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“Relationships between Lexical Compensatory Strategy Use and Productive Vocabulary Knowledge in the Acquisition Process of English as a Second Language”

Informe final de Seminario para optar al grado de Licenciado en Lingüística y Literatura Inglesas

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ABSTRACT

The present quantitative study focuses on exploring the relationships between the use of oral compensatory lexical strategies, and the productive size of vocabulary knowledge of pre-intermediate and intermediate Chilean English language learners. The specific objectives were, on the one hand, to measure the participants' size of productive English vocabulary knowledge and to identify the use of lexical compensatory strategies. On the other hand, to compare productive vocabulary knowledge and lexical compensatory strategies in the two groups of students. The data were collected by means of two instruments: two Productive Vocabulary Level Tests (Laufer & Nation,1999) (3,000 and 5,000 words). The data for the lexical compensatory strategies were obtained by means of an oral production task, which was designed by the research group, based on Poulisse's proposals (1990). The participants of the study were 12 second-semester and 14 fourth-semester undergraduate students of the four-year BA program of English Linguistics and Literature at Universidad de Chile. The results of the data analysis were statistically processed by means of statistical methods. Correlation coefficients (Pearson & Spearman) were calculated to identify relationships between the variables.

KEYWORDS: lexical compensatory strategies, size of productive vocabulary knowledge, second language acquisition, vocabulary acquisition

1. INTRODUCTION

Second language learning is a complex and multifactorial process; in fact, learning contexts and learners' features are some of the aspects that have been analysed in the field of second language acquisition (SLA) studies. Authors like Saville-Troike and Barto (2016) acknowledge the complex nature of such a process, and state that in order to understand it, researchers should attempt to answer questions concerning, for example, the learners' knowledge of the second language and the way they acquire this knowledge. In this regard, L2 lexical knowledge has become the focus of numerous research studies mainly due to the essential role it plays in developing second language proficiency (Qian & Lin, 2020). Nonetheless, vocabulary studies have been relatively neglected with only some limited research studies that principally concentrated on the construct of vocabulary from a pedagogical perspective (Webb, 2020) Undoubtedly, authors like Paul Nation and Norbert Schmitt have contributed immensely to the study of second language vocabulary knowledge, especially, in terms of concepts and methodologies to measure this construct. Another important contribution in the field was the publication of John Read's book *Assessing Vocabulary* in 2000, which presents a collection of perspectives and methodologies used to measure the multifaceted construct of lexical knowledge in L2 (Webb, 2020). Thus, we can observe that the vocabulary dimensions of breadth and depth have been especially used in various studies to determine the amount and quality of L2 words that learners know (Milton & Fitzpatrick, 2014). Researchers like Laufer and Nation (1999) and Schmitt, Schmitt and Clapham (2001) have designed useful instruments to measure lexical receptive and productive knowledge. Concerning productive size of vocabulary knowledge tests, Coxhead, Nation and Sim (2015) state

that the purpose of this type of instrument is to “evaluate the kind of knowledge needed for speaking and writing, so it measures whether learners can provide a word form to express a meaning” (p. 2). In general terms, the results obtained in L2 vocabulary size assessment may give an account of the development of the learners’ lexical knowledge acquisition. Such an account may be useful for pedagogical purposes since teachers may obtain genuine information about their students’ progress, and consequently they may select contents and plan activities that solidify and improve the students’ lexical knowledge. As mentioned above, lexical knowledge contributes greatly to the development of L2 proficiency and therefore it is related to language skills: reading, writing, listening and speaking (Schmitt, 2017). As a matter of fact, Nation (2006) argues that effective reading comprehension in a second language is closely linked to the number of words that readers know.

