 walk in the Carrefour, Carrefour, in the M in Mid Valley, you
6 go to BB Plaza and uh:: what uh what was that? Bukit
7 Bingtang? And then after six hours your wife, no I haven't
8 bought enough, hey its whole hours I, I can't walk uh stand on
9 my, on my knees now. Then yeah, I don't know, I do seh:::
10 shopping alone, of course I enjoy it.

In Example 40, line 584 (3) E used a pause as a nonverbal indirect appeal for help and the other interlocutors provided him with the word he indirectly requested. As it is seen in line 586 in Example 40, E used the word "community", which MO provided after the pause.

Example 40:

584 E: 1 Exactly, that's why I'm going to um uh to::: all of you to get
2 together and uh have uh a session, talk about this and then,
3 why not uh establishing a (.)
585 MO: Community.
586 E: Community to help these people, and also you can earn some money.

B. Own-performance Problem-related Strategies: L1- or L2-based

L1- or L2-based own-performance problem-related strategies are the second sub-category of interactional strategies according to Dornyei and Scott's (1997) taxonomy of CSs. Table 4.7 presents the own-performance problem-related interactional strategies participants in the high-high group employed.

Table 4.7 High-High Group - Interactional Strategies: Own-performance Problem-related

Communication Strategies	Iranian		Sub Total	%	Arab		Sub Total	%	Total	%
	MO	E			F	AO				
Comprehension-check	0	0	**0**	**0**	2	0	**2**	**0.38**	**2**	**0.38**
Own-accuracy check	1	1	**2**	**0.38**	0	0	**0**	**0**	**2**	**0.38**

a. Comprehension check

Based on the definition provided by Dornyei and Scott (1997, p. 192), comprehension check is asking questions to check that the interlocutor understands. Only one of the Arab participants in the high-high group used comprehension check strategy (see Table 4.7). This is probably due to the fact that participants in the high-high group have a good command of the English language and they perhaps were able to convey the intended message properly, therefore the comprehension-check strategy was not used. The only instance of comprehension check employed in this study is presented below.

In this example F, the Arab participant used the word "caption" and in order to make sure the interlocutors were able to understand the meaning he used comprehension check by saying "you know a caption?" and then he continued while defining the word "caption".

Example 41:			
765	F:	1 2	Yeah, I remember even a caption, you know a caption? When you are translating the movie for you and it has bad words?

b. Own-accuracy check

According to Dornyei and Scott (1997, p. 192) own-accuracy check is an indication of some degree of uncertainty and checking that what is said is correct by asking a concrete question or repeating a word with a question intonation about a self-produced form. As shown in Table 4.7 own-accuracy check was used only twice by the Iranian participants. The following examples show the usage of own-accuracy check.

As it can be seen in Example 42 the speaker resorted to own-accuracy check not to check his accuracy in English but in order to ensure what he had said in Arabic was correct. In Example 43, MO checks the accuracy of the word 'refinery'.

Example 42:

275 E: 1 ماشاالله، ماشاالله (praising words in Arabic) Am I right? Uh, this is
2 one of the, one of those words, you can use in Persian.

Example 43:

290 MO: They've got a refine uh: do we call it a refinery, ha?
291 E: Where? پالایشگاه ? (refinery?)

C. Other-performance Problem-related Strategies: L1- or L2-based

The third sub-category of interactional strategies belongs to L1- or L2-based other-performance problem-related strategies. Table 4.8 presents the different types of other-performance problem-related strategies employed by the participants in the high-high group.

Table 4.8 High-High Group - Interactional Strategies: Other-performance Problem-related

Communication Strategies	Iranian		Sub Total	%	Arab		Sub Total	%	Total	%
	MO	E			F	AO				
Asking for repetition	1	1	**2**	**0.38**	2	1	**3**	**0.57**	**5**	**0.96**
Asking for clarification	2	0	**2**	**0.38**	1	1	**2**	**0.38**	**4**	**0.77**
Asking for confirmation	2	1	**3**	**0.57**	0	1	**1**	**0.19**	**4**	**0.77**
Response	3	15	**18**	**3.46**	2	6	**8**	**1.53**	**26**	**5**

a. Asking for repetition

Asking for repetition is a sub-category of the other-performance problem-related interactional strategies. It is used when there is a problem in the language production of the interlocutor. Based on Dornyei and Scott's (1997, p. 191) definition asking for repetition is "requesting repetition when not hearing or understanding something properly". The results shown in Table 4.11 indicate that asking for repetition was used only 5 times (0.96%) by the participants in the high-high group. Asking for repetition is used when there is a problem in the other interlocutor's language production and the

listener asks the speaker to repeat the message when there is a breakdown in comprehension. The following are examples where asking for repetition was employed. As shown in Example 44, line 376, E asked for repetition when he did not understand the place MO, the Iranian speaker, referred to. In Example 45, line 388, E said something which was not clear, therefore MO asked for repetition by saying "What?" in line 389.

Example 44:

375	MO:	Sorry, well, no I know, you could solve um:: the place where you live, I don't know whether you can find Iranian bread or not, [but my|
376	E:	[Where]?
377	MO:	The place you live, but my place Pantai Hillpark, I have ordered this, I have ordered this, the::: shop keeper, we have a shop there. I have given him a list like خیارشور "cucumber pickle", like رب انار "pomegranate paste", like کشک

Example 45:

388	E:	Actually, we don't have (not clear)
389	MO:	What?
390	E:	We don't have it re really, so it smells Iran (.) really.

b. Asking for clarification

Asking for clarification is another sub-category of the other-performance problem-related interactional strategies. As defined by Dornyei and Scott (1997, p. 191), asking for clarification is to request explanation of an unfamiliar meaning structure. Similar to the previous CS asking for clarification is employed when there is a problem in the interlocutor's utterance. Participants in high-high group used asking for clarification only 4 times (see Table 4.8).

In Example 46, line 466 (2) MO asked for clarification by posing the question "Would you clarify this?" In Example 47, line 696, AO asked for clarification after MO and E uttered the word "Mullah" which was an unfamiliar word to AO, because it was pronounced different from the Arabic pronunciation of the word. In line 697, E

provided AO with the English meaning of the word "Mullah" which is "Clergy" and then paraphrased it.

Example 46:

465	AO:	1	This one will be like a turn taking, someone will talk first
		2	about his experience and his country.
466	MO:	1	So, by schools you mean, if you have to talk my kids go to
		2	Malay schools, I had something to tell you, but schooling I
		3	mean would you clarify this?

Example 47:

694	MO:	[Mullah]
695	E:	[Mullahs], I mean.
696	AO:	Sorry?
697	E:	Clergymen, [I mean OK Islamic, the Islamic] guys, uh

c. Asking for confirmation

Asking for confirmation is another sub-category of other-performance problem-related interactional strategies. According to Dornyei and Scott (1997) asking for confirmation is requesting confirmation that understanding was accurate and repeating the trigger in a question repeat or asking a full question. As shown in Table 4.8 participants in the high-high group employed asking for confirmation only 4 times.

In Example 48, MO asked for confirmation when he said "Than Iran right?" in line 353, probably because he wanted to ensure whether E believed Iran was a cheaper country or Malaysia.

Example 48:

352	E:	Certain things are more expensive than our country, and vice versa. Uh:: but all together, uh:: comparing to prices specially nowadays, uh:: Malaysia is much cheaper.
353	MO:	Than Iran right?

Example 49:

724	AO:	(not clear) when I asked this question, because last time I attend one sem uh seminar in our faculty. It was uh by one Indian, he did his PhD in comparing curriculum between Iran, India and Malaysia, and he found that Malaysian curriculum is different with, from Iran and uh India. Iran is:: the, for example if I say number one, is the best, I can say Malaysian, Indian and Iranian is the little bit bad kind of, sorry for this sword. Because he said most of these people, they are teaching English, but they are using their environment to teach English. For example they will put a picture of Iranian girl going to school, they will not put like, American or|
725	F:	Exactly.
726	AO:	Yeah.
727	MO:	In Iran you said?
728	AO:	Yeah.

In Example 49, line 727, MO asked for confirmation to ensure whether AO was talking about Iran.

d. Response

Response is another sub-category of the other-performance problem-related interactional strategy. According to the taxonomy of CSs designed for this study, response includes all the different types of response in Dorneyi and Scott's (1977) taxonomy. These are put in one category in this study (see 3.5.2). Therefore, response can be defined as repeating, rephrasing or confirming the original message or the suggested form or providing other-initiated self-repair. As shown in Table 4.8 participants in the high-high group used response 26 times (5%) in their conversations. Iranian participants employed response 18 times (3.46%) while Arab participants employed it 8 times (1.53%). Examples of response used by the high-high group follow.

In Example 50, line 635, F said "So twelve years the total, yes?" and MO provided a confirming response by saying "Yes". In Example 51, line 940, AO confirmed what E said in line 939, by saying "Yeah" and then repeating what E had earlier said. In

Example 52, line 586, E repeated the word "community" which MO had provided in line 585.

Example 50:

634 MO: Uh three it's (not clear). They call it a senior and junior high school or|
635 F: So twelve years the total, yes?
636 MO: Yeah.

Example 51:

939 E: They don't want to cooperate.
940 AO: Yeah or some of them, yeah they don't want to cooperate. I didn't, I didn't actually uh, I asked a few of them, but|

Example 52:

584 E: Exactly, that's why I'm going to um uh to::: all of you to get together and uh have uh a session, talk about this and then, why not uh establishing a (.)
585 MO: Community.
586 E: Community to help these people, and also you can earn some money.

Both Arab and Iranian participants in the high-high group did not use message abandonment. On the other hand Arab participants did not employ indirect appeal for help and own-accuracy check, while the Iranian participants did not use word-coinage and comprehension-check. This means that each ethnic group used 16 types of CSs.

4.3.2 Low Proficiency Group

According to the taxonomy of Dornyei and Scott (1997) employed for this study, CSs are divided into Direct Strategies and Interactional Strategies. Participants in this group used direct strategies more frequently than interactional strategies. The CSs participants in the low-low group used are shown Appendix B.

4.3.2.1 Direct Strategies

Direct strategies are those CSs which offer alternative and independent ways to be able to get meaning across (see 2.5 & 4.2.1.1). According to the taxonomy of Dornyei and

Scott (1997) direct strategies are divided into three sub-categories i.e. resource deficit-related, own performance problem-related and other performance problem-related strategies (see Table 2.3). Each sub-category includes both L1-and L2-based CSs. In this section the direct strategies employed by the participants of the low-low group will be discussed.

A. Resource Deficit-related Strategies

Direct strategies include three sub-strategies (see 4.2.1.1). In this section, resource deficit-related strategies and its sub-categories, i.e. L1- based and L2-based resource deficit-related strategies will be presented.

I. L2-based Resource Deficit-related Strategies

Based on Dornyei and Scott (1997) resource deficit-related strategies include both L1- and L2-based strategies. Table 4.9 presents L2-based resource deficit-related strategies used by the participants in the low-low group. According to the results shown in Table 4.9 message reduction (184 times) and circumlocution (70 times) were the most frequently used CSs in the low-low proficiency group. The least frequently used CS was used of all purpose words which was used 24 times (2.06%). The L2-based resource deficit-related CSs employed by participants in the low-low group will be discussed first. The examples provided are taken from the data obtained from recordings.

Table 4.9 Low-Low Group - Direct Strategies: L2-based Resource Deficit-related

Communication Strategy	Iranian		Sub Total	%	Arab		Sub Total	%	Total	%
	D	N			AB	MU				
Message reduction	35	32	**67**	**5.77**	62	55	**117**	**10.06**	**184**	**15.83**
Circumlocution	38	9	**47**	**4.05**	15	8	**23**	**1.98**	**70**	**6.02**
Approximation	21	6	**27**	**2.32**	23	8	**31**	**2.66**	**58**	**4.99**
Use of all purpose words	11	3	**14**	**1.20**	10	0	**10**	**0.86**	**24**	**2.06**
Use of similar sounding words	7	5	**12**	**1.03**	10	11	**21**	**1.80**	**33**	**2.84**
Omission	13	12	**25**	**2.14**	14	12	**26**	**2.23**	**51**	**4.38**

a. Message reduction

According to Dornyei and Scott (1997, p. 188) message reduction is reducing the message by avoiding certain language structures or topics considered problematic or by leaving out some intended elements due to problems in linguistic resources.

Message reduction, the third most frequently used CS in the low-low group, was used 184 times (15.83%). Arab participants used message reduction 117 times (10.06%) compared to Iranian participants who used it 67 times (5.77%). This result may imply that probably Arab participants have more limited linguistic resources compared to Iranian participants. However, generally, the results of both the Arab and Iranian participants show that low proficiency speakers faced a lack of L2 resources and used message reduction to fill the gap existing between their interlanguage and L2 knowledge. In other words they tried to avoid the problematic area by reducing the message and using the reduction strategy (Faerch & Kasper 1983b).

