CHAPTER TWO
REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This chapter reviews the literature and research studies in four main areas along with summary: (1) communication, (2) developing negative messages, (3) communication strategies, (4) related reports and studies, and (5) summary.

2.1   COMMUNICATION

Hamilton and Parker (1997) underlined the importance of communication on business and profession. They provided the definition of communication as "the process of people sharing thoughts, ideas, and feelings with each other in commonly understandable ways." (p. 4) Regardless of the number of people involved in a communication process, the same basic communication process occurs. At the same time, misunderstanding can also arise. Successful communication relies heavily on the ability to minimize the possible misunderstanding. This ability to communicate successfully is the result of understanding the elements of communication. These basic elements include communicators, stimulus and motivation, encoding and decoding, code, channel, feedback, environment, and noise.

1.   Communicators

In order for communication to take place, there need to be at least two persons or interlocutors involving in the process of sharing. The first is the sender of the message. The second is the receiver of the message. During a real life conversation, communicators play both roles simultaneously and interchangeably.

2.   Stimulus and Motivation

Before any communication can occur, the sender must first be stimulated to share the thought, idea, or feeling. Once stimulated, the sender must also be motivated. In other words, the sender must see the benefit of sharing the thought, idea or feeling with the receiver.

3.   Encoding and Decoding

After the sender is stimulated and motivated to share the information, he must go through the process of encoding the message. He must determine the best way to convey the message to the sender. Once the sender receives the message, he

will have to go through the decoding process, trying to understand the message given to him by the sender.

4. Frame of reference

The sample situation above may appear as simple as questioning and answering. However, frame of reference is "often responsible for communication breakdown". (Hamilton and Parker, 1997, p. 7) Frame of reference is the backgrounds and the experiences of the sender and the receiver. This frame of reference can range from education, age, gender, race, attitude, personality, past experience, family upbringing, etc. If the sender and the receiver share similar frame of reference, accurate encoding and decoding can take place.

5. Code

Code is the symbol that carries the message or in another word, language. There are three basic communication codes; language (verbal), paralanguage (vocal), and nonverbal (visual). Language can be either spoken or written. Paralanguage is the vocal elements that accompany spoken language such as tone, pitch, rate, volume, or emphasis. Nonverbal is the visual code including both intentional and unintentional. It includes facial expression, eye contact, gestures, appearance, etc.

6. Channel

The medium that carries the message is channel. This can be fact-to-face conversation, letter to customers, memo to employees, etc. Before adopting any channels for communication, the sender should consider the importance of the message, the needs and abilities of the receiver, the amount and speed of the feedback required, the necessity of a permanent record, the cost of the channel, and the level of formality or informality desired.

7. Feedback

When the receiver responds verbally and visually to the message, he is giving feedback. An effective sender will observe the receiver's feedback in order to determine if the message is interpreted as intended. Verbal feedback not only provides response to the sender but at the same time changes the role of message sender and message receiver in the communication.
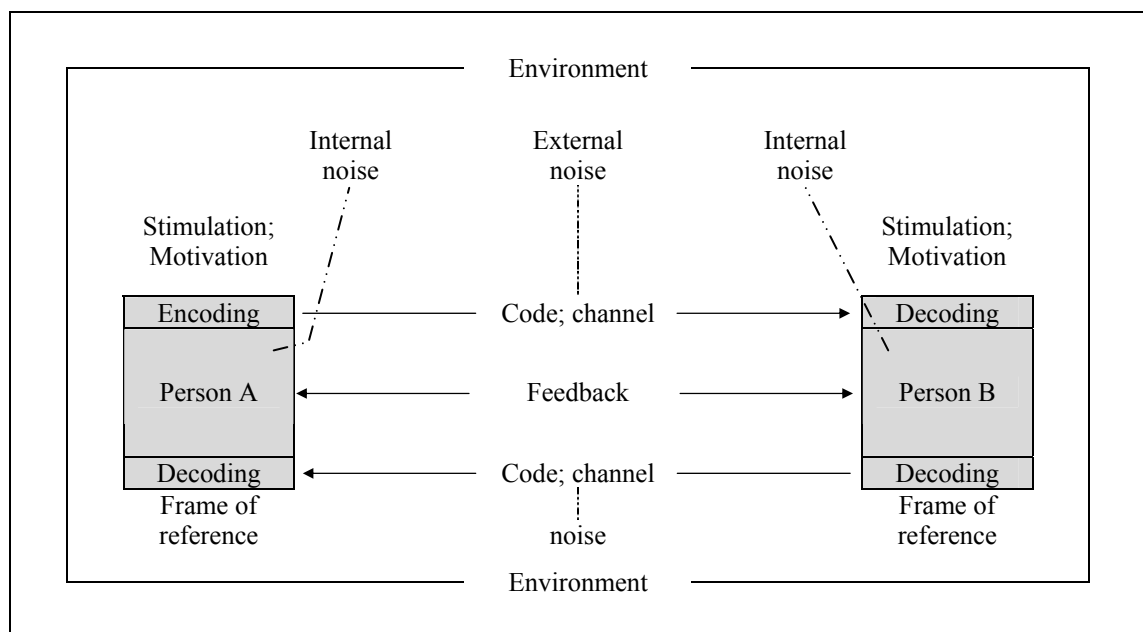
8. Environment

The effective communicator will plan and take control of the physical environment as much as possible. This includes time, place, physical surrounding and social surrounding. Certain types of environment play crucial roles in securing effective communication.