According to Webb (2020), most of the studies that tackle the relationship between skills and lexical knowledge focus on reading mainly because it is easy to find or build written corpus. Research work on speaking skills is scarce since spoken corpus is not often available and also because there are many variables to consider. As can be seen, L2 speaking competence is difficult to analyse, and according to Goh (2016) the acquisition of such competence is considered especially complicated since it comprises the interaction between diverse cognitive, articulatory and social processes. In the L2 acquisition process, learners may often find difficulties to convey their messages appropriately, especially, if they do not know a word in the target language; in that case, they may resort to communication strategies (Poulisse, 1990; Dörnyei & Scott, 1997; Goh & Burns, 2012). The study of communication strategies does not have a long tradition;

nevertheless, diverse researchers have been interested in this topic. They have proposed different concepts and taxonomies to define and analyse strategies, although, there is no agreement on one single concept and methodology (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997). In this regard, Poulisse (1990) provides an interesting attempt to conceptualise and describe strategies produced by L2 learners in oral communication. This researcher describes strategies that compensate for the learners' lack of vocabulary in the L2 as *compensatory strategies*. In order to give an account of these strategies she proposes a taxonomy based on two kinds of knowledge that learners resort to when they do not know a word in L2, conceptual and linguistic knowledge. Poulisses's taxonomy was inspired in her previous research work as a member of the Nijmegen Group in collaboration with Theo Bongaerts and Eric Kellerman (Poulisse, 1990).

In her 1990 study, Poulisse intended to analyse lexical compensatory strategies that speakers use to solve lexical problems they may encounter when they try to communicate their ideas. One of the reasons to conduct this research work was the importance that lexical knowledge has in communication. In fact, Poulisse remarks that "(...) without knowledge of (at least a few of) the words of a language it is impossible to communicate in it, however large one's knowledge of the grammar of that language may be" (p. 12). Another important reason lies in the information she collected from participants in some previous research work. Therein, the students acknowledged that their main problem to communicate appropriately was lexical knowledge in L2.

Regarding the effect that vocabulary knowledge has on the development of L2 proficiency, the present study focuses on the lexical acquisition process of pre-intermediate and intermediate university students of English as a foreign language. The

objective of the present research work is to find possible relationships between the participants' use of lexical compensatory strategies in one oral task and their productive size of English vocabulary knowledge. For this purpose, a cross-sectional, quantitative research was proposed, planned and developed. The data was collected by using an oral task created by the members of the research group and the supervisors, and two productive size vocabulary knowledge tests (Laufer & Nation, 1999).

The present research has been organised into six chapters. The first Chapter consists of the introduction to the study. The following chapter, Chapter 2, includes the objectives and research questions of the research work. In Chapter 3, the theoretical-descriptive framework is presented, where approaches and proposals provided by several authors are considered. The fourth Chapter presents details about the participants, the instruments used, along with the data collection procedures and data processing. Chapter 5 contains the presentation and analysis of the results. Chapter 6 presents the conclusions of the study, which also include the limitations and recommendations for future research.

2. OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

2.1. General Objective

To explore relationships between the use of compensatory lexical strategies and the productive size of English vocabulary knowledge of pre-intermediate and intermediate students of English as a second language.

2.2. Specific Objectives

2.2.1. To identify the participants' use of lexical compensatory strategies in the completion of an oral task.

2.2.2. To measure the students' productive size of vocabulary knowledge.

2.2.3. To compare the use of lexical compensatory strategies used by pre-intermediate and intermediate participants.

2.2.4. To compare the participants' productive size of vocabulary knowledge.

2.2.5. To identify relationships between the participants' use of lexical compensatory strategies and their productive size of vocabulary knowledge.

2.3. Research Questions

2.3.1. What categories of lexical compensatory strategies are used by pre-intermediate and intermediate students in the completion of one oral task?

2.3.2. What is the productive size of vocabulary knowledge of pre-intermediate and intermediate students like?

2.3.3. How does pre-intermediate students' use of lexical compensatory strategies compare to intermediate students' use of lexical compensatory strategies?

2.3.4. How does pre-intermediate students' productive size of vocabulary knowledge compare to intermediate students' productive size of vocabulary knowledge?

2.3.5. Are there any relationships between pre-intermediate and intermediate students' use of lexical compensatory strategies and their productive size of vocabulary knowledge?