In Example 53, AB the Arab participant started by saying "They teach him how" but then left the message unfinished, i.e. reduced the message and continued describing a lecturer from Palestine. He probably did this due to the gap existing between his L2 knowledge and interlanguage.

Example 53:

971 AB: <u>They teach him how, one of our presenters who is lecture for seven years I think is a uh from Palestine.</u>

b. Circumlocution

As defined by Dornyei and Scott (1997, p. 188) circumlocution is exemplifying, illustrating or describing the properties of the target object or action. Participants in the low-low group used circumlocution 70 times (6.02%). Iranian participants employed

circumlocution 47 times (4.05%) which is 2 times more frequently than Arab participants who used it around 23 times (2%). Circumlocution was employed most frequently by D, the Iranian participant (see Table 4.9).

In Example 54, line 878, D, an Iranian participant talked about "A level" which is the requirement in order to enter the university in Malaysia. Then in line 880, used circumlocution when he said "It's like a permission to go inside the university", which is a paraphrase for "it is a requirement to enter the university"

Example 54:

878	D:	Exactly before going to university you should go to pass the A level.
879	M:	Aha.
880	D:	It's like a permission to go inside the university.

In Example 55 instead of using the word "driver" N, an Iranian participant paraphrased the word and proceeded with conveying the message to the other interlocutors, probably because he was unable to recall the proper word due to a lack of English language resources.

Example 55:

476	N:	Yeah, bus is very bad and taxi, depends on the person who::: ride the uh taxi.

c. Approximation

Approximation is an L2-based resource-deficit problem-related strategy, and it is used by L2 speakers when they have a difficulty in the target language. According to the definition of Dornyei and Scott (1997) approximation is using a single alternative lexical item or a related term, which shares semantic features with the target word or structure. Approximation was used 58 times (4.99%) by the participants in the low-low group (see Table 4.9). Both the Arab and Iranian participants used approximation

frequently. Instances of approximation used by the participants in the low-low group are presented.

In Example 56, D asked N if he had been living far from his family and instead of the word “away” he used “abroad”. Both words carry the same meaning but only one can be used in line 9. In Example 57, N used the word “ride” for “drive” due to problems in his L2 resources.

Example56:

7	D:	Sorry, this is a, this is a first time to living far from your family?
8	N:	Yes:: |
9	D:	Abroad from your family or far from your country? (.) [your country?]

Example 57:

476	N:	Yeah, bus is very bad and taxi, depends on the person who::: ride the uh taxi.

d. Use of all purpose words

Based on Dornyei and Scott’s (1997, p. 188) definition of ‘Use of all purpose words’, it is the extension of a general, “empty” lexical item to contexts where specific words are lacking such as the use of “thing, stuff, make, do, thingie, what-do-you-call-it”.

Table 4.9 shows that both ethnic groups of participants resorted to ‘all purpose words’ CS 24 times (2.06%). When L2 speakers face a problem in vocabulary, they refer to ‘all purpose words’ in order to maintain the flow of the conversation. Examples of the ‘use of all purpose words’ employed by the low-low participants in this study follow.

Example58:

78 AB: 1 But they don't know the people, they don't know each other.
2 You know, I don't know, I don't know how he cannot catch
3 the:: who steal this thing or who make problems.

Example 59:

572 AB: 1 Uh they have insert project for all the subject you know and
2 they have exam and have quiz something.

e. Use of similar sounding words

According to the definition of Dornyei and Scott (1997, p. 189), use of similar sounding words is "compensating for a lexical item whose form the speaker is unsure of, with a word (either existing or non-existing) which sounds more or less like the target item". Participants in the low-low group used similar sounding words 33 times (2.84%). Arab participants used similar sounding words strategy about 2 times more frequently than the Iranian participants. Similar sounding words strategy is used when the speaker is puzzled regarding the correct word to be used and therefore uses a word which sounds similar to the correct word in order to prevent interruptions.

In Examples 60, AB used "stitched" instead of "snitched" and in Example 61 he confused the word "lawyer" with "lower".

Example 60:

47 AB: 1 Yeah, they take it but you cannot do anything (.) and that the
2 problem uh not near, I think, I got uh stitched.

Example 61:

262 AB: In my country Libya, they the uh I think the:: price is lawyer than the here.

f. Omission

According to Dornyei and Scott (1997, p. 189) omission means "Leaving a gap when not knowing a word and carrying on as if it had been said". As shown in Table 4.9 omission was employed 51 times (4.38%) by participants in the low-low group. Both ethnic groups equally used omission. This L2-based resource-deficit problem-related strategy is used when there is a deficiency in the vocabulary of the speaker. Speakers resort to this strategy when they have problems in recalling the word or structure in the target language and intend to maintain their role as speakers and hold the floor.

Instances of the usage of omission by the low-low participants are shown in Examples 62 and 63. In Example 62, D could not recall the word "LRT" therefore, he used omission and a filler and continued the utterance in order to maintain the floor. Similarly in Example 63, he employed omission using a pause in line 1, when he said "I mean uh looking for (.)" and then continued the utterance since he was unable to recall the intended word. He probably was looking for the word "Halal" which he remembered later.

Example 62:

502	D:	1 2	You know as I can, I use uh for if I wanna go somewhere as uh as I can use LRT.

Example 63:

377	D:	1 2 3 4	For me, I'm not so: religious, I'm not so: I mean uh looking for (.) I'm not like that, it's looking for only *Halal* and very *Halal* thing, but not feeling good about the other food you know.

II. L1-based Resource Deficit-related Strategies

Participants in the low-low group used two types of L1-based resource deficit-related strategies i.e. literal translation and code switching. Table 4.10 shows the types and the frequency of CSs used.

Table 4.10 Low-Low Group - Direct Strategies: L1-based Resource Deficit-related

Communication Strategy	Iranian		Sub Total	%	Arab		Sub Total	%	Total	%
	D	N			AB	MU				
Literal translation	86	28	**114**	**9.81**	149	53	**202**	**17.38**	**316**	**27.19**
Code switching	2 P	3 P	**5**	**0.43**	6 A	5 A	**12**	**1.03**	**17**	**1.46**

a. Literal translation

Dornyei and Scott (1997, p. 189) defined literal translation as "Translating literally a lexical item, an idiom, a compound word or structure from L1/L3 to L2". Literal translation was the most frequently used CS in the low-low group and was used 316 times (27.19%) by the participants in this group. This means that they constantly referred to their L1 perhaps due to insufficient L2 grammatical and lexical resources. In the low-low group Arab participants used literal translation more frequently compared to the Iranian participants. Arab participants employed literal translation 202 times (17.38%) while Iranian participants used the same CS 114 times (9.81%). This again reinforces the possibility that the participants faced great linguistic problems. They constantly referred to their L1 when having a conversation in the target language. The following are some examples of the literal translation strategy employed by the participants in this group.

In Example 64, an Arab speaker used the phrase "this problem coming from us" instead of saying "we are responsible for that" or "it's our fault", this suggests direct translation as in Arabic, one would say " هذه المشكله تاتى من عندنا" which is literally translated into English as "This problem comes from us".

Example 64:

89 AB: 1 This, this problem coming from us you know, [because we are
2 show them that].

Example 65 shows another instance of literal translation. In this example, AB referred to his L1 in order to produce a statement in English to convey his intended message to the other interlocutor. Instead of saying "we cannot compare my country to other countries", he translated the intended statement word by word from the Arabic sentence "نحن لا نقارن بای دوله اخری" and said "we don't compare to any other country".

Example 65:			
469	AB:	1 2 3	We don't compare to any other country, but the have uh for, for example, when we studying in school, we have own car come (.) pick up me at home and trans uh transportilicy|

Example 66 shows an instance for another literal translation in this study. Similar to the previous examples, D an Iranian participant, referred to his L1 (Persian) due to difficulties in L2 resources and therefore instead of saying "he was not interested in my question" he literally translated the Persian expression " سوال من مورد علاقه او نبود" to the English statement "my question wasn't in his favor".

Example 66:			
940	D:	1 2 3	So shy to speaking even uh when I asking some things try uh just asking (.) some things that umm my questions wasn't in his favor, just get angry saying some things to me.

b. Code switching

According to Dornyei and Scott (1997, p. 189) code switching means "Including L1/L3 words with L1/L3 pronunciation in L2 speech; this may involve stretches of discourse ranging from single words to whole chunks and even complete turns". Unlike the high-high group, code switching was not much used in the low-low as compared to the other CSs. The Arab participants in the low-low group used code-switching 12 times (1.03%) compared to the Iranian participants who used it 5 times (0.43%).

Example 67 shows a code switch to Persian when N, an Iranian participant asked for help because he was unable to recall the word "well" (line 2). In this example code switching was not used in isolation but accompanied by another CS.

Example 67:

108	N:	1	Yeah, hmm they thought we each, each us, each person have a
		2	oil, ((laugh)) uh چاه چی میشه؟ (what does well mean?) Oil uh

B. Own Performance Problem-related Strategies: L1- or L2-based

This section presents the L1- or L2-based own performance problem-related strategies which is a sub-category of direct strategies. This is again based on Dornyei and Scott's (1997) taxonomy of CSs. Table 4.11 shows the own performance problem-related CSs employed by the participants in the low-low group. Each CS will be presented along with examples from the data.

Table 4.11 Low-Low Group - Direct Strategies: Own Performance Problem-related

Communication Strategy	Iranian		Sub Total	%	Arab		Sub Total	%	Total	%
	D	N			AB	MU				
Self-repair	71	28	**99**	**8.52**	61	54	**115**	**9.89**	**214**	**18.41**
Self-rephrasing	21	5	**26**	**2.23**	9	0	**9**	**0.77**	**35**	**3.01**

a. Self-repair

Dornyei and Scott (1997, p. 190) defined self-repair as "Making self-initiated corrections in one's own speech." Retrieval according to Dornyei and Scott (1997) is a resource deficit-related CS and is included in self-repair in this study. Self-repair which is an own performance problem-related strategy is another most frequently used strategy and was used 214 times (18.41%) by the low-low group. This indicates that participants in the low-low group were constantly checking their L2 production (form and meaning). The following examples show instances where participants in the low-low group

resorted to self-repair by correcting parts of their conversations instantly when they felt they were produced incorrectly. They performed self-repair by instantly correcting the incorrect utterance until they were satisfied they had expressed themselves well. Examples 68 - 71 show instances where the low-low participants used self-repair.

In Example 68, line 1, AB employed self-repair when he said "at this" and instantly repaired it and said "at that" because he wanted to refer to a day in the past.

Example 68:

80	AB:	1	You know <u>at this, at that</u> day some people they steal KLCC
		2	inside. When I, I got back inside there, near when I get in the
		3	close, the police they close the KLCC, when I get in to wash
		4	my hand, I saw some people, they stealing the shopping inside.

In Example 69, line 1, MO first used "I coming" but then changed it to "I came" because he wanted to talk about something he accomplished in the past. In Example 70, N performed self-repair when he said "most of them is" but then realized that he is supposed to use the plural form of the verb 'to be' with the word 'most'. In Example 71 AB the Arab participant instantly replaced his English language error with the correct form when he said "Artificial intelligent, intelligence".

Example 69:

86	MO:	1	<u>I coming the, I came in from my country</u>, before one years and
		2	uh then months, uh this first time, visit Malaysia uh, I see uh
		3	the people friendly, but uh some people, this normal, some
		4	people see I another people of, from Malaysia, uh uh (.) for
		5	example Arab people or Iranian people, they uh they are (.)
		6	rich, rich people.

Example 70:

236	N:	1	Yes, <u>most of them is uh is uh are Iranian</u>, yeah, the worst
		2	problem. ((laugh))

Example 71:

1653	AB:		AI, Artificial <u>Intelligent, Intelligence.</u>

b. Self-rephrasing

According to Dornyei and Scott (1997, p. 190) self-rephrasing is repeating a term already uttered not precisely, but by adding something or using paraphrase. Results shown in Table 4.11 indicate that participants in the low-low group seldom used self-rephrasing. It was used by Iranian participants 26 times (2.23%) while Arab participant employed self-rephrasing 9 times (0.77%). Self-rephrasing is L1- or L2-based own performance problem-related direct strategy which means that subjects refer to this strategy when they feel that what is uttered may not be able to convey their intended message, therefore they resort to self-rephrasing in order to make their message understood. Below are examples of self-rephrasing use94d by participants in the low-low group.

Four instances of self-rephrasing can be seen in Example 72. The first instance is when D, in line 2, rephrased "any other problem" after using "I mean". The second one is in line 3, when he rephrased "you come in" and then stated "inside the country" and then added "one new country" to the previous statement so as to convey his intended message without being interrupted by the other speakers. After a short pause he used "I mean" in line 4 then continued with another self-rephrasing to ensure his message was understood.

Example 72:

119	D:	1	Actually this is a problem that maybe you face in the all of the
		2	country. Any other problem, you, I mean the first problem, uh
		3	we you come in, inside the country, inside one new country (.)
		4	you don't know where you should go, you sh, you don't know
		5	I mean how you can get a home.