9. Noise

Noise refers to any interference that distorts or blocks communication. It can be external noise or external distraction such as hot room, poor signage, dirty clothing, etc. Noise can also be an internal one such as health condition, daydreaming, preoccupation, etc.

From the concept explained above, Hamilton and Parker summarized the elements and proposed the communication in the *Figure 1*.

Figure 1. Basic model of communication.

From *Communicating for Results* (p. 4), by C. Hamilton and C. Parker, 1997. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.

Bovée and Thill (2005) explained that communication is a process of sending and receiving messages and shall be considered effective when the receiver understands the message correctly and responds to the message according to the
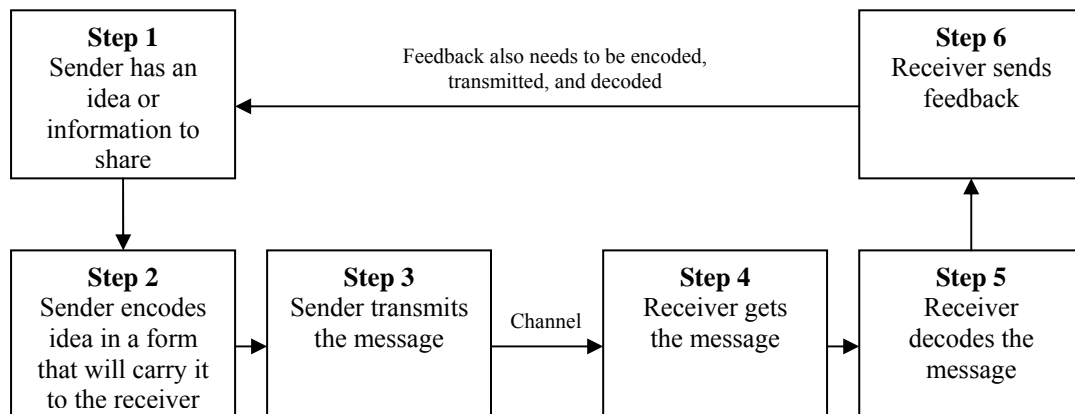
sender's intention. In a business context, "effective communication helps manage the workflow, improves business relationships enhances professional image and provides a variety of other important benefits". (p. 4) Communication, in fact, is the center of the business in the way that it connects the business with its consumers, employees, shareholders, suppliers, neighbors, the community, and even the country.

Bovée and Thill (2005) suggested that communication is a process involving six basic steps.

1. The sender has an idea and wants to share it with another person or other people.

2. The sender encodes that idea in a way that the receiver will understand. The sender has to choose form (verbal, vocal, and visual), length, organization, and style. All of these depend on the idea to share, the receiver(s) and the sender's personal style.

3. The sender selects a channel of communication and transmits the message to the receiver. The choice of the channel can be telephone, letter, email, face-to-face conversation, etc. This generally depends on the speed and the formality required.

4. The receiver gets the message. However, there is no guarantee that the message gets through to the receiver due to several communication obstacles such as noisy environment or spam filter.

5. If the message gets through to the receiver, the receiver will start the decoding step. The receiver attempts to extract the idea the sender intends in the message in the way that the receiver can understand. He will respond according to the sender's intention only when the receiver can assign the same meaning in the message as the sender.

6. The receiver may send feedback to the sender as a response. The sender now has the opportunity to evaluate the effectiveness of the message that has been sent out. The feedback will also initiate another cycle of communication process and the process can continue until the sender and the receiver are satisfied with the result.

The communication process was proposed in a flowchart in *Figure 2*.

Figure 2. Communication process.

Step 1 Sender has an idea or information to share					**Step 6** Receiver sends feedback

Feedback also needs to be encoded, transmitted, and decoded

Step 2 Sender encodes idea in a form that will carry it to the receiver	**Step 3** Sender transmits the message	Channel	**Step 4** Receiver gets the message	**Step 5** Receiver decodes the message

From *Business Communication Today* (p.10), by C. L. Bovée and J. V. Thill, 2005. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Prentice Hall.

Bovée and Thill (2005) also reminded us that effective communicators should always bear in mind possible barriers. These include:-

1. Distraction can be from physical setting for communication such as poor acoustic condition or uncomfortable meeting room. However, the distraction also includes the communicators' emotional stage.

2. Information overload takes place when the receiver gets too much information or too many messages than he can effectively handle. This leads to the difficulty in distinguishing the useful messages from the useless ones.