3. THEORETICAL-DESCRIPTIVE FRAMEWORK

3.1. Deconstructing Vocabulary Knowledge

In second language vocabulary acquisition research, the concept of 'word knowledge' is a complex and difficult object of study. Therefore, experts have used different approaches to try to characterise it. Milton and Fitzpatrick (2014) describe three approaches to word knowledge. First, they deal with 'the component approach', which intends to identify different aspects of knowing a word and to contrast them. Second, they define 'the developmental approach', that tries to characterise the components of word knowledge that learners acquire at different stages of the acquisition process. Third, they mention 'the metaphorical approach', which implies that word knowledge cannot be easily dealt with or measured; thus, sometimes it is better to use metaphors to characterise it.

3.1.1. Component Approaches to Word Knowledge

3.1.1.1. Spoken Form, Written Form and Meaning

Milton and Fitzpatrick (2014) state that an early attempt to deal with word knowledge was made by Aristotle in the fourth century BC. He showed interest in making a distinction "between thought, usually articulated in words, and the reality the thought and words represent." (p. 2). In addition, Aristotle wanted to make clear the relationship between thought and words. He described four fundamental components: (1) real-world things, (2) impressions (or the ideas and concepts of those things), (3) spoken signs, and (4) written signs. Thus, knowing a word can mean being acquainted with its spoken and written forms. Concerning the teaching of languages, a distinction is frequently made between the skills of reading and writing and the skills of listening and speaking.

Nevertheless, in vocabulary knowledge studies, such distinction is absent. Therefore, it is often assumed that if a learner knows a word, he/she would know the spoken and the written forms.

Finally, Aristotle also proposed a distinction between the form of a word and the meaning or concept it represents. This proposal is similar to de Saussure's distinction between the significant and its signifier and the idea that language is a representation of reality and not part of reality.

3.1.1.2. Receptive and Productive Word Knowledge

Milton and Fitzpatrick (2014) assert that in spite of advances in linguistics in Western Europe, Aristotle's proposals about a spoken and a written form and an underlying meaning were not further developed. Nevertheless, with modern linguistics, new ideas developed. Palmer (1921) distinguishes between being able to recognize a word with the support of other words for context and being able to use it in speech or writing, which involves being able to retrieve the word spontaneously for production. This proposal leads to the distinction between receptive and productive vocabulary knowledge, which has proved to be useful in the context of language assessment when learners are given different tests in order to measure their vocabulary knowledge.

3.1.1.3. Lists of Word Knowledge

Milton and Fitzpatrick (2014) assert that simple models of word knowledge have nowadays become complex because they include several components or factors which should be present in a definition of word knowledge. The first modern list of word

knowledge components is the one proposed by Cronbach in 1942. He proposes five factors: (1) generalisation, which refers to the word's definition; (2) application, which has to do with the correct use of a word; (3) breadth of meaning, i.e., the appreciation that a word can have several meanings; (4) precision of meaning, which refers to the appropriate use of those meanings in different contexts of use; (5) availability, which has to do with the productive use of word knowledge. Later, in 1976, Richards developed this list further and expanded it to eight assumptions about vocabulary knowledge.

Next, Milton and Fitzpatrick (2014) describe and discuss Nation's (2001) contribution to word knowledge analysis. Nation's proposal is the latest and most comprehensive word knowledge framework. He organises word knowledge into three broad aspects: knowledge of form, knowledge of meaning, and knowledge of use. The different word components involve a total of eighteen different aspects in the form of questions (as seen in Table 1).

Table 1. *What is Involved in Knowing a Word?*

Form	Spoken	R	What does the word sound like?
		P	How is the word pronounced?
	Written	R	What does the word look like?
		P	How is the word written and spelled?
	Word parts	R	What parts are recognizable in this word?
		P	What word parts are needed to express this meaning?
Meaning	Form and meaning	R	What meaning does this word form signal?
		P	What word form can be used to express this meaning?
	Concept and referents	R	What is included in the concept?
		P	What items can the concept refer to?
	Associations	R	What other words does this make us think of?
		P	What other words could we use instead of this one?
Use	Grammatical functions	R	In what patterns does the word occur?
		P	In what patterns must we use this word?
	Collocations	R	What words or types of words occur with this one?
		P	What words or types of words must we use with this one?
	Constraints on use (register, frequency...)	R	Where, when, and how often would we expect to meet this word?
		P	Where, when, and how often can we use this word?