In Example 73, AB used self-rephrasing two times in one sentence to ensure the intended meaning was conveyed. He started with "she said her mood" then rephrased into "when she be" and then for the second time rephrased into "she not in good mood".

In Example 74, N said “you can” and then used self-rephrasing when he said “it’s easy to get” to clarify the intended message.

Example 73:			
1030	AB:	1 2 3	She told me about it, she said her moods, when she be, she not in good mood, she uh fail all the student, aha, really you know.
Example 74:			
1055	N:		But here is you can uh it’s easy to get, all, all lecturer|

As shown in the examples above, participants in the low-low group resorted to self-rephrasing to help them communicate the message in another way by paraphrasing or adding something to the previously produced utterance, when they face a problem in their L2 performance.

4.3.2.2 Interactional Strategies

According to Dornyei and Scott’s (1997, p. 199) definition, interactional strategies are those CSs by which the participants cooperatively perform trouble-shooting exchanges. Interactional strategies are consisted of several divisions according to the modified Dornyei and Scott’s (1997) taxonomy of CSs employed for this study, which will be presented as follows (see Table 3.4).

A. Resource Deficit-related Strategies

In this section, resource deficit-related strategies, a sub-categorie of interactional strategies, will be presented based on Dornyei and Scott’s (1997) taxonomy of CSs along with examples from the data. Table 4.12 presents the number and types of resource deficit-related interactional strategies.

Table 4.12 Low-Low Group - Interactional Strategies: Resource Deficit-related

Communication Strategy	Iranian		Sub Total	%	Arab		Sub Total	%	Total	%
	D	N			AB	MU				
Direct appeal for help	0	1	**1**	**0.08**	1	0	**1**	**0.08**	**2**	**0.17**
Indirect appeal for help	2	2	**4**	**0.34**	1	2	**3**	**0.25**	**7**	**0.60**

a. Direct appeal for help

According to Dornyei and Scott (1997, p. 191) direct appeal for help is requesting assistance from the interlocutor with an explicit question about L2 knowledge gap. As shown in Table 4.15, participants in the low-low group resorted to direct appeal for help only three times in the two-hour conversation.

b. Indirect appeal for help

According to Dornyei and Scott (1997, p. 191) indirect appeal for help is "Trying to elicit help from the interlocutor indirectly by expressing lack of a needed L2 item either verbally or nonverbally." Table 4.12 shows that the subjects in the low-low group used indirect appeal for help only 7 times. They resorted to this CS due to difficulties in their L2 lexical or linguistic resources.

In Example 75 D, an Iranian participant, resorted to indirect appeal for help in line 1 and 2 when he said "I don't know how I can say". In Example 76 N, an Iranian participant, said "how do I say" in line 2 due to lack of L2 word.

Example 75:

563 D: 1 I think it's like lecture base and student base, I don't know
2 how I can say. In my country this is lecture base, I mean the
3 lecturer try to push the student.

Example 76:

587 N: 1 And also it's because of Iran now is in as a sanc, sanction to::
2 uh how do I say, to find a:: update articles, update uh

B. Own-performance Problem-related Strategies: L1- or L2-based

L1- or L2-based own-performance problem-related strategies is the second sub-category of interactional strategies according to Dornyei and Scott's (1997) taxonomy of CSs. Table 4.13 presents the own-performance problem-related interactional strategies, participants in the low-low group used.

Table 4.13 Low-Low Group - Interactional Strategies: Own-performance Problem-related

Communication Strategy	Iranian		Sub Total	%	Arab		Sub Total	%	Total	%
	D	N			AB	MU				
Comprehension-check	4	0	4	0.33	14	4	18	1.54	22	1.88

a. Comprehension check

Based on the definition provided by Dornyei and Scott (1997, p. 192), comprehension check is asking questions to check that the interlocutor understands. Table 4.13 shows that participants in the low-low group used comprehension-check strategy 22 times (1.88%). AB, an Arab participant in the low-low group used comprehension check seven times more frequently compared to the other participants. He employed comprehension-check 14 times while each of the other three participants used it 4 times. Comprehension-check is used when the speaker believes that there is a problem in the message being produced and therefore resorts to comprehension-check to ensure the interlocutor(s) have understood the intended message.

The following example presents an instance where AB, an Arab participant, used comprehension check. He used the word "understand?" with a rising intonation to ensure that comprehension was achieved.

Example 77:

1609 AB: The proposal just one pages (not clear) <u>understand?</u>

C. Other-performance Problem-related Strategies: L1- or L2-based

The third sub-category of interactional strategies belongs to L1- or L2-based other-performance problem-related strategies. Table 4.14 presents the different types of other-performance problem-related strategies employed by the participants of the low-low group.

Table 4.14 Low-Low Group - Interactional Strategies: Other-performance Problem-related

Communication Strategy	**Iranian**		**Sub Total**	**%**	**Arab**		**Sub Total**	**%**	**Total**	**%**
	D	**N**			**AB**	**MU**				
Asking for repetition	1	2	**3**	**0.25**	3	1	**4**	**0.34**	**7**	**0.60**
Asking for clarification	4	10	**14**	**1.20**	3	5	**8**	**0.69**	**22**	**1.89**
Asking for confirmation	21	20	**41**	**3.53**	2	6	**7**	**0.60**	**48**	**4.13**
Response	9	17	**26**	**2.23**	11	13	**24**	**2.06**	**50**	**4.29**

a. Asking for repetition

Asking for repetition is a sub-category of the other-performance problem-related interactional strategies. It is used when there is a problem in the language production of the interlocutor and the listener asks for a repetition of the message when there is a breakdown in comprehension. Dornyei and Scott (1997, p. 191) define asking for repetition as "requesting repetition when not hearing or understanding something properly". Table 4.14 shows that participants in the low-low group used the strategy asking for repetition seven times. The following is an example of asking for repetition. Example 78 shows that MU, an Arab participant, used "What again?" in line 757 because he was unable to understand what was said earlier by AB and N.

Example 78:

753	AB:	1 2 3	In Malaysia they have their Master (not clear) and some of them they take it from UK, or American, Some of you can, you can come|
754	MU:		And uh price of uh of uh of uh|
755	AB:		This [education]
756	N:		[Education.]
757	MU:		What again?
758	AB:		[Education.]
759	N:		[Education.]

b. Asking for clarification

Asking for clarification is another sub-category of the other-performance problem-related interactional strategies. As defined by Dornyei and Scott (1997, p. 191) asking for clarification is to request explanation of an unfamiliar meaning structure. This means asking for clarification is employed when there is a problem in the interlocutor's utterance. Table 4.14 shows that participants in the low-low group used asking for clarification 22 times (1.89%). Example 79 presents use of asking for clarification where D (the addressee), asked for clarification in line 1648 to ensure that "AI" means "Artificial Intelligence".

Example 79:

1646	D:	What was your subject in your Master?
1647	AB:	Uh about AI.
1648	D:	AI? Artificial Intelligence?
1649	AB:	Artificial Intelligence and artificial system uh (not clear)

c. Asking for confirmation

Asking for confirmation is another sub-category of other-performance problem-related interactional strategies. According to Dornyei and Scott (1997, p. 191) this means, requesting confirmation that comprehension was accurate and repeating the message in a question repeat or asking a full question. Table 4.14 shows that participants in the

low-low group employed asking for confirmation 48 times (4.13%). Iranian participants used asking for confirmation 41 times (3.53%) while Arab participants used it only 7 times (0.60%).

Example 80 presents an instance when N, an Iranian participant, interfered by asking for confirmation to ensure what he had heard was correct during the conversation between D and AB (line 1652).

Example 80:

1646	D:	What was your subject in your Master?
1647	AB:	Uh about AI.
1648	D:	AI? Artificial Intelligence?
1649	AB:	Artificial Intelligence and artificial system uh (not clear)
1650	D:	Hmm.
1651	AB:	This one we work.
1652	N:	AI, Artificial Intelligence?
1653	AB:	AI, Artificial Intelligent, Intelligence.

d. Response

Response is the last sub-category of the other-performance problem-related interactional strategies. According to the taxonomy of CSs designed for this study, response includes all the different types of responses in Dorneyi and Scott's (1977) taxonomy which are collated in one category as earlier mentioned in this study (see 3.5.2). Response can encompass repetitions, rephrasing or confirming the original message or providing other-initiated self-repair. As shown in Table 4.14 participants in the low-low group used response 50 times (4.29%) in their conversations. Iranian participants employed response 26 times (2.23%) while Arab participants employed it 24 times (2.06%). An example of confirmation, a kind of response, used in the low-low group is shown below.

Example 81:

1507	AB:	Because I finishing my Master in one years.
1508	D:	One year?
1509	AB:	Yeah.

Both Arab and Iranian participants in the low-low group did not use message abandonment and own-accuracy check.

4.3.3 High and Low (Mixed) Proficiency Group

According to the taxonomy of Dornyei and Scott (1997), CSs are divided into Direct Strategies and Interactional Strategies. The participants in this group used direct strategies more frequently than interactional strategies. The CSs participants in the high-low group employed are shown in Appendix C.

4.3.3.1 Direct Strategies

Direct strategies are those CSs which offer alternative and independent ways to be able to get meaning across (see 2.5). Direct strategies are divided into three sub-categories i.e. resource deficit-related, own performance problem-related and other performance problem-related strategies based on the taxonomy of Dornyei and Scott (1997) (see Table 3.4). Each sub-category includes both L1-and L2-based CSs. In this section the direct strategies employed by the participants in the high-low group will be discussed.

A. Resource Deficit-related Strategies

This section will present resource deficit-related strategies in the high-low group and its sub-categories, i.e. L1- based and L2-based resource deficit-related strategies, one of the three sub-strategies of direct strategies will be presented (see 4.2.1.1).

I. L2-based Resource Deficit-related Strategies

According to Dornyei and Scott (1997) resource deficit-related strategies include both L1-and L2-based strategies. Table 4.15 presents L2-based resource deficit-related strategies employed by the participants of the high-low group. This table shows participants with different levels of proficiency in English. The results in Table 4.15 indicate that message reduction (150 times) and circumlocution (78 times) were the most frequently used L2-based resource deficit-related CSs. These CSs employed by

participants in the high-low group will be discussed provided with examples from the recordings obtained.

Table 4.15 High-Low Group - Direct Strategies: L2-based Resource Deficit-related

Communication Strategy	High Proficiency				Sub Total		Low Proficiency				Sub Total		Total	
	Iranian		Arab				Iranian		Arab					
	V		S		n	%	K		AA		n	%	n	%
	n	%	n	%			n	%	n	%				
Message abandonment	0	0	5	0.61	**5**	**0.61**	1	0.12	2	0.24	**3**	**0.37**	**8**	**0.98**
Message reduction	7	0.86	39	4.80	**46**	**5.67**	29	3.57	75	9.24	**104**	**12.83**	**150**	**18.50**
Circumlocution	21	2.59	38	4.68	**59**	**7.27**	13	1.60	6	0.74	**19**	**2.34**	**78**	**9.61**
Approximation	2	0.24	7	0.86	**9**	**1.11**	22	2.71	31	3.82	**53**	**6.53**	**62**	**6.64**
Use of all purpose words	1	0.12	10	1.23	**11**	**1.35**	4	0.49	2	0.24	**6**	**0.74**	**17**	**2.09**
Use of similar sounding words	0	0	0	0	**0**	**0**	1	0.12	4	0.49	**5**	**0.61**	**5**	**0.61**
Omission	4	0.49	7	0.86	**11**	**1.35**	8	0.98	13	1.63	**21**	**2.59**	**32**	**3.94**

a. Message abandonment

Message abandonment is the first L2-based resource deficit-related CS discussed in the Dornyei and Scott's (1997) taxonomy of CSs and is defined as leaving a message unfinished because of some language difficulty. Results in Table 4.15 show that both high and low proficiency participants in the high-low group rarely used message abandonment. The Iranian high proficiency participant in the high-low group did not use message abandonment while the Arab high proficiency, used message abandonment 5 times. Both Arab and Iranian low proficiency participants in the high-low group used message abandonment 3 times. Examples 82 and 83 are illustrations of the usage of message abandonment by in the high-low group.

In Example 82, S the Arab high proficiency participant abandoned the message being communicated in line 3 and 4 when he wanted to give examples of different varieties of Chinese food, probably because he was unable to remember the names. In Example 83, AA the low proficiency Arab participant abandoned the message in line 2, when he was

talking about opening new private colleges every year but due to difficulties in the L2 resources he left the message incomplete and instead used "I don't know".

Example 82:

78	S:	1 2 3 4	You have three languages at least four languages. When you say their food, then you have Malay food, you have Chinese food, and Chinese food you have different varieties like… I don't know.