3. Perceptual differences may occur when the receiver starts to match the message to previous or accustomed patterns in the process called selective perception. Distortion of message can easily occur when the receiver cannot match the previous experience to the new incoming message.

4. Language differences can be a threat to communication even though the communicators use the same language.

5. Restrictive environments take place when the flow of communication is subject to several levels of communication hierarchy as in company with a tall hierarchal organizational structure.

6.   Deceptive tactics can be seen as attempts to deceive the message receiver by some unscrupulous message senders. This can include the attempt to present opinion as fact, exaggerate benefit, or down play risks.

From the explanations of the communication process above, it can be seen that the discussion is mostly made on the basic assumption that the communicators communicate in the same language. Despite that, both explanations pointed out the possible communication breakdowns which can result from any stage of the communication process. In the situation where communicators have to convey messages through another, and often of less competent language ability, the possibility of communication breakdowns can get much higher.

2.2   DEVELOPING NEGATIVE MESSAGES

Bovée and Thill (2005, pp. 220-247) explained that negative messages commonly share five goals: to convey the bad news; to gain acceptance for the news; to maintain as much goodwill as possible with the receiver; to maintain a good image of the sender's organization; and to reduce or eliminate the need for future correspondence on the matter.

As cited in Barnholt's study, (as cited in Bovée and Thill, 2005, p. 222) "Nobody likes bad news. No one likes to get it and no one likes to give it," leaves the challenge of crafting an effective negative message that will achieve the five goals. Bovée and Thill recommended 3-step method in writing a negative message.

3-Step Method

1.   Plan the message. Analyze the situation carefully that the receiver does not want to hear about. Consider the purpose of the message, know the receiver and analyze his profile. Then, gather information the receiver needs in order for him to understand the message. Also consider how best the message should be delivered to the receiver. Select the appropriate organization in delivering the message.

2.   Write the message. There are several points the sender should keep in mind while writing a negative message. Maintain "you" attitude, adopt polite language and avoid bias language. Make sure to use language that conveys respect.

3. Complete the message. Pay careful attention to the final stage. Revise the message before producing the message. Make sure to proof read it before sending it out.

Bovée and Thill further suggested that the sender needs to decide whether to adopt the direct or indirect approach. In order to achieve this goal, there are some questions that will give the sender some guidelines.

1. Will the bad news come as a shock?

2. Does the receiver prefer short messages that get right to the point?

3. How important is the news to the receiver?

4. Does the sender still need to maintain future relationship with the receiver?

5. Does the sender need to get the receiver's attention?

6. What is the sender's organization's preferred style?

7. How much follow-up communication does the sender want?

The answers from these questions give some guidelines for the sender to determine whether to adopt a direct or an indirect approach in the negative messages.

Direct Approach

1. Open with a clear statement of the bad news. Maintain a calm and professional tone. This should be done by focusing on the news rather than the individual failure.

2. Provide reasons and additional information. Explain why the news is negative.

3. Close on a positive note. Do it in a positive but still honest and respectful manner. When possible, offer the receiver alternatives.

Indirect Approach

1. Start with a buffer in order to ease the blow and prepare the receiver to accept the situation. Open with a neutral and non-controversial statement. There are several types of buffers the sender may adopt such as agreement, appreciation, cooperation, fairness, resale, praise, understanding, good news, etc.

2.   Provide reasons and additional information as the sender may do in the direct approach with the suggestion that the sender starts out from the most positive points and moves toward the more negative ones.

3.   Continue with a clear statement of bad news. This can be done by minimizing the space or time, subordinating the bad news in complex or compound sentence, or embedding the bad news in the middle of the paragraph.

4.   Close on a positive note with a sincere and confident tone.

Locker (2000, pp. 190-201) explained that negative messages attempt to serve some basic purposes. They attempt to give the receiver bad news, expect him to understand and accept the message, and to maintain goodwill for future business.

The Parts of a Negative Message

1.   Buffer. A buffer is a neutral or positive statement that allows the sender to delay the negative news. Senders should also be cautioned on the use of buffers as some readers may take offense, feeling betrayed by the positive opening to learn the negative news in the middle.

2.   Reasons. The sender should provide a clear and convincing reason as it will prepare the receiver for the bad news. The sender should never hide behind the company policy as it may appear to the reader that the policy only benefits the sender. Instead, emphasize the benefit the receiver will get from the policy. If there is no good reason or the reason is too strong, then, it should be omitted.

3.   Refusals. The sender may deemphasize it by putting it in the same paragraph as the reason but the sender must ensure that the refusal is clear to the receiver.

4.   Alternative. Offer an alternative or a compromise if it is available. If the sender is offering an alternative, give the reader information in order to act on it.

5.   Ending. Refer to the alternative if the sender is offering one and avoid insincere ending.

Guffey (1998, pp. 164-188) explained that negative news may antagonize, disappoint, upset, hurt or anger the receiver. The indirect approach might be more

effective than the direct approach. However, the direct approach can also be appropriate if you know the receiver well or the receiver did not understand the earlier attempts on the indirect approach.