Note. (Nation, 2001, p. 27), R = receptive knowledge, P = productive knowledge.

Nation (2001) includes a distinction between receptive (R) and productive language (P), which can be observed in the figure, and which is related to different aspects of language knowledge and use. More specifically, when this distinction refers to vocabulary, the receptive and productive terms are related to all the features involved in knowing a word.

3.1.1.4. Dimensions of Word Knowledge

Anderson and Freebody (1981, as cited in Milton & Fitzpatrick, 2014) state that it might be possible to suggest a small number of broad categories for word knowledge. Thus, they propose the dimensions of breadth and depth of word knowledge. Breadth refers to the number of words that a learner possesses, whereas depth is the knowledge a learner has of those words. Milton and Fitzpatrick (2014) think that this distinction can be useful to distinguish those learners who may know a lot of words but are incapable of appropriately using them, from the learners who have learned words and how to use them in different contexts. However, these experts think that the distinction between breadth and depth may be difficult to situate in Nation's (2001) list of word knowledge components because some aspects could be placed in both dimensions of vocabulary knowledge.

Finally, Milton and Fitzpatrick refer to Meara's (1996, as cited in Milton & Fitzpatrick, 2014) proposal concerning another dimension of vocabulary knowledge apart from breadth and depth. These two dimensions are contrasted with the ease with which a word can be accessed. This new dimension was called 'the fluency of knowledge' dimension by (Daller, Milton & Treffers-Daller, 2007). This framework constituted by three dimensions facilitates the distinction "between learners who know lots of words and lots about them but struggle to use them (declarative knowledge), and learners who can quickly and naturally activate this knowledge for communication (procedural knowledge)" (Milton & Fitzpatrick, 2014, p. 7).

3.1.2. Developmental Approaches to Word Knowledge

It may be expected that developmental approaches would tend to rely on component or dimensions approaches because, as stated by Milton and Fitzpatrick (2014), some word knowledge components tend to precede others. For example, collocation or association knowledge occurs once knowledge of form has been acquired. Besides, Melka (1997, as cited in Milton & Fitzpatrick 2014, p. 8), has claimed that receptive and productive knowledge are developmental stages in the acquisition process and qualitatively different aspects of word knowledge.

In spite of the fact that component and developmental approaches are related, they are described in different terms, according to Milton and Fitzpatrick (2014). However, these researchers state that it is possible to infer how developmental stages are related to the componential aspects of vocabulary knowledge in frameworks such as Nation's (2001). Along these lines, Milton and Fitzpatrick refer to Dale (1965), who suggests a four-stage developmental model in which learners can place test words within one of the following categories:

> "Stage 1: I never saw the word before
>
> Stage 2: I've heard the word but I don't know what it means
>
> Stage 3: I recognize the word in context, it has something to do with ___
>
> Stage 4: I know the word"
>
> Dale (1965, as cited in Milton & Fitzpatrick, 2014. p. 8).

In Dale's model, it is implied that recognition of form is required for the development of other aspects of word knowledge, such as the link to meaning. Milton and Fitzpatrick (2014) suggest that if it could be proved empirically that learners go through these stages, the difference between breadth and depth could be clarified. Thus, the breadth dimension could be regarded as the number of words that can be recognized, and the depth dimension as "the degree to which the form can be linked to meaning in all its many aspects". (Milton & Fitzpatrick, 2014, p. 8).

Paribakht and Wesche (1993) also propose a model of developmental word knowledge, the Vocabulary Knowledge Scale consisting of five stages:

"Stage 1: The word is not familiar at all

Stage 2: The word is familiar but the meaning is not known

Stage 3: A correct synonym or translation is given

Stage 4: The word is used with semantic appropriateness in a sentence

Stage 5: The word is used with semantic appropriateness and grammatical accuracy"

Paribakht and Wesche (1993, as cited in Milton & Fitzpatrick, 2014, p. 8).