Example 83:

577	AA:	1 2	But the:: private is a lot of every year now open a new one ((laugh)) new… I don't know.

b. Message reduction

According to Dornyei and Scott (1997, p. 188) message reduction is "reducing the message by avoiding certain language structures or topics considered problematic or by leaving out some intended elements due to problems in linguistic resources". Table 4.15 shows that Message reduction was used 150 times (18.50%) by participants in the high-low group. Both high proficiency Arab and Iranian participants employed message reduction 46 times (5.67%) while the Arab and Iranian low proficiency participants employed message reduction 104 times (12.83%). This indicates that the low proficiency participants in this group resorted to message reduction because they lacked L2 knowledge. In other words there is a gap between their interlanguage and L2 knowledge. In a comparison between the high proficiency participants in the high-low group, it can be seen that the Arab high proficiency participant employed message reduction 39 times (4.80%) while the Iranian high proficiency participant employed the same CS only 7 times (0.86%). Similarly the Arab low proficiency participant employed 'message reduction' 75 times (9.24%) while the Iranian low proficiency participant used the same CS 29 times (3.57%). This suggests that perhaps the Arab participants have more problems in their linguistic resources compared to Iranian participants and

therefore they tend resort to more reduction strategies so as to avoid production of the message in the problematic language areas. Instances of the usage of message reduction by the subjects in the high-low group are shown in the examples below.

In Example 84, line 2, S the Arab high proficiency participant was describing something when he said "we tend to, I mean" and suddenly reduced the message and started with different issue when he said "why don't we think for a while?". In Example 85, AA used 'message reduction' in the second line when he said "the government is" then reduced the message and started with "depend on the government".

Example 84:			
133	S:	1	By, by, yes, by to be, patience, Yeah exactly, that's the word.
		2	And by doing that um we, we tend to I mean, why don't we
		3	think for a while, they might be probably right, you know
		4	what I'm saying. The way they are doing it they're doing
		5	things, things are going sooth but slowly and they are taking
		6	things really, really slowly, they are not in a hurry to, to, to
		7	finish doing things and that kind of an advantage you know.
		8	You might live longer. ((laugh))
Example 85:			
912	AA:	1	Here is very easy for go to U, U, U, USA go to U, UK the
		2	government is, depend for the government.

c. Circumlocution

According to Dornyei and Scott (1997, p.188) circumlocution is exemplifying, illustrating or describing the properties of the target object or action. Circumlocution was employed 78 times (9.61%) by participants in the high-low group. They used circumlocution most likely to explain objects or actions at length when they did not have the single word lexical item or to explain to addressees, where vocabulary was limited. Table 4.15 shows that the high proficiency participants in the high-low group used circumlocution 59 times (7.27%), compared to the low proficiency participants in the same group who used circumlocution 19 times (2.34%). According to Chacko (2005) and Ismail (2004) high proficiency speakers may probably resort to

circumlocution in order to transfer the intended meaning and help low proficiency participants understand the message being produced.

On the other hand the Iranian Low proficiency participant employed circumlocution 13 times (1.60%) which is two times more frequently used than the Arab low proficiency participants in the high-low group who used circumlocution 6 times (0.74%). On the other hand the Arab high proficiency participant in the high-low group employed circumlocution 38 times (4.68%) while the Iranian high proficiency used it 21 times (2.59%). Examples 86 and 87 show instances of circumlocution being used in the high-low group.

In Example 86, S the Arab high proficiency participant used the word "outskirts" then explained the word at length, probably in order to ensure that the two low proficiency interlocutors understood the message. In Example 87, V the Iranian high proficiency participant used the word "mixed" and in his next turn he paraphrased the word, most probably to guarantee that AA understood the conveyed message.

Example 86:

29	S:	1	But when you go to outskirts, <u>when you go to you know like</u>
		2	<u>[the country side</u>

Example 87:

736	V:	What about the classes in Baghdad, are they mixed?
737	AA:	[Yeah, yeah.]
738	S:	[Yeah, yeah.]
739	V:	<u>Boys and girls or they are separate?</u>
740	AA:	No, no mixed.

d. Approximation

Approximation is an L2-based resource-deficit problem-related strategy, and it is used by L2 speakers when they have difficulty in the target language. According to the definition given by Dornyei and Scott (1997, p. 188) approximation is using a single

alternative lexical item or a related term, which shares semantic features with the target word or structure. Table 4.15 shows that approximation was used 62 times (6.64%) by the high-low participants. The high proficiency Arab and Iranian participants used approximation only 9 times (0.11%) while the low proficiency Arab and Iranian participants used it 53 times (6.53%). Examples 88 to 90 show the instances where approximation was used by the participants in the high-low group.

Example 88 shows that, K the Iranian low proficiency participant used "poor place" or "rich place" in lines 1 and 2 to refer to the poor/rich "neighborhoods". Examples 89 and 90 present situations where AA, the Arab low proficiency participant used the word "stay" instead of "sit" and "exactly" instead of "specially". Perhaps K and AA used approximation due to the difficulties in their L2 lexical and syntactic resources.

Example 88:

22	K:	1	Of course there is rich place, there is a poor place. If you are
		2	going to rich place, yeah of course security is very high.

Example 89:

268	AA:	1	For example, sometimes in the class, when they stay together
		2	the international and the local, sometimes the lecture talking
		3	Malay, [or, or, or] Chinese.

Example 90:

299	AA:	1	yeah, sometimes, have the:: the dangerous. Exactly in the
		2	night when you take taxi with the Indian, have problems.

e. Use of all purpose words

Dornyei and Scott (1997, p. 188) state that all purpose words, are extensions of general, "empty" lexical items to contexts where specific words are lacking such as the use of "thing, stuff, make, do, thingies, what-do-you-call-it". Results presented in Table 4.15 indicate that all purpose words CS was used 17 times (2.09%) by participants in the high-low group. The Arab high proficiency participant resorted to all purpose words 10 times (1.23%). He used all purpose words CS more frequently compared to the other

participants in the high-low group. An instance of the usage of this strategy is presented in Example 91 where S the high proficiency Arab participant used "thing" twice in his utterance to refer to an exam.

Example 91:			
390	S:	1 2	And you have to pass that thing. If you pass that thing after that then only you start writing your thesis.

f. Use of similar sounding words

Dornyei and Scott (1997, p. 189) define use of similar sounding words as "compensating for a lexical item whose form the speaker is unsure of, with a word (either existing or non-existing) which sounds more or less like the target item". This CS was hardly used by the participants in the high-low group. Table 4.15 shows that only the low proficiency participants employed similar sounding words strategy. The Arab low proficiency participant employed this CS 4 times while the Iranian low proficiency used it only once. Examples of similar sounding words CS used by participants in the high-low group are shown below.

In Example 92, AA the Arab low proficiency used "citizen" instead of "season" in line 1, referring to the period of time (summer) when people from the Middle East especially, Arab countries come to Malaysia during school holidays. In Malaysia this period is called "Arab Season". In Example 93, K the Iranian low proficiency used the word "receive" instead of "arrive" perhaps because they have a similar sound ending.

Example 92:			
248	AA:	1 2 3	Same are you (not clear). In the Arab citizen, you show the covered in the malls all buying something coz it's cheaper than country.

g. Omission

Dornyei and Scott (1997, p. 189) define omission as "Leaving a gap when not knowing a word and carrying on as if it had been said". Results shown in Table 4.15 demonstrate that omission was used by participants in the high-low group 32 times (3.94%). The low proficiency Arab and Iranian participants used omission 21 times (2.59%) compared to the high proficiency Arab and Iranian participants who used it 11 times (1.35%). Speakers usually use this CS in order to maintain the flow of the conversation and prevent interruption in conveying a message. Examples 1 and 2 show the situations where participants in the high-low group resorted to omission.

In Example 93, K the Iranian low proficiency participant used omission in line 2 and 4 when he paused and then continued as if he had said the intended word. In Example 94, S the Arab high proficiency participant used omission in line 1 when he paused after saying "and" and then continued as if he had used the word.

Example 93:

216	K:	1	Weather is very nice, but you know the rain season is not
		2	good, because the road is a (.) the problem is with road, they
		3	are not making road properly, so each rain is coming so they
		4	are really putting, (.) I don't the exact word for آسفالت or
		5	something like that, so after that|

Example 94:

237	S:	1	Now, they made some like a long liner, lights and (.) That was
		2	one thing, another thing was uh they broke into, this American
		3	professor's uh apartment and they took his laptop or whatever,
		4	so|

II. L1-based Resource Deficit-related Strategies

This section presents the L1-based resource deficit-related direct strategies participants in the high-low group employed. Literal translation and code switching are the two CSs presented in this part (see Table 4.16).

Table 4.16 High-Low Group - Direct Strategies: L1-based Resource Deficit-related

Communication Strategy	High Proficiency				Sub Total		Low Proficiency				Sub Total		Total	
	Iranian		Arab				Iranian		Arab					
	V		S		N	%	K		AA		n	%		
	n	%	n	%			n	%	n	%			n	%
Literal translation	5	0.61	16	1.97	**21**	**2.59**	110	13.56	105	12.94	**215**	**26.51**	**236**	**29.10**
Code switching	1	0.12	6	0.74	**7**	**0.86**	2	0.24	1	0.12	**3**	**0.37**	**10**	**1.23**

a. Literal translation

Dornyei and Scott (1997, p. 189) define literal translation as "Translating literally a lexical item, an idiom, a compound word or structure from L1/L3 to L2". As show in Table 4.16 literal translation was the most frequently used CS in the high-low group and this strategy was used 236 times (29.10%). In the high-low group the high proficiency participants used literal translation 21 times (2.59%) while the low proficiency participants used it 215 times (26.51%). Both the Arab and Iranian low proficiency participants employed literal translation with a slight difference in the high-low group while the Iranian high proficiency participant in the high-low group employed literal translation only 5 times (0.61%) which is three times lower than the Arab high proficiency participant who used the same CS 16 times (1.97%). Speakers use literal translation when they have problems in L2 linguistic resources and therefore constantly refer to their L1 when having a conversation in the target language. The following are some examples of the literal translation employed by participants in the high-low group. Examples 95 and 96 show instances of using literal translation by K, the Iranian low proficiency participant.

In Example 95, he directly translated the expression "each rain is coming" in the third line from Persian "هر بارانی که می آید" instead of saying "after each rain fall". In Example 96, in the first line he literally translated the Persian statement " ما چهار نفر هستیم از هند" into "we are four from India", instead of saying "there are four of us from India".

Example 95:

216	K:	1	Weather is very nice, but you know the rain season is not
		2	good, because theroad is a (.) the problem is with road, they
		3	are not making road properly, so <u>each rain is coming</u> so they
		4	are really putting, (.) I don't the exact word for آسفالت or
		5	something like that, so after that|

Example 96:

1087	K:	1	<u>We are four from India</u>, all of us we studied same university in
		2	India now we are here. Only one of us because he worked in
		3	Iran for two years in this topic definitely will be finished fast
		4	for example within one year, he went to two conference. She
		5	has, sorry he has two conference but I don't have anything.
		6	Only I go to university, come here.

In Example 97, AA the low proficiency Arab participant literally translated "have the old forty-five" from the Arabic expression, " لديهم خمس و اربعين سنه" instead of saying "they are forty-five". In Example 98, AA literally translated the Arabic sentence " لم تفتح البريد الالكترونى" to English when he said "she didn't open the email", instead of saying "she didn't check her emails". In Example 99, he used "is very talk" and literally translated the Arabic phrase " فى كلام كثير" instead of saying "you talk a lot" or "you are talkative".

Example 97:

943 AA: Five student [<u>have the old</u>] uh forty-five.

Example 4:

866	AA:	1	Sometimes <u>she:: didn't open the email ((</u>laugh)) [you still
		2	three days, or four days, (not clear), waiting for her.]

Example 98:

877	AA:	1	Now, now is sometimes it's OK, because the depend for the::
		2	lecture. For the lecture Malay, here when the talking or asking
		3	something, it's O, it's OK, She answer, or he answer for me
		4	but for the Chinese, no, <u>is very talk</u>, don't talk.

b. Code switching

Dornyei and Scott (1997, p. 189) define code switching as "Including L1/L3 words with L1/L3 pronunciation in L2 speech; this may involve stretches of discourse ranging from single words to whole chunks and even complete turns." Results of the high-low group shown in Table 4.16 indicate that code switching was seldom used (10 times). The high proficiency participants employed code-switching 7 times while the low proficiency participants used it only 3 times. The Arab high proficiency speaker who used 'code switching' more frequently than the other participants of the group, code switched to Bahasa Malaysia 4 times more often than he switched to Arabic.

B. Own Performance Problem-related Strategies: L1- or L2-based

This section presents the L1- or L2-based own performance problem-related strategies, a sub-category of direct strategies (see Dornyei and Scott's (1997) taxonomy of CSs). Table 4.17 shows the own performance problem-related CSs employed by the participants in the high-low group. Each CS will be presented with examples from the recordings obtained.