Indirect Approach

1.   Develop a good buffer. A buffer can reduce the shock, put the receiver in a receptive frame of mind, and induce him to read the entire letter. A good buffer should be neutral, upbeat and relevant. This can be achieved by avoiding saying yes or no, emphasizing the receiver's benefit, and referring to the situation at hand.

2.   Build a smooth transition. Guide the reader to the explanation without revealing the bad news. Avoid using any negative words.

3.   Present the explanation before the bad news. The explanation should show that the situation has been reviewed thoroughly. Tell the receiver why the refusal is necessary. If the situation allows, emphasize the receiver's benefit. Project the unemotional, objective and helpful tone. Avoid presumptuous tone and do not hide behind company policy.

4.   Breaking the bad news. There are several techniques the sender may adopt to deliver the negative news. Here are some of the techniques.

- Put in the middle of a sentence.
- Use a long sentence.
- Put the bad news in a subordinate clause.
- Use the passive voice.
- Be clear.
- Imply refusal in certain situations.
- Offer alternative.

5.   Close with goodwill. This is the sender's attempt to renew good feeling. Resale technique can also be used. However, there are attempts that should also be avoided.

- Do not refer to bad news again.
- Do not conclude with clichés.
- Do not invite further correspondence.

Harcourt, Krizan and Merrier (1996, pp. 314-355) pointed out that negative messages are a challenge to compose as they are perceived as unpleasant, disappointing, or unfavorable by the receiver. However, it gives the sender a chance to resolve any common business problem successfully. Harcourt, Krizan and Merrier recommended that indirect approach is the most appropriate for negative messages. An indirect approach enables the receiver to accept the bad news and to maintain positive relationship with the sender. Through an indirect approach, the sender maintains calm and a gradual approach in delivering the bad news. This gives time for the receiver's anxiety to subside.

Indirect Plan for Negative Message

1.   Opening buffer. A buffer will provide coherence, build goodwill, be positive, maintain neutrality and introduce the explanation. This can begin with referring to any previous communications that have led to the refusal. It helps set the receiver's mindset to the same as the sender's. Emphasize goodwill environment by using positive words and avoid negative ones. Also remain neutral in the buffer paragraph by not suggesting if the message is to say yes or no. End the paragraph with the introduction of the sender's explanation.

2.   Logical explanation. The reason for the negative news should be presented in a calm, convincing, and pleasant manner using you-viewpoint. The sender should point out how the negative news is in the receiver's best interest. Negative vocabulary should always be avoided. If the message is not conducive in emphasizing the reader's benefit, the sender should, then, base the reasoning on what is fair for all concerned.

3.   Negative information. The sender will be delivering the bad news as clearly and explicitly as possible so that the receiver will understand the message. This, however, is also based a lot on your receiver's cultural background. The sender may give the news in as few words as possible or place it in the dependent clause of the sentence.

4.   Constructive follow-up. This can be an attempt to offer alternatives to solve the problems. If not possible, the sender may want to save some of the

explanation to state in this paragraph. This can help strengthen communications and relations with the receiver.

5.   Friendly close. This helps build goodwill with your receiver. It should be personalized, warm and optimistic in order to ensure future relationship.

It can be concluded here that these authors shared the same point of view in terms of producing an effective negative message. Most generally agreed that the common approach in delivering the bad news should be an indirect one, though, they have also pointed out that a direct approach can be effective in some situation. The indirect approach in developing an effective negative message can be concluded as follows.

1.   Open with a good buffer.

2.   Provide a supportive and relevant reason or explanation.

3.   Give the bad news clearly.

4.   End with a positive closing.

When appropriate to the situation and the receiver, a direct approach can also be adopted. The approach can be as follows.

1.   Open with the negative news.

2.   Provide reason or explanation.

3.   Close with a positive note.

2.3   COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES

Tarone, Cohen and Dumas (1983) explained the term communication strategies as "a systematic attempt by the learner to express or decode meaning in the target language, in situations where the appropriate systematic target language rules have not been formed" (p. 5). From this definition, the communication strategy is viewed with the perspective of language differences between the communicators, particularly the sender. It emphasizes the systematic attempt on the sender who tries to decode the message into language rules of a target language, not his native one.

They also identified several distinct types of communication strategies as commonly found in interlanguage communication.

1.   Transfer from the native language

This type of strategy is considered to be a negative transfer. It occurs when the sender takes the rule of his native language and substitutes it with the rule of the target language. As a result, he produces a message that is neither appropriate nor correct by the target language standards. For example, the sender transfers the use of verb in Thai and applies it to the English adjective. The message may be constructed as, "I happy," instead of, "I am happy."