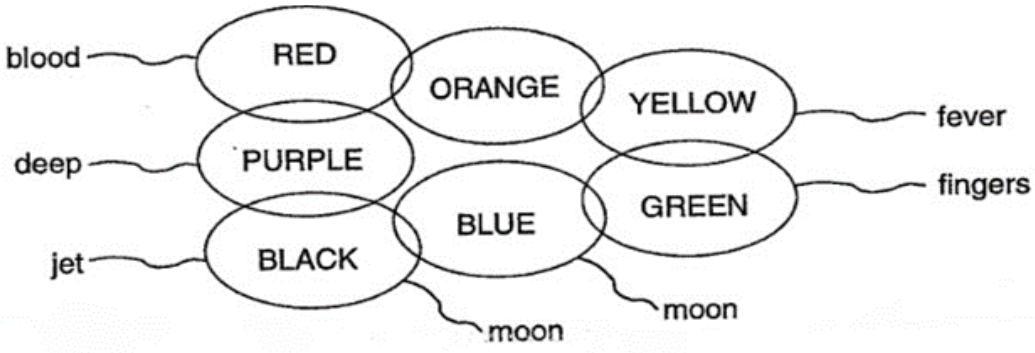
Milton and Fitzpatrick point out that this model includes stages that occur beyond form recognition and the relation to meaning; thus, it suggests that knowledge of word use and appreciation of semantic appropriateness of words and their grammatical functions are acquired late. Besides, this scale implies that Nation's framework can be

considered to be a developmental model and also a component list as “knowledge of form precedes knowledge of meaning, which precedes knowledge of use”. (Milton & Fitzpatrick, 2014, p. 9).

3.1.3. Metaphorical Approaches to Word Knowledge

Metaphors are often used to describe aspects of word knowledge that appear too abstract to give a concrete description. For instance, Daller et al. (2007) use the metaphor “the lexical space” to refer to the dimensions of breadth, depth, and fluency. It is drawn as a cube where each dimension can function and develop independently of the others. This space metaphor is useful to distinguish learners with different vocabulary knowledge and to place them separately within this common environment. Milton and Fitzpatrick point out that there is no real space since the dimensions cannot work individually. Another metaphor is ‘the web of words’ proposed by Aitchinson (1987, as cited in Milton & Fitzpatrick, 2014, p. 10), which is used to characterise the depth of vocabulary knowledge and the way in which words interact among them. (See Figure 1)

Figure 1. *Strong Links in the Word Web*



Note. (Aitchison, 2003, p. 94, as cited in Milton & Fitzpatrick, 2014, p 10).

3.2. Some Key Issues in Researching Vocabulary

Schmitt (2010) is an important source of information on research done in the field of vocabulary use and acquisition. He states that this research has mainly centred on the nature of vocabulary and on how it is used. He also points out that studies have intended to improve the vocabulary acquisition process of learners of English as a second/foreign language. Thus, he deals with issues researchers have to bear in mind when they are planning research on vocabulary.

One of the issues Schmitt (2010) describes is the notion that vocabulary is a crucial component of language use. At this point, he quotes Wilkins (1972, as cited in Schmitt, 2010, p. 3): “Without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed”. At present, applied linguists, teachers, and learners are well aware that learning vocabulary is crucial in the acquisition of a second language. Empirical evidence has been extensively provided by researchers in the field. Schmitt (2010) mentions that research findings have shown there is a high correlation between vocabulary and various measures of language proficiency. An interesting example of such studies is one reported by Alderson (2005, as cited in Schmitt, 2010, p. 4). Alderson (2005) and Meara were interested in exploring possible relationships between vocabulary knowledge and language proficiency. Their findings show that vocabulary has a “strong relationship with the language skills” (Schmitt, 2010, p.4). Thus, the vocabulary test scores in the study correlated with reading, listening, writing and grammar test scores.

A second issue discussed by Schmitt is that a large vocabulary is required for language use. He refers to research focused on how large a native speaker’s vocabulary

size is and he mentions that although he says that “reliable estimates are 16,000-to-20,000-word families for the size of educated English native speakers” (2010, p. 6). Concerning language learners, Schmitt affirms that they do not need to acquire native-like vocabulary size. Instead, they will require a reasonable amount of vocabulary to carry out their communicative aims; for instance, Nation (2001, as cited in Schmitt, 2010) calculates that 6,000-7,000-word families are necessary to hold an informal everyday conversation.