Table 4.17 High-Low Group - Direct Strategies: Own Performance Problem-related

Communication Strategy	High Proficiency				Sub Total		Low Proficiency				Sub Total		Total	
	Iranian		Arab				Iranian		Arab					
	V		S		N	%	K		AA		n	%		
	n	%	n	%			n	%	n	%			n	%
Self-repair	15	1.85	25	3.08	**40**	**4.93**	22	2.71	27	3.33	**49**	**6.05**	**89**	**11**
Self-rephrasing	9	1.11	21	2.59	**30**	**3.70**	8	0.98	9	1.11	**17**	**2.10**	**47**	**5.80**

a. Self-repair

Dornyei and Scott (1997, p. 190) defined self-repair as "Making self-initiated corrections in one's own speech". Retrieval is included in self-repair in this study according to Dornyei and Scott's (1997) taxonomy of CSs (see 3.5.2). Results in Table 4.17 show that participants in the high-low group employed self-repair 89 times. The

low proficiency Arab and Iranian participants in the high-low group used self-repair 49 times (6.05%) while the high proficiency Arab and Iranian participants used it 40 times (4.93%). Speakers use self-repair when they are constantly checking their language production and are aware of the linguistic problems they might face during the conversations. Examples 100 and 101 are illustrations of self-repair used by participants in the high-low group.

In Example 100, K, the low proficiency Iranian participant employed self-repair when he repaired the utterance "will be tire" into "tired" (line 4 & 5). In Example 101, V the Iranian high proficiency participant self-repaired when he said "for me was" and then corrected it to "it was" (line 1).

Example 100:

35	K:	1	But India the people is very good, same as Malaysia but, they
		2	are very kind, you know they want to talk with you, they are
		3	like that person. For example if the, they are coming to you
		4	they want to talk for example ten hours, and they never will be
		5	tire, tired and also they are Hindu a lot so that is the best thing
		6	in India. India for this type of thing is very nice and also India
		7	was good for me because, two of my family, they lived over
		8	there s, so always I went to their shop and so|

Example 101:

53	V:	1	For me was, it was the first foreign country, so I have no
		2	experience, I've never lived anywhere else, other than my
		3	native country. So, I, I don't know, I can't compare it with
		4	other countries, but compared to my country it's better.

b. Self-rephrasing

Dornyei and Scott (1997, p. 190) explain that self-rephrasing means to repeat a term already uttered not precisely, but by adding something or using paraphrase. Results shown in Table 4.17 indicate that participants in the high-low group used self-rephrasing 47 times (5.80%). Self-rephrasing was used by high proficiency Arab and Iranian participants 30 times (3.70%) while Arab and Iranian low proficiency

participants employed self-rephrasing 17 times (2.10%). It is L1- or L2-based own performance problem-related direct strategy which means that subjects refer to this strategy when they feel that what is uttered may not be able to convey their intended message; therefore they resort to self-rephrasing in order to make their message understood by the other interlocutors. Examples where subjects in the high-low employed self-rephrasing are presented.

In Example 102, V the Iranian high proficiency used self-rephrasing CS when he rephrased the first sentence "And they think they are all rich" with a second sentence "they believe the middle-eastern are very rich". In Example 103, AA the Arab low proficiency self-rephrased several times. First, he started with "you should now" then he added to the phrase and used the first self-rephrasing when he said "you should have if you want continue Master's or PhD" then he self-rephrased again and said "you should have seventy out of one-hundred".

Example 102:			
253	V:	1 2	And they think they are all very rich, <u>they believe the</u> middle-eastern are very rich.
Example 103:			
449	AA:	1 2 3	yeah (8.0) and you should now, <u>you should have if you want</u> continue, Master's or PhD, you should have seventy out of one-hundred

4.3.3.2 Interactional Strategies

Dornyei and Scott (1997) define interactional strategies as CSs by which the participants cooperatively perform trouble-shooting exchanges. Interactional strategies included several sub-categories and are a number of strategies in the modified Dornyei and Scott's (1997) taxonomy of CSs employed in this study.

A. Resource Deficit-related Strategie

Table 4.18 presents the number and types of resource deficit-related interactional strategies employed in the high-low group.

Table 4.18 High-Low Group - Interactional Strategies: Resource Deficit-related

Communication Strategy	High Proficiency				Sub Total		Low Proficiency				Sub Total		Total	
	Iranian		Arab				Iranian		Arab					
	V		S		n	%	K		AA		n	%		
	n	%	n	%			n	%	n	%			n	%
Indirect appeal for help	1	0.12	0	0	**1**	**0.12**	2	0.24	0	0	**2**	**0.24**	**3**	**3.36**

a. Indirect appeal for help

Dornyei and Scott (1997, p. 191) define indirect appeal for help as "Trying to elicit help from the interlocutor indirectly by expressing lack of a needed L2 item either verbally or nonverbally". The only 3 instances of indirect appeal for help in the high-low group were used by the Iranian participants of this group (see Table 4.18). Example 104 shows the employment of indirect appeal for help in the high-low group.

In Example 104, K the Iranian low proficiency, appealed for help in line 4, when he said "I don't know the exact word for (asphalt)"

Example 104:

216	K:	1	Weather is very nice, but you know the rain season is not
		2	good, because the road is a (.) the problem is with road, they
		3	are not making road properly, so each rain is coming so they
		4	are really putting, (.) I don't the exact word for آسفالت "asphalt"
		5	or something like that, so after that|

B. Own-performance Problem-related Strategies: L1- or L2-based

The second sub-category of interactional strategies includes L1- or L2-based own-performance problem-related strategies. Table 4.19 presents the own-performance problem-related interactional strategies participants in the high-low group used.

Table 4.19 High-Low Group Interactional Strategies: Own-performance Problem-related

Communication Strategy	High Proficiency				Sub Total		Low Proficiency				Sub Total		Total	
	Iranian		Arab				Iranian		Arab					
	V		S		n	%	K		AA		n	%		
	n	%	n	%			n	%	n	%			n	%
Comprehension -check	0	0	13	1.60	**13**	**1.60**	0	0	3	0.37	**3**	**0.37**	**16**	**1.97**

a. Comprehension-check

Dornyei and Scott (1997, p. 192) define comprehension check as "asking questions to check that the interlocutor understands". Table 4.19 shows, only the Arab subjects (both high and low proficiency) employed comprehension-check. The Arab high proficiency used comprehension-check 13 times (1.60%) while the low proficiency Arab participant used it only 3 times (0.37%). Example 105 shows an instance of using comprehension-check by S, the Arab high proficiency where he said "Do you know what I mean?".

Example 105:

256 S: I will conclude that (not clear) to survive, so not all Arab countries have oil and not all Arab countries (.) is like you know (.) can really afford (.) to, to come like you know two times or three times a year to Malaysia, and spend (.) but I think that to some reason maybe Iranians, they are more than Arabs in terms of coming here settling down here, opening their own business. But the number of people who are doing, like non (.) Iranian people who are doing business in Malaysia is comparatively you know higher than or, or bigger than the Arab people who are doing business in Malaysia. Do you know what I mean?

C. Other-performance Problem-related Strategies: L1- or L2-based

L1- or L2-based other-performance problem-related strategies make up the third sub-category of interactional strategies. Table 4.20 presents the different types of 'other-performance problem-related strategies' employed by the participants of the high-low group.

Table 4.20 High-Low Group Interactional Strategies: Other-performance Problem-related

Communication Strategy	High Proficiency				Sub Total		Low Proficiency				Sub Total		Total	
	Iranian		Arab				Iranian		Arab					
	V		S		n	%	K		AA		n	%		
	n	%	n	%			n	%	n	%			n	%
Asking for repetition	1	0.12	0	0	**1**	**0.12**	0	0	0	0	**0**	**0**	**1**	**0.12**
Asking for clarification	4	0.49	2	0.24	**6**	**0.74**	0	0	9	1.11	**9**	**1.11**	**16**	**1.85**
Asking for confirmation	7	0.86	7	0.86	**14**	**1.72**	2	0.24	3	0.37	**5**	**0.61**	**19**	**2.33**
Response	4	0.24	6	0.74	**10**	**1.23**	2	0.24	7	0.86	**9**	**1.11**	**19**	**2.04**

a. Asking for repetition

Asking for repetition, a sub-category of the other-performance problem-related interactional strategies is used when there is a problem in the language production of the interlocutor. Dornyei and Scott (1997, p. 191) define asking for repetition as "requesting repetition when not hearing or understanding something properly". The results shown in Table 4.20 indicate that asking for repetition was used only once by an Iranian high proficiency participant in the high-low group.

b. Asking for clarification

Asking for clarification, another sub-category of the other-performance problem-related interactional strategies is defined by Dornyei and Scott (1997, p. 191) as to request explanation of an unfamiliar meaning structure. Similar to the previous CS asking for clarification is employed when there is a problem in the interlocutor's utterance. Table 4.20 shows that participants in the high-low group used asking for clarification 15 times (0.85%). The following example is an instance of using asking for clarification in high-low group. In Example 106, V, the Iranian high proficiency participant asked for clarification in line 1077.

Example 106:

1074 AA: Fourteen years, fourteen to ten years.
1075 V: What?
1076 AA: For uh the time for PhD.
1077 V: Ten years?
1078 AA: Yeah.

c. Asking for confirmation

Asking for confirmation, another sub-category of other-performance problem-related interactional strategies is "requesting confirmation that comprehension was accurate and repeating the message in a 'question repeat' or asking a full question" as Dornyei and Scott (1997, p. 191) define. Table 4.20 shows that participants in the high-low group employed asking for confirmation 19 times (2.33%). Both high proficiency Arab and Iranian participants in the high-low group equally used asking for confirmation. They used it 14 times (1.72%) which is more frequently than the low proficiency participants who used it only 5 times (0.61%). An example of asking for confirmation is presented below.

In Example 107, V, the high proficiency participant asked for confirmation in line 1079 when he said "Here?" to ensure that he was able to understand the speaker's message. In line 1081 he asked for confirmation again when he said "In UM?" to make sure that he was able to understand AA, the Arab low proficiency speaker, correctly.

Example 107:

1074 AA: Fourteen years, fourteen to ten years.
1075 V: What?
1076 AA: For uh the time for PhD.
1077 V: Ten years?
1078 AA: Yeah.
1079 V: Here?
1080 AA: Yeah, I know some supervisor finish for uh for PhD for eight half years, now in UM.
1081 V: In UM?
1082 AA: Yeah and now for the UM teacher|

d. Response

Response a sub-category of other-performance problem-related interactional strategy includes all the different types of responses which are included in Dorneyi and Scott's (1977) and are collated in one category in this study (see 3.5.2). Therefore, response can be defined as repeating, rephrasing or confirming the original trigger or the suggested form or providing other-initiated self-repair. Table 4.20 shows that participants in the high-low group used response 19 times (2.04%) in their conversations. Both the Arab and Iranian high proficiency participants employed response 10 times (1.23%) and Arab and Iranian low proficiency participants employed it 9 times (1.11%). An instance of response used in the high-high group follow.

In Example 108, AA the low proficiency Arab used response in line 991 when he repeated what V uttered in line 990.

Example 108:

989	AA:	But I think just for the UM. Yes see another university, for one year and half is finished the master. For US uh M.
990	V:	USM.
991	AA:	USM and UPM.
992	K:	UPM [is not like UM. You have to pass the course at first that is very nice.]

Both Arab and Iranian high proficiency participants did not use the CSs own-accuracy check and similar sounding words. On the other hand the Arab high proficiency participant in the high-low group did not employ indirect appeal for help and asking for repetition while the Iranian high proficiency participant in the high-low group did not use message abandonment and comprehension-check. Both Arab and Iranian low proficiency participants did not use own-accuracy check. On the other hand the Arab low proficiency participant in the high-low group did not employ indirect appeal for help and asking for repetition while the Iranian low proficiency participants in the high-

low group did not use comprehension-check, asking for repetition and asking for clarification. This means Arab low proficiency participants employed 17 types of CSs in high-low group while Iranian low proficiency participants in high-low group used 16 types of CSs.

In this chapter the CSs employed by participants in the high-high, the low-low and the high-low groups have been discussed using a modified form of Dornyei and Scott's (1997) taxonomy.

4.4 Overview

In this section the overall number of type and frequency of CSs employed as well as the most frequently used CSs by the Arab and Iranian participants in high-high, low-low and high-low groups will be presented.

4.4.1 Communication Strategies in Different Proficiency Groups

The low proficiency group used CSs most frequently compared to the two other groups in this study as presented in table 4.21.

Table 4.21 Number of CSs Used in Each Group

Proficiency Group	Total number of CSs used	%
High-high	523	20.99%
Low-low	1160	46.56%
High-low	808	32.43%

Figure 4.2 shows that participants in the high-high group used 20.99% of the total CSs used by the participants in this study, which is the minimum percentage of the CSs used by the participants in the three proficiency groups. The highest number of CSs was used by the participants in the low-low group. They employed 46.56% of the total number of CSs while the high-low group employed 32.43% of the total number of CSs used.