2.   Overgeneralization

The sender inappropriately applies a rule of the target language to an incorrect target language form or context. Overgeneralization is considered grammatically acceptably but it is inappropriate. For example, the sender takes the rule of past regular verb and applies it to the irregular verb. The message may appear as, "Gorge goed to a movie," rather than, "George went to a movie."

3.   Prefabricated pattern

This pattern can also be considered a subcategory of overgeneralization as it occurs only in syntactic domain. This happens when the sender adopts a regular pattern and applied it without the knowledge of the underlying structure, but with the knowledge that the situation calls for that pattern. The common example is the use of embedded question. For example, the sender may say, "I don't know what is it?" The sender adopts the rule of question creation without knowing the embedded question structure but knowing that the sentence is a question and call for the question structure.

4.   Overelaboration

This strategy occurs when the sender attempts to produce careful target language. This results in a correct grammatical term but sounds "stilted, inordinately formal and not native-like" (p. 9). The sender may over-emphasize each syllable in speaking a sentence, may not use a contraction in long verb group or may keep the relative pronoun which will normally be omitted.

5.   Epenthesis

This strategy occurs only in the phonological domain (sound utterance). The sender adds more vowels in order to produce an unfamiliar consonant cluster in

the target language. For example, the sender may pronounce "stray" as /sətəreɪ/ instead of /streɪ/.

6. Avoidance

This strategy includes six subcategories, all of which involve "different means of getting around target language rules or forms which are not yet an established part of the sender's competence" (p. 10).

6.1 *Topic avoidance* is an attempt to completely evade the communication on topics that require the use of target language rules or forms which the communicator does not know well. The sender may change the topic of communication or give no verbal response to the initiated conversation. For example, the sender may avoid talking about past event because he has difficulty with past tense.

6.2 In *Semantic avoidance*, the sender evades the content of the conversation as his appropriate target language rules and forms are not available. He may talk about related concepts, hoping that it will provide the intended content. For example, the sender may say, "I like to swim," hoping that it answers the question, "What did you do yesterday?" This is because he has problem using past tense.

6.3 *Appeal to authority* takes place when the sender turns to other people or to consult a dictionary in order to achieve the target language forms or terms. It may just be asking the receiver, "What do you call … in English?"

6.4 *Paraphrase* is a "rewording of the message in an alternate, acceptable target language construction, in order to avoid a more difficult form or construction" (p. 10). This may come in forms of using high coverage word (tool instead of wrench), low frequency word (to labor instead of to work), word coinage (airball instead of balloon), or circumlocution (thing to dry your hands in stead of towel).

6.5 *Message abandonment* may result in communication breakdown as the communicator cuts it short as he encounters difficulty with the target language. This may just be in the middle of a sentence without any attempt from the sender to appeal to authority in order to carry on the communication.

6.6 *Language switching* takes place when the sender directly transports his native word or expression into the interlanguage communication

because he has not yet learned the term in the target language. However, the sender may just switch the language in order to fit in with his peers.

Corder (1983) explained the definition and recommended a different framework in regards to the strategies of communication. Communication strategy to Corder is "a systematic technique employed by a speaker to express his meaning when faced with some difficulty" (p.16). The difficulty in this definition is directed to the inadequate language competence.

Corder categorized communication strategies into two main categories:-

1.   Message adjustment strategies or risk avoidance strategies. The sender attempts to adjust the message within his command of language or resources he has available. Such attempts can be subcategorized in hierarchal order by the extent of message to be abandoned.

1.1   *Topic avoidance* is a refusal to enter into or continue the communication because the sender feels the lack of language competence.

1.2   *Message abandonment* is when the sender tries to carry on the communication but gives up in the process after facing the lack of language competence.

1.3   *Semantic avoidance* is the attempt of the sender in saying something slightly different from the intention but somehow relevant enough to continue with the communication.

1.4   *Message reduction* occurs when the sender uses les precise or vague words to communicate.

2.   Resource expansion strategies or risk-running strategies. The sender seeks ways to increase his resources (language competence) in order for his communication goal to be reached. These strategies are considered risk-running as they may lead the communication into failure, miscommunication or communication breakdown. These strategies are subcategorized into five types suggested by the amount of risk it might involve in the communication.

2.1   *Switching* takes place when the sender simply switches to his native language in his attempt to communicate.

2.2   ***Borrowing*** occurs when the sender tries to apply rules or terms of the target language he knows and approximates or invents a new one in order for him to carry his message through to the receiver.

2.3   ***Paraphrasing*** or ***circumlocution*** is explained as a way the sender gets around the problem with the available knowledge he has so that the communication can be successful.

2.4   ***Resort to paralinguistic device*** can help the sender communicate the message by way of gestures.

2.5   ***Appeal for help*** is when the sender turns to his receiver for help with words or expressions he does not know.

Færch and Kasper (1983) explained that "communication strategies are potentially conscious plans for solving what to an individual presents itself as a problem in reaching a particular communicative goal" (p. 36). Furthermore, they based their framework for communication strategies on the sender's behavior, avoidance or achievement. If the sender adopts the avoidance behavior, he tries to do away with the problem. As a result, he may decide to set a new communication goal. When the sender adopts the achievement behavior, he intends to solve the problem directly by developing an alternative plan. Færch and Kasper also associated these behaviors to communication strategies, avoidance behavior to reduction strategies and achievement behavior to achievement strategies.

From their observation on the behaviors related to communication, Færch and Kasper proposed three major categories of communication strategies.

1.   **Formal reduction strategies**

The sender projects to produce a more fluent and correct message, using his own hypothetical rules. In order to do so, the sender turns to the use of a reduced system, meaning he avoids using the target language rules or items he already knows. Rather he adopts his hypothetical rules or items which have become "reasonably well automatized" (p. 38). The sender adopts this strategy under two conditions, error avoidance and fluency facilitation. The sender may be too preoccupied to produce flawless messages in a foreign language. As a result, he adopts rules he assumed will give him correct message production. In the other case, the sender may decide to omit

certain formal elements which he knows do not affect the transmission of his intended meaning. In doing so, the sender can increase his fluency in speech production. Such strategies are also suggested to take place at the phonological, morphological, syntactic, and lexical levels. However, the sender's attempt on these formal reduction strategies is generally perceived and interpreted as functional reduction strategies and achievement strategies due to the fact that this strategy is viewed as appearing in the planning phase, not the execution phase of speech.

2. **Functional reduction strategies**

The sender who experience difficulties in his planning or executing phase of speech production may turn to adjust his communication goal in order to avoid the problem. As a result to this functional reduction, his three types of elements in his communication goal (actional, modal, and propositional) become affected. In actional element, the sender may avoid using speech that indicates directive or argumentative affects. In modal elements, he may circumvent the speech that denotes politeness. Harder (1980, as cited in Færch and Kasper, 1983) stated that these two attempts, he might be projecting a distorted version of his personality. In propositional element, the reduction involves strategies as "*topic avoidance*", "*message abandonment*", and "*semantic avoidance*".

3. **Achievement strategies**

The sender tries to solve problems in his communication by way of expanding his communicative resources rather than reducing his communicative goal. Færch and Kasper subcategorized this strategy into two major types, compensatory and retrieval.

3.1 *Compensatory strategies.* The sender attempts to overcome his limited linguistic resource by pulling in other available resources to solve the problem and carry on with the communication. The resources the sender tries to use can be further subcategorized into six groups.

3.1.1 *Code switching* occurs when the sender involves his native or even another foreign language in his attempt to overcome his linguistic insufficiency while ignoring the interlanguage code he is using for communication.

3.1.2 *Interlingual transfer* takes place when the sender combines his native linguistic features to the language he is using to communicate.

3.1.3 *Inter/intralingual transfer* occurs if the sender recognizes the similar linguistic features between his native language and the interlanguage he is using. He will transfer his native linguistic rule onto the interlanguage, perceiving that it can be equally correct (when, in fact, it may not).

3.1.4 *Interlanguage based strategies* can be divided into four types.

3.1.4.1 Generalization is the use of general terms rather than a specific term.

3.1.4.2 Paraphrasing is achieved by giving a description or circumlocution of the intended message.

3.1.4.3 Word coinage involves the creation of a non-existing word in the target language.

3.1.4.4 Restructuring occurs when the communication has begun but the sender must adopt an alternative plan in order to continue with his communication.

3.1.4.5 Cooperative strategies refer to the cooperative of both sender and the receiver in reaching a mutual understanding when the sender encounters problems.

3.1.4.6 Non-linguistic strategies is when the sender resorts to mime, gestures, sound imitation, etc. to convey his message.

3.2 *Retrieval strategies.* They occur when the sender experiences difficulties in retrieving the target language he already knows. He may wait for the term to appear, appeal to formal similarity, retrieve via semantic fields, search via other language, retrieve from learning situation, or do sensory procedures.

Tarone (1983) later summarized the characteristics of communication strategies as follows.

1.   The sender desires to communicate a message to the receiver.

2.   The sender believes that the linguistic or the sociolinguistic required conveying the message is neither available nor shared with the receiver.

3.   The sender choose to

3.1   avoid the attempt to communicate that message; or

      3.2   attempt alternate means to communicate the message.

From this summary, Tarone proposed the following strategies.

1.   Avoidance

      1.1   ***Topic avoidance.*** The sender avoids talking about the topic he does not have the linguistic resources.

      1.2   ***Message abandonment.*** The sender starts the communication but stops in the middle after encountering linguistic difficulties.

2.   Alternate means

      2.1   ***Paraphrase***

      2.1.1   *Approximation.* The sender uses the target language, knowing that it is not correct but believing that it conveys the meaning.

      2.1.2   *Word coinage.* The sender makes up new words to communicate.

      2.1.3   *Circumlocution.* The sender describes the characteristics of the problematic terms or items.