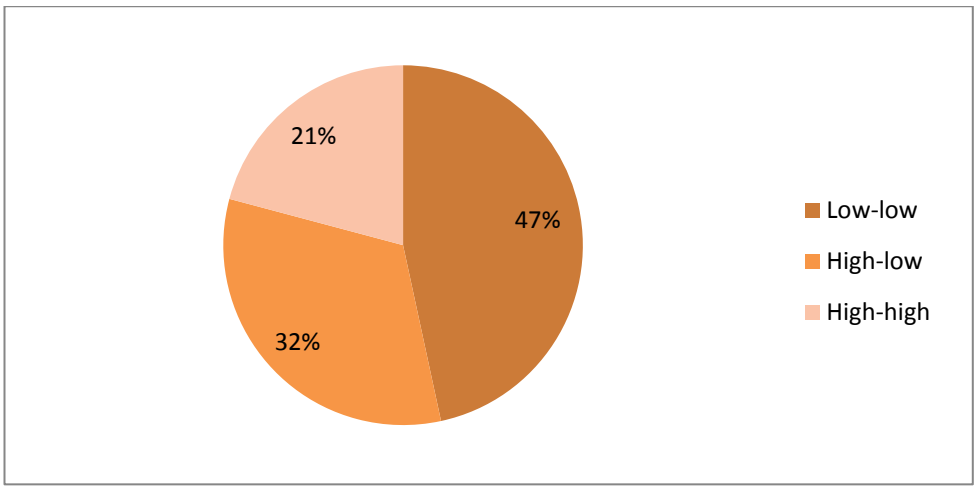

Figure 4.2 Percentage of CSs Used in Each Group

4.4.2 Most Frequently Used Communication Strategies in Each Proficiency Group

The second research question is concerned with the most frequently used CSs in each proficiency group i.e. the high-high, low-low and high-low group (see 4.1). The results of the six most frequently used CSs in different groups will be presented.

4.4.2.1 Most Frequently Used Communication Strategies in the High-High Group

The high-high group results show that they used code switching (19.80%), self-repair (17.29%) and literal translation (16.93%) more frequently than the other CSs (see Table 4.22). Both Arab and Iranian speakers switched to Arabic. Iranian participants switched to Arabic 21 times while Arab participants switched to Arabic 40 times. As explained earlier in 3.2.2, Iranians learn Arabic starting from grade six in school education. In addition to Arabic the Iranian participants switched to Persian 31 times. An interesting result is that the participants in this group also switched to Bahasa Malaysia (the national language of Malaysia) 10 times. It appears that they have learned Malaysia's national language not only because they took part in the compulsory course for Bahasa Malaysia in the University of Malaya, but also because they had stayed in Malaysia for some time (see 3.2.2). Other CSs such as message reduction (12.70%), circumlocution (5.98%) and omission (5%) were also used (see Figure 4.3).

Table 4.22 High-High Group: Most Frequently Used Communication Strategies

Communication strategy	Iranian	%	Arab	%	Total	%
Code-switching	58 A = 21 BM = 6 P = 31	11.15	45 A = 40 BM = 4 P = 1	8.65	103	19.80
Self-repair	48	9.22	42	8.07	90	17.29
Literal translation	35	6.73	53	10.19	88	16.93
Message reduction	26	5	40	7.70	66	12.70
Circumlocution	17	3.27	14	2.70	31	5.98
Omission	18	3.46	8	1.84	26	5

*A = Arabic, BM = Bahasa Malaysia, P = Persian

When comparing the Arab and Iranian students Figure 4.3 shows that the Arab participants in the high-high group used literal translation (10.19%) and message reduction (7.70%) more frequently than the Iranian participants in the same group who used them 6.73% and 5% respectively. On the other hand Iranian participants used code switching (11.15%) more frequently than the Arab participants (8.65%).

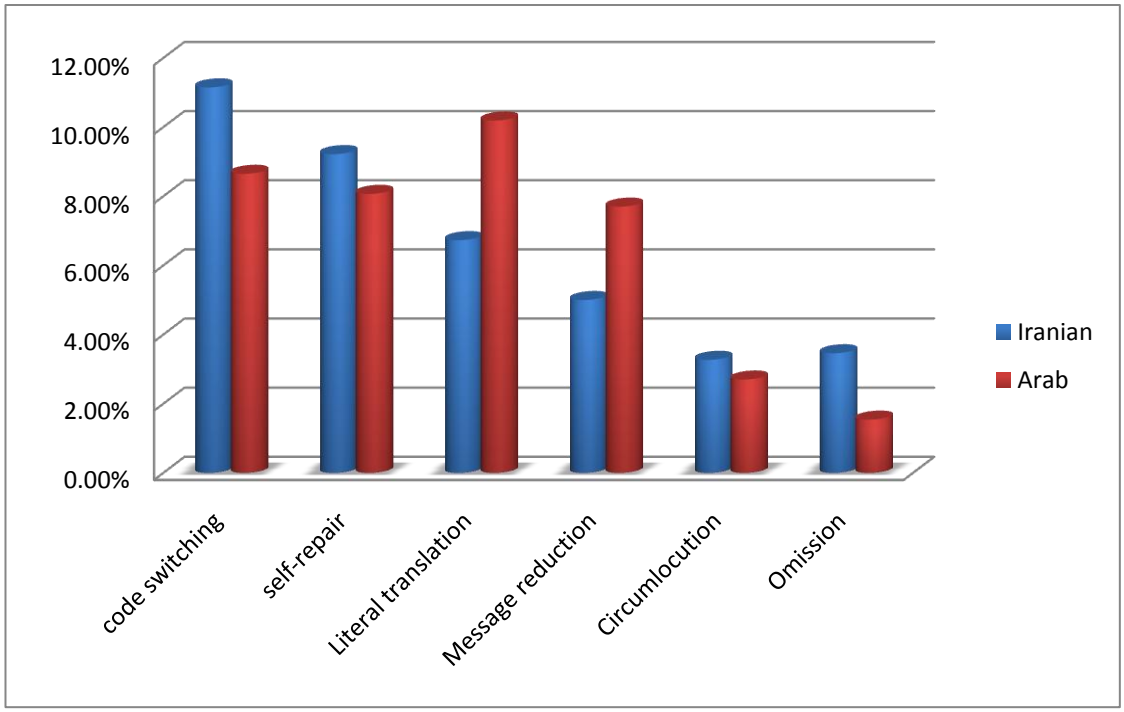

Figure 4.3 High-High Group - Most Frequently Used Communication Strategies

4.4.2.2 Most Frequently Used Communication Strategies in the Low-Low Group

In reference to the second research question, more detailed results in Table 4.23 show that subjects in the low-low group used literal translation (27.19%), self-repair (18.41%) and message reduction (15.85%) more frequently compared to the other CSs. They also used circumlocution (6.02%), approximation (4.99%) and omission (4.38%).

Table 4.23 Low-Low Group: Most Frequently Used Communication Strategies

Communication Strategy	Iranian	%	Arab	%	Total	%
Literal translation	114	9.81	202	17.38	316	27.19
Self-repair	99	8.52	115	9.89	214	18.41
Message reduction	67	5.77	117	10.06	184	15.85
Circumlocution	47	4.05	23	1.98	70	6.02
Approximation	27	2.32	31	2.66	58	4.99
Omission	25	2.14	26	2.23	51	4.38

Literal translation (17.38) and message reduction (10.06) were used two times more frequently by the Arab subjects in the low-low group compared to the Iranian participants (see Figure 4.4). On the other hand Iranian participants in the same group employed circumlocution (4.05%), about two times more frequently than the Arab participants (1.98%).

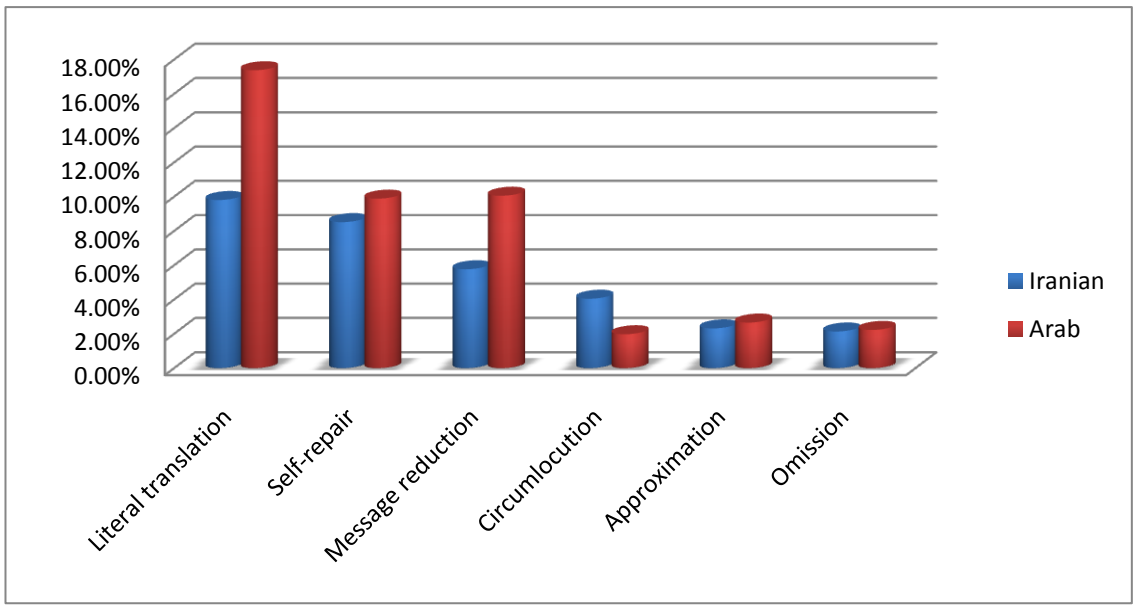

Figure 4.4 Low-Low Group: Most frequently Used Communication Strategies

4.4.2.3 Most Frequently Used Communication Strategies in the High-Low Group

Results show that the high-low group used literal translation (29.10%), message reduction (18.50%) and self-repair (11%) were the most frequently used strategies (see Table 4.24).

Table 4.24 High-Low Proficiency Group: Most Frequently Used Communication Strategies

Communication strategy	High proficiency				Subtotal		Low proficiency				Subtotal		Total	%
	Iranian		Arab		n	%	Iranian		Arab		n	%		
	n	%	n	%			n	%	n	%				
Literal translation	5	0.62	16	1.97	**21**	**2.59**	110	13.56	105	12.94	**215**	**26.51**	**236**	**29.1**
Message reduction	7	0.83	39	4.80	**46**	**5.67**	29	3.57	75	9.24	**104**	**12.83**	**150**	**18.5**
Self-repair	15	1.84	25	3.08	**40**	**4.94**	22	2.71	27	3.33	**49**	**6.05**	**89**	**11**
Circumlocution	21	2.59	38	4.68	**59**	**7.27**	13	1.60	6	0.74	**19**	**2.34**	**78**	**9.61**
Approximation	2	0.24	7	0.83	**9**	**0.11**	22	2.71	31	3.82	**53**	**6.53**	**62**	**6.64**
Self-rephrasing	9	1.11	21	2.59	**30**	**3.70**	8	0.98	9	1.11	**17**	**2.10**	**47**	**5.80**

Figure 4.5 shows that both the Arab and Iranian low proficiency participants in the high-low group used literal translation excessively (26.51%). They also used message reduction (12.83%) and Approximation (6.53%). Moreover, circumlocution was used more frequently (7.27%) by the high proficiency Arab and Iranian participants compared to the low proficiency participants in the same group who used circumlocution (2.34%). Message reduction was employed more frequently by both high and low proficiency Arab participants in the high-low group compared to the Iranian participants with a similar level of proficiency in English (see Figure 4.5).

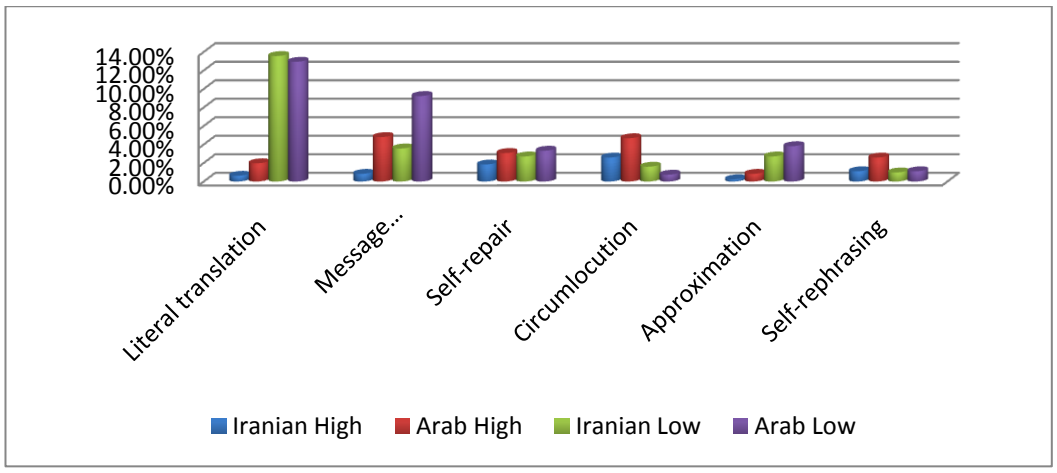

Figure 4.5 High-Low Group-Most Frequently Used CSs

4.4.3 Comparison of the Total Number of Most Frequently Used Communication Strategies

The most frequently used CS according to the total number of CSs employed by the participants of the three groups in this study is literal translation (25.70%) which was highly employed by the low proficiency speakers. Message reduction (16.06%) is the second most frequently used CS in this study. Self-repair, circumlocution, approximation and omission were employed 15.78%, 7.18%, 4.81% and 3.09% respectively. Other CSs in this study were used 27.37% (see Table 4.25).