      2.2   ***Borrowing***

      2.2.1   *Literal translation.* The sender does a word for word translation from his native language.

      2.2.2   *Language switch.* The sender turns to use his native language without translating it.

      2.2.3   *Appeal for assistance.* The sender asks for help in reaching the appropriate terms or items.

      2.2.4   *Mime.* The sender adopts the non-verbal strategies.

From the four major proposed communication strategies, it can be concluded in the following table.

Table 1. Conclusion of Four Proposed Communication Strategies

	Tarone, Cohen & Dumas	Corder	Færch & Kasper	Tarone	Total
1. Transfer from the native language	✓		✓	✓	3
2. Overgeneralization	✓		✓		2
3. Prefabricated pattern	✓				1
4. Overelaboration	✓		✓		2
5. Epenthesis	✓				1
6. Topic avoidance	✓	✓	✓	✓	4
7. Semantic avoidance	✓	✓	✓		3
8. Appeal to authority	✓	✓	✓	✓	4
9. Paraphrase/circumlocution/ generalization	✓		✓	✓	3
10. Message abandonment	✓	✓	✓	✓	4
11. Language switch	✓	✓	✓	✓	4
12. Message reduction		✓	✓		2
13. Borrowing		✓			1
14. Nonlinguistic device		✓	✓	✓	3
15. Word coinage			✓	✓	2
16. Retrieval			✓		1

From the table above, it can be concluded by the agreements of strategies adopted by the four proposed communication strategies and rearranged in the frequency of agreements among four proposed strategies.

Table 2. Communication Strategies Organized by Frequency of Agreements in the Proposed Strategies

	Frequency of Agreements
1.　Topic avoidance	4
2.　Appeal to authority	4
3.　Message abandonment	4
4.　Language switch	4
5.　Transfer from the native language	3
6.　Semantic avoidance	3
7.　Paraphrase/circumlocution/generalization	3
8.　Nonlinguistic device	3
9.　Overgeneralization	2
10.　Overelaboration	2
11.　Message reduction	2
12.　Word coinage	2
13.　Prefabricated pattern	1
14.　Epenthesis	1
15.　Borrowing	1
16.　Retrieval	1

2.4　RELATED REPORTS AND STUDIES

A few studies related to written business communication and English for business purposes have been conducted in Thailand.

Nuntaporn Hutyamanivudhi (2001) analyzed and investigated types of errors in the draft and backup business correspondence produced during one construction project of the Italian-Thai Development Public Company Limited. Her study identified four major types of errors.

1.　Grammatical morphemes

2.　Syntax

3. Lexicon

4. Orthography

She also found that transfer strategies and overgeneralization were the major sources of errors.

Sivaporn Keowsangk (2003) investigated the degree of difference in term of level of the awareness of the importance of English used in business between businesspersons and business students. Discrepancies of the awareness between the two groups were identified. Besides, the use of the English communication skills was also noted as different.

Several studies directed at the communication strategies are available. However, most of them aim at the communication strategies adopted by students.

Kwanhathai Chirdchoo (ขวัญหทัย เชิดชู, 2545) investigated the use of communication strategies in speaking English and compared the use of and behavior in using the communication strategies affected by English proficiency and communicative tasks of the first year students in the English program in Rajabhat Institute Phetchaburi. Students were found to use modification devised strategies most. Students with different levels of English proficiency were also found to apply different strategies to achieve different communicative tasks.

Jidanan Lertsuwan (2007) investigated students' communication strategies. She found that students used code switching, transliteration, indirect appeal for help and self repetition the most.

Chatsarut Malayamonton (ฉัตรศรุต มาลยมณฑล, 2541) studied the communication strategies in English essay writing of high school students and found that students adopted the following communication strategies in their writings.

1. Simplification (52.34%)

2. Overgeneralization (16.03%)

3. Incorrect word selection (11.33%)
4. Literal translation (9.16%)
5. Overelaboration (6.12%)
6. Prefabricated pattern (5.02%)

Daranee Suwanwaree (ดารณี สุวรรณวารี, 2550) studied and compared the oral communication strategies employed by Matthayomsuksa six students at U-Thong school. Students were found to use knowledge-based communication strategies, repetition communication strategies and paralinguistic communication strategies the most. The study also found that students with different English proficiency applied communication strategies differently.

Napaporn Ngamwilaipong (2003) studied the communication strategies in writing among students. She identified two major strategies adopted by students. They are literal translation and approximation.

Maneenun Rhurakvit (มานีนันท์ หรูรักวิทย์, 2547) studied the negative transfer and the communication strategies among Thammasat University students and found students adopted five strategies in their writings.
1. Transfer strategies (17 errors)
2. Simplification (13 errors)
3. Overgeneralization (11 errors)
4. Literal translation (11 errors)
5. Overelaboration (4 erroros)

La-ortip Weerarak (2003) explored types of communication strategies and examined the frequency and the relationship of communication strategies students used with different speaking abilities. The finding revealed that students applied modification, target language-based strategies, nonlinguistic strategies, L1-based strategy and avoidance strategy. Students with less proficiency applied more communication strategies than those with better proficiency.

Wanna Charoenchang (1991) investigated communication strategies used by non-native students and native instructors in the classroom. Students were found to use reduction and code-switching the most while native instructors used paraphrasing, repetition and non-verbal communication the most.

Siriporn Nimtiparat (1993) experimented with the use of communication strategies in developing language competence and students' attitude toward communication strategies. The study found that students developed their strategic competence in speaking through the use of communication strategies. The students also expressed positive attitudes towards the use of communication strategies.

Amornrat Luangsaengthong (อมรรัตน์ เหลืองแสงทอง, 2545) investigated the use of communication strategies for oral communication strategies of first year students and compared the use of communication strategies of students with different English learning achievements. She found that students used approximation the most (28.19%), followed by repetition (19.45%). Students with different learning achievements applied communication strategies differently.

Amarawadee Onnual (2007) investigated the use of communication strategies among couples in cross-cultural marriages and described the frequency of the use. She found that all communication strategies were used except message abandonment and adjacency pairs. The most frequently used strategy was the appeal for assistance.

Anchalee Wannarak (อัญชลี วรรณรักษ์, 2544) studied the use of communication strategies among students at Sranaree University. Modification device was found to be used the most frequently. Students with different proficiency were found to adopt different communication strategies.

Inthira Namaungraks (อินทิรา นาเมืองรักษ์, 2542) studied the communication strategies in English conversation of high school students. She identified 15 types of communication strategies adopted by the students.

1. Transfer strategies (24.75%)
2. Simplification (17.37%)
3. Risk-taking strategies (7.99%)
4. Overgeneralization (7.99%)
5. Incorrect word selection (7.78%)
6. Reduplication (5.39%)
7. Repetition (4.79%)
8. Prefabricated pattern (4.59%)
9. Overelaboration (4.59%)
10. Cooperative strategies (3.79%)
11. Parallel structure (3.39%)
12. Self-repair (2.79%)
13. Message reduction (2.59%)
14. Message abandonment (1.60%)
15. Imitation (0.60%)

Though the samples for the studies were not students, the following two studies aim at a specific occupation group whose language facilities were presumed to be low.

Niphaporn Laothienchai (นิภาพร เล่าเทียนไชย, 2547) explored the characteristics of English employed by Thai street vendors in Patpong area and identified the use of communication strategies. The study revealed that street vendors tended to use simple words and constructions, under use or omit of auxiliary verbs, apply code-mixing, lack agreement, and lack subject pronouns. The vendors applied communication strategies: code-mixing, simplification, asking for assistance, non-linguistic strategy, topic avoidance, repetition, inter/intralingual transfer, transfer from the native language, and literal translation.

Supanya Chomjinda (สุปัญญา ชมจินดา, 1995) studied the communication strategies of street vendors around Khaosarn Road in their attempt to sell products. She has identified 11 communication strategies adopted by the street vendors.

1. Transfer strategies (29.86%)
2. Incorrect word selection (17.48%)
3. Parallel structure (11.17%)
4. Message adjustment strategies (8.98%)
5. Repetition (8.98%)
6. Risk-taking strategies (8.01%)
7. Overgeneralization (5.34%)
8. Imitation (3.88%)
9. Reduplication (2.91%)
10. Self-repair (2.67%)
11. Avoidance strategies (0.73%)

The following studies were conducted in relations to occupation/profession. Though they are not aimed to study the communication strategies, their perspectives on the use of English to communicate in their populations' occupation/profession is noteworthy.

Chantanee Rakthamying (ฉันทณี รักธรรมยิ่ง, 2538) studied the code-mixing of Thai and English among physicians and found that physicians adopted more code-mixing during their communication with interlocutors of the same professions. The code-mixing was also identified to be medical technical terms.

Suthira Wongpanichcharoen (สุทธิรา ว่องพานิชย์เจริญ, 2540) studied the FM radio announcers in their use of English mixture in Thai. The announcers were found to mix technical terms with common word by way of clipping, partial transliteration, and complete transliteration. The announcers who did monologue program on economics were found to use code-mixing most frequently.

Pattaraporn Hiranpat (ภัทรพร หิรัญภัทร์, 2547) surveyed the English learning and the use of English among female employees of entertainment establishments in Patpong. The results indicated that these employees produced grammatically mistakes in all parts of speech, created grammatically incorrect sentences and adopted the

wrong vocabulary. The study also found significant differences in the English competence among employees with different years of work experience. Those with more work experience used better English than those with less work experience.

The review of literature on communication provided the underlying importance of effective communication while the review of the development of negative message provided the baseline for the writing style and the development of effective messages. Several theories related to communication strategies were also reviewed, which provided theoretical guidelines for the study. Reports and studies related to business writings, communication strategies, and English for careers were also looked into, which emphasized the need of the study on communication strategies among Thai professional.