Table 4.25 Total Number of Communication Strategies Used

Communication Strategy	Total	%
Literal translation	640	25.70%
Message reduction	400	16.06%
Self-repair	393	15.78%
Circumlocution	179	7.18%
Approximation	120	4.81%
Omission	77	3.09%
Other CSs	682	27.37%

In a comparison of the most frequently used CSs between the high proficiency participants in the high-low group and the high-high group, results show that with the exception of message reduction and circumlocution all the other CSs were used more

frequently by the high-high group (see Figure 4.6). This is different from Ismail's (2004) results as well as the expectations made earlier in this study (see 2.5.2).

As for circumlocution, the high proficiency participants in the high-low group used this strategy three times more frequently than the high-high group. This use of circumlocution was also seen in Ismail's (2004) study and suggests that high proficiency participants made maximum effort to transfer their intended message to their low proficiency interlocutors.

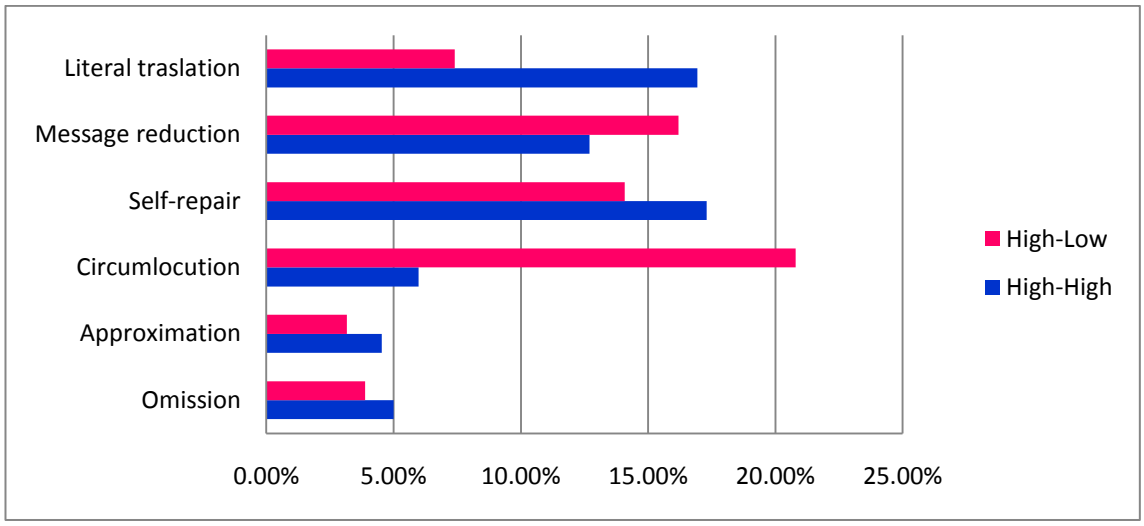

Figure 4.6 Comparison of the Most Frequently Used Communication Strategies by the High Proficiency Participants in the High-Low and the High-High Groups

Figure 4.7 shows the most frequently CSs the low proficiency participants in the high-low group used compared to the CSs used in the low-low group. It is apparent that only self-repair and circumlocution were more frequently used by the low-low group. Similarly in Ismail's (2004) study the low proficiency participants in the high-low group used more CSs compared to the low-low group.

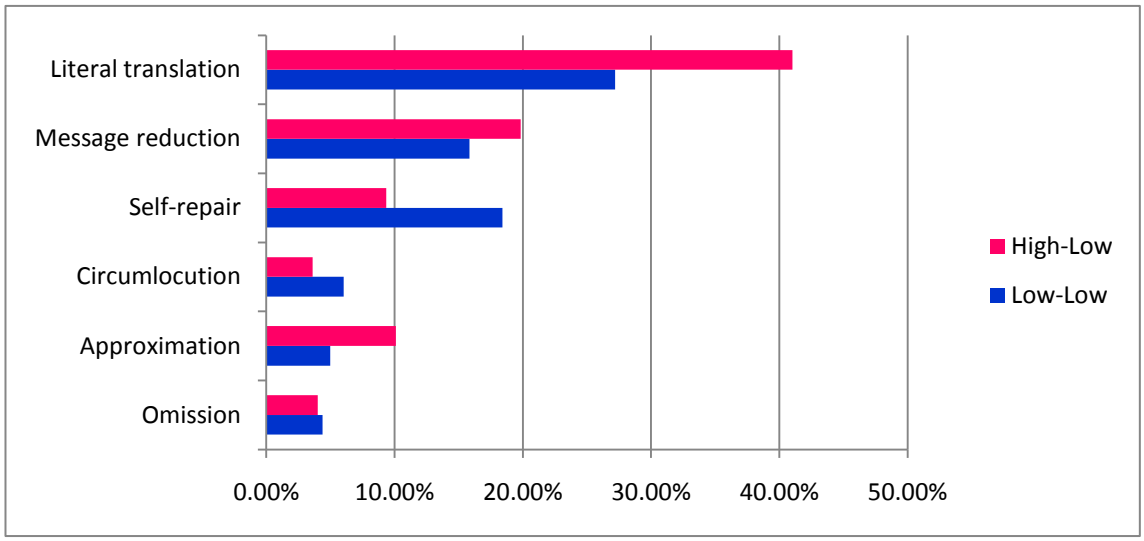

Figure 4.7 Comparison of the Most Frequently Used Communication Strategies by the Low Proficiency Participants in the High-Low and the Low-Low Groups

In a comparison of direct and interactional strategies used in the three groups i.e. high-high, low-low and high-low, the results shown in Figure 4.8 indicate that all proficiency groups used direct strategies more than interactional strategies. This is different from the results obtained in Ismail's (2004) study.

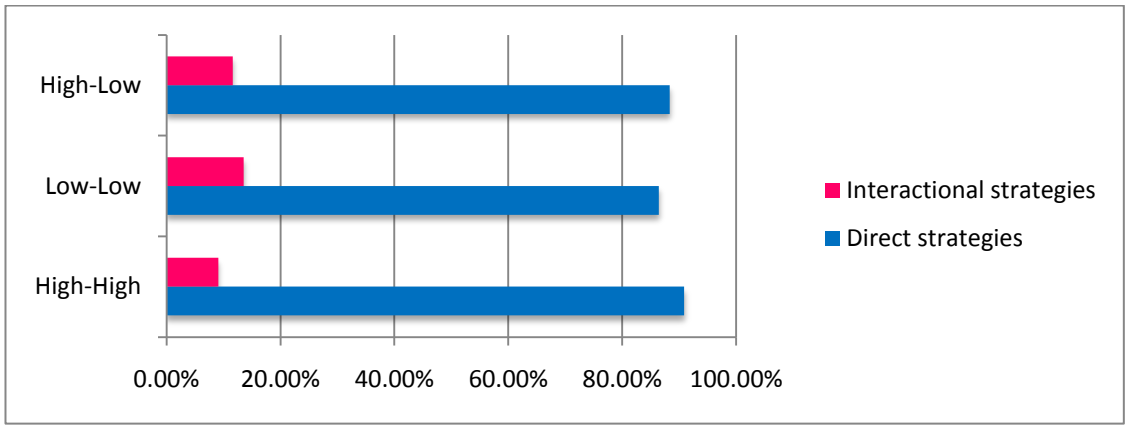

Figure 4.8 Direct and Interactional Strategies Used in Different Proficiency Groups

It was expected that the high proficiency participants in the high-low group would use more CSs compared to the high-high group but on the results showed that the participants in the high-high group used more CSs compared to the high proficiency participant in the high-low group.

Finally, in a comparison between the three groups i.e. high-high, low-low and high-low based on the based on the participants' ethnicity, it can be seen that the Arab participants have used literal translation and message reduction more frequently compared to the Iranian participants in all three groups. However, since only two types of the CSs are involved in this result, it does not indicate that ethnicity has affected the use of CSs. Ethnicity does not in any definitive way affect the number and types of CSs used. Instead it appears that proficiency levels and groups in which the participants are positioned affect the number and types of CSs used.

4.5 Statistical Analysis

This section will present the relationship between language proficiency and the types of CSs used. In this respect, t-tests used to determine significant differences in the CSs used with participants of differing levels of proficiency as well as correlation coefficients used to verify the relationship between CSs used and different English proficiency levels will be presented (see Appendix D).

4.5.1 T-test Analysis

In order to determine significant differences in the CSs used with participants of high and low proficiency, the percentage of CSs used by three different proficiency groups (high-high, high-low and low-low) were analysed using SPSS software (see Appendix D). In this analysis when p-value is greater than 0.05 it shows that there is no evidence to reject null hypothesis. Therefore, in order to accept the null hypothesis all p-values must be greater than 0.05 ($p > 0.05$) and simultaneously all t-statistics must be less than t-critical (t-critical > t-statistic).

Table 4.26 shows the t-test results derived from the data collected in this study. The table shows the significant differences in the CSs with participants of different ethnicity (Arab & Iranian) as well as different English proficiency levels (high & low).

Table 4.26 Significant differences in the use of CSs with high & low proficiency levels

Communication Strategy	Critical T-Value	Factor	T-Statistic	P-Value	Conclusion
Message abandonment	4.303	Ethnicity	1.877	0.201322	No evidence to reject null hypothesis
		Proficiency	0.402	0.726575	No evidence to reject null hypothesis
Message reduction	4.303	Ethnicity	3.118	0.089297	No evidence to reject null hypothesis
		Proficiency	0.264	0.816494	No evidence to reject null hypothesis
Circumlocution	4.303	Ethnicity	0.418	0.716551	No evidence to reject null hypothesis
		Proficiency	4.724	0.042007	Null Hypothesis is rejected
Approximation	4.303	Ethnicity	0.667	0.573424	No evidence to reject null hypothesis
		Proficiency	2.994	0.095796	No evidence to reject null hypothesis
Use of all purpose words	4.303	Ethnicity	0.392	0.732886	No evidence to reject null hypothesis
		Proficiency	5.085	0.036566	Null Hypothesis is rejected
Word coinage	4.303	Ethnicity	1.000	0.422650	No evidence to reject null hypothesis
		Proficiency	1.000	0.422650	No evidence to reject null hypothesis
Use of similar sounding words	4.303	Ethnicity	1.807	0.212503	No evidence to reject null hypothesis
		Proficiency	0.646	0.584505	No evidence to reject null hypothesis
Omission	4.303	Ethnicity	0.402	0.726575	No evidence to reject null hypothesis
		Proficiency	0.462	0.689467	No evidence to reject null hypothesis
Literal translation	4.303	Ethnicity	1.124	0.377796	No evidence to reject null hypothesis
		Proficiency	1.398	0.296982	No evidence to reject null hypothesis
Code switching	4.303	Ethnicity	0.070	0.950563	No evidence to reject null hypothesis
		Proficiency	9.226	0.011545	Null Hypothesis is rejected
Self-repair	4.303	Ethnicity	1.230	0.343746	No evidence to reject null hypothesis
		Proficiency	0.598	0.610537	No evidence to reject null hypothesis
Self-rephrasing	4.303	Ethnicity	0.597	0.611090	No evidence to reject null hypothesis
		Proficiency	3.213	0.084737	No evidence to reject null hypothesis
Direct appeal for help	4.303	Ethnicity	0.497	0.668446	No evidence to reject null hypothesis
		Proficiency	2.152	0.164302	No evidence to reject null hypothesis
Indirect appeal for help	4.303	Ethnicity	1.358	0.307374	No evidence to reject null hypothesis
		Proficiency	0.020	0.985859	No evidence to reject null hypothesis
Comprehension-check	4.303	Ethnicity	55.571	0.000324	Null Hypothesis is rejected
		Proficiency	0.025	0.982325	No evidence to reject null hypothesis

The results of the t-tests used for each CS are as follows.

4.5.1.1 Message abandonment

Table 4.26 shows that the significance of message abandonment with language proficiency is p = 0.726. Theoretically, this means that proficiency has no significant

effect on the use of message abandonment. In addition even ethnicity has no significant effect on the use of message abandonment (p = 0.201).

4.5.1.2 Message reduction

In this CS the significant difference with proficiency is p = 0.816 which indicates that proficiency has no significant effect on the use of message reduction (see Table 4.26). However, the p-value for proficiency is greater than the p-value for ethnicity (p = 0.089) which indicates that ethnicity has a greater effect on the use of message reduction.

4.5.1.3 Circumlocution

Table 4.26 shows that the p-value for proficiency in circumlocution is p = 0.042. In this case p < 0.05 indicates that the null hypothesis is rejected. This means that proficiency affects the use of circumlocution.

4.5.1.4 Approximation

The p-value for proficiency in approximation is p = 0.095 while the p-value for ethnicity is p = 0.573 which indicates that neither proficiency nor ethnicity have any significant effect on the use of approximation (see Table 4.26).

4.5.1.5 Use of all purpose words

In the use of all purpose words, the p-value for proficiency is p = 0.036 which means proficiency has a significant effect on the use of this CS while ethnicity (p = 0.732) has no significant effect on the use of all purpose words (see Table 4.26).

4.5.1.6 Word coinage

Table 4.26 shows that the p-value for both proficiency and ethnicity in word coinage is p = 0.422 which indicates that neither proficiency nor ethnicity have any significant effect on the use of word coinage.

4.5.1.7 Use of similar sounding words

In the use of similar sounding words, the p-value for proficiency is p = 0.584 which means proficiency has no significant effect on the use of this CS. Similarly, ethnicity (p = 0.212) has no significant effect on the use of all purpose words (see Table 4.26).

4.5.1.8 Omission

Table 4.26 shows that the p-value for proficiency in omission is p = 0.689 which indicates that proficiency has no significant effect on the use of omission. The p-value for ethnicity is p = 0.726 which indicates that there is no significant effect of ethnicity on the use of omission.

4.5.1.9 Literal translation

The p-value for proficiency in literal translation is p = 0.296 while the p-value for ethnicity is p = 0.377 which indicates that neither proficiency nor ethnicity have any significant effect on the use of literal translation (see Table 4.26).

4.5.1.10 Code switching

Table 4.26 shows that the p-value for proficiency in code switching is p = 0.011. In this case $p < 0.05$ which indicates that the null hypothesis is rejected. This means that proficiency affects the use of code switching. The p-value for ethnicity in code switching is p = 0.950 indicates that there is no significant effect of ethnicity on the use of code switching.

4.5.1.11 Self-repair

Table 4.26 show that neither proficiency (p = 0.610) nor ethnicity (p = 0.343) have any significant effect on the use of self-repair.

4.5.1.12 Self-rephrasing

The p-value for proficiency in self-rephrasing is p = 0.084 while the p-value for ethnicity is p = 0.611. They both show that there is no significant effect on the use of self-rephrasing for proficiency and ethnicity but it also shows that proficiency has a greater influence on the use of self-rephrasing.

4.5.1.13 Direct appeal for help

In direct appeal for help the p-value for proficiency is p = 0.164, which means that proficiency has no significant effect on the use of direct appeal for help. On the other hand the p-value for ethnicity is p = 0.668. This also shows that ethnicity has no significant effect on the use of direct appeal for help (see Table 4.26).

4.5.1.14 Indirect appeal for help

Table 4.26 shows that the p-value for proficiency in indirect appeal for help is p = 0.985. This indicates that proficiency has no significant effect on the use of indirect appeal for help. The p-value for ethnicity (p = 0.307) also shows that there is no significant effect of ethnicity on the use of this CS.

4.5.1.15 Comprehension-check

In comprehension-check the p-value for proficiency is p = 0.982 which shows that proficiency has no significant effect on the use of comprehension-check, while the p-value for ethnicity is p = 0.0003. In this case $p < 0.05$ rejects the null hypothesis and indicates that ethnicity influences the use of comprehension-check (see Table 4.26).

4.5.1.16 Own-accuracy check

The p-value for both proficiency and ethnicity in own-accuracy check is p = 0.422 which indicates that neither proficiency nor ethnicity have any significant effect on the use of own-accuracy check (see Table 4.26).

4.5.1.17 Asking for repetition

In asking for repetition the p-value for proficiency is p = 0.170 while the p-value for ethnicity is p = 0.533. Both figures indicate that both proficiency and ethnicity have no significant effect on the use of asking for repetition (see Table 2.26).

4.5.1.18 Asking for clarification

As shown in Table 4.26 the p-value for proficiency in asking for clarification is p= 0.036 which indicates that proficiency has a significant effect on the use of asking for clarification since $p < 0.05$. On the other hand ethnicity (p = 0.741) does not influence the use of asking for clarification.

4.5.1.19 Asking for confirmation

In asking for confirmation the p-value for proficiency is p = 0.262 while the p-value for ethnicity is p = 0.797. Both figures indicate that neither proficiency nor ethnicity have any significant effect on the use of asking for confirmation (see Table 4.26).

4.5.1.20 Response

The p-value for proficiency in response is p = 0.452 while it is p = 0.756 for ethnicity. This indicates that both p-values reject the null hypothesis and they have no significant effect on the use of response (see Table 4.26).

This section presented the significant differences in the CSs used with participants of high and low proficiency, the percentage of CSs used by three different proficiency groups (high-high, high-low and low-low) were analysed using SPSS software. T-test results derived from the data collected were discussed.

4.5.2 Correlation Coefficient

Correlation Coefficient was used in the data analysis for the current study to establish the linear relationship between language proficiency and types of CSs used. In other words it shows the linear relationship between English language proficiency and percentage of CSs used. Ethnicity is a discrete variable and percentage of the usage of a CS is a continuous variable, therefore it is impossible to find the linearity between these two variables. However between the proficiency and percentage of the usage of a CS it is possible to find the linearity since both are two continuous variables. Correlation Coefficient in this study is shown as 'r' and the following equation shows that:-

$$r = \frac{cov(X,Y)}{S_x \times S_y} \quad \leftrightarrow \quad -1 \leq r \leq 1$$

r = 1 in case of an increasing linear relationship, r = −1 in case of a decreasing linear relationship, and some value between -1 and 1 in all other cases, indicates the degree of linear dependence between the variables. The closer the coefficient is to either −1 or 1, the stronger the correlation is between the variables. If the variables are independent, r is 0, but the opposite is not true because the correlation coefficient detects only linear dependencies between two variables. The correlation coefficient in this study is shown in Table 2.27.

Table 4.27 Correlation Coefficient of Proficiency with Communication Strategies

Communication Strategy	Correlation Coefficient
Message abandonment	0.21
Message reduction	-0.14
Circumlocution	0.72
Approximation	-0.68
Use of all purpose words	0.72
Word coinage	0.43
Use of similar sounding words	0.31
Omission	0.23
Literal translation	-0.53
Code switching	0.74
Self-repair	0.29
Self-rephrasing	0.69
Direct appeal for help	0.63
Indirect appeal for help	0.01
Comprehension-check	0.01
Own-accuracy check	0.43
Asking for repetition	0.62
Asking for clarification	-0.72
Asking for confirmation	0.55
Response	0.41

The relationship between language proficiency and types of CSs used will be discussed as follows.

4.5.2.1 Message abandonment

Table 4.27 shows that the coefficient of proficiency in message abandonment is r = 0.21 which is closer to the number $1(-1 \leq 0.21 \leq 1)$. This indicates that there is a slight positive linear correlation between language proficiency and the use of message abandonment. In other words, with the increase of proficiency the use of message abandonment has slightly increased.

4.5.2.2 Message reduction

In message reduction the coefficient of proficiency as shown in Table 4.27 is r = -0.14 which indicates that the correlation between language proficiency and the use of

message reduction is negative. That means with the increment of language proficiency the use of message reduction has slightly decreased.

4.5.2.3 Circumlocution

The coefficient of proficiency in circumlocution shown in Table 2.27 is r = 0.72 which indicates a sharp positive correlation between language proficiency and circumlocution. The number indicates that with the increment of language proficiency the use of circumlocution has highly increased.

4.5.2.4 Approximation

Table 4.27 shows that proficiency coefficient is r = -0.68 which means that there is a sharp negative correlations between language proficiency and approximation. In other words, the higher language proficiency is the less approximation is used.

4.5.2.5 Use of all purpose words

In the use of all purpose words Table 2.27 shows that the coefficient of proficiency is r = 0.72 which indicates that there is a positive correlation between language proficiency and the use of this CS. In other words with the increment of language proficiency the use of all purpose words has highly increased.

4.5.2.6 Word coinage

In word coinage the coefficient for proficiency is r = 0.43 which shows that there is a positive correlation between language proficiency and the use of word coinage. In other words, with the increment of language proficiency the use of word coinage has slightly increased (see Table 2.27).

4.5.2.7 Use of similar sounding words

In use of similar sounding words there is a positive correlation between language proficiency and this CS, because the coefficient of proficiency as shown in Table 2.27 is

r = 0.31 which means that with the increment of language proficiency use of similar sounding words has slightly increased.

4.5.2.8 Omission

Table 2.27 shows that the coefficient of proficiency in omission is r = 0.23 which indicates a positive correlations between language proficiency and omission. It signifies that with the increment of language proficiency there is a slight linear increase in the use of omission.

4.5.2.9 Literal translation

The coefficient of proficiency in literal translation (r = -0.53) shown in Table 2.27 indicates that there is a negative correlation between language proficiency and literal translation. In other words, with the increment of proficiency the use of literal translation has decreased.

4.5.2.10 Code switching

In code switching the coefficient of proficiency (r = 0.74) shows a positive correlation between language proficiency and code switching. In other words, there is a great increase in the use of code switching with the increment of language proficiency (see Table 2.27).

4.5.2.11 Self-repair

In self-repair the coefficient of proficiency (r = 0.29) does not show a great correlation between proficiency and the use of self-repair. In other words, with the increase of proficiency the use of self-repair has slightly increased (see Table 2.27).

4.5.2.12 Self-rephrasing

Table 2.27 shows that the coefficient of proficiency in self-rephrasing is r = 0.69 which signifies that there is a positive correlation between language proficiency and the use of

self-rephrasing. In other words, with the increment of language proficiency the use of self-rephrasing has highly increased.

4.5.2.13 Direct appeal for help

Table 2.27 shows that there is a positive correlation between language proficiency and the use of direct appeal for help. Because the coefficient shown is r = 0.63 which shows that with the increment of language proficiency the use of direct appeal for help has increased.

4.5.2.14 Indirect appeal for help

In this CS the coefficient of proficiency is r = 0.01 as shown in Table 2.27 which shows a very weak positive correlation between language proficiency and the use of indirect appeal for help.

4.5.2.15 Comprehension-check

Comprehension-check is a CS which shows a very weak positive correlation with language proficiency as shown in Table 2.27. The coefficient of proficiency in comprehension-check is r = 0.01 which shows there is very little increase in the use of this CS with the increase of language proficiency.

4.5.2.16 Own-accuracy check

Table 4.27 shows that the coefficient of proficiency in own-accuracy check is r = 0.43 which indicates that there is a narrow correlation between language proficiency and the use of this CS. In other words with the increase of language proficiency the use of own-accuracy check has increased.

4.5.2.17 Asking for repetition

In asking for repetition the coefficient of proficiency is r = 0.62 as shown in Table 2.27 which indicates that there is a good positive relationship between language proficiency

and use of asking for repetition. The higher language proficiency is the more asking for repetition is used.

4.5.2.18 Asking for clarification

Asking for clarification shows a highly negative correlation with language proficiency. As shown in Table 2.27 the coefficient of proficiency in asking for clarification is r = -0.72 which indicates, with the increase of language proficiency the use of asking for clarification has highly decreased.

4.5.2.19 Asking for confirmation

Table 2.27 shows that the coefficient of proficiency in asking for confirmation is r = 0.55 which indicates that there is a positive correlation between language proficiency and the use of asking for confirmation. The higher language proficiency is the more asking for confirmation is used.

4.5.2.20 Response

In response it is shown that there is a positive correlation between language proficiency and the use of this CS. The coefficient of proficiency in response is r = 0.41 which indicates that with the increment of language proficiency the use of response has slightly increased.

This section presented the correlation coefficient used in the data analysis for the current study to establish the linear relationship between language proficiency and types of CSs used. In other words it shows the linear relationship between English language proficiency and percentage of CSs used.

4.6 Conclusion

In order to show the relationship between language proficiency and types of CSs used, the percentages of CSs used by three proficiency groups (high-high, high-low and low-

low) were analysed by using SPSS software. T-tests were employed to determine significance differences in the CSs used with participants of differing levels of proficiency and ethnicity. Moreover, correlation coefficients were used to verify the relationship between the use of CSs and English proficiency levels. As a result, it was determined that proficiency affects the use of CSs not ethnicity. This result is in tandem with the results derived from the simple frequency count and its analysis.

The final chapter will provide a summary of the results and make recommendations for future studies.