The third issue presented by Schmitt is that vocabulary knowledge is a rich and complex construct. Therefore, a person has to have a large size of vocabulary knowledge. Size or breadth of lexical knowledge refers to the number of words somebody knows “for which the person knows at least some of the significant aspects of meaning” (Anderson & Freebody, 1981, as cited in Schmitt, 2010, p. 15). In addition, a person needs to acquire knowledge about individual lexical items in order to appropriately use them in different contexts. This kind of knowledge is called quality or depth of vocabulary. It should be mentioned that both kinds of vocabulary knowledge, i.e., size and depth, have equal importance.

Regarding the concept of depth of vocabulary knowledge, Schmitt deals with different ways in which it has been explained. One developmental conceptualization describes it as “overall proficiency with a word, going from no knowledge at all to complete mastery” (Read, 2000, as cited in Schmitt, 2010, p. 16). In order to measure depth conceived in this way, scales have been used which include different stages ranging from ‘no knowledge’ to ‘appropriate and accurate mastery’ of a word. Another way in which

depth has been conceptualised is by adopting a component or dimensions approach which focuses on its separate components.

Nation (2001) proposes “the best specification of the range of ‘word knowledge’ aspects to date.” (Schmitt, 2010, p. 16), as he makes a distinction between receptive and productive vocabulary knowledge; besides, he includes spoken form, written form, grammatical patterns, collocations, frequency, appropriateness (register), meaning and associations. The different components of word knowledge proposed by Nation (2001) are useful in the teaching of vocabulary and in doing research on vocabulary. Concerning teaching, some components of vocabulary knowledge are not difficult to learn, e.g., word meaning and word form, whereas there are more contextualised elements, e.g., collocations, that are difficult to teach; therefore, their acquisition would necessarily involve a significant exposure to the second language. Similarly, in doing research, some aspects of word knowledge are relatively easy to measure, e.g., written form, meaning, but some are difficult, e.g., collocation.

Next, Schmitt (2010) states that another form of mastering lexical items is related to the automaticity in their recognition and production. Measures of automaticity are often used in psycholinguistic experiments, often related to aspects such as, the influence of the L1 on L2 processing, and where vocabulary was just a linguistic element to measure. Automaticity measures have been used in general vocabulary research since the beginning of the present century, e.g., Siyanova and Schmitt (2008). It has to be borne in mind that the mind has limited cognitive resources; therefore, the “more automatic some word knowledge aspects are, the more resources can be given to other aspects” (Schmitt, 2010, p. 18).

Another issue concerning vocabulary is that vocabulary learning is incremental in nature, both in terms of vocabulary size and aspects of individual lexical items, i.e., depth of vocabulary knowledge. Schmitt claims that vocabulary acquisition is incremental in several ways. First, lexical knowledge is constituted by different components of word knowledge that are gradually acquired. Second, “each word knowledge aspect may develop along a cline” (Schmitt, 2010, p. 22); therefore, learning the individual word knowledge aspects is also incremental. Third, each word knowledge component can vary in terms of the degree of receptive or productive mastery. Schmitt remarks that all these aspects of the vocabulary acquisition process show that word learning is a complicated, but gradual process (2010).

Next, Schmitt deals with the issue that vocabulary form is important. Learning of a lexical item is often understood as learning its meaning. This is a relevant initial step, but learning meaning necessarily involves the development of a link between form and meaning. This link is “the minimum specification for knowing a word” (Schmitt, 2010, p. 24). If for a learner a lexical form is familiar, but its meaning is not known, this does not have any communicative use. In the same way, if a learner is acquainted with a certain meaning, but not with the corresponding form, the item cannot be recognized or produced. Schmitt (2010) adds that most vocabulary teaching materials aim at teaching this form-meaning link and that most vocabulary tests also tend to measure it. Finally, this author discusses one common assumption which has to do with the idea that meaning is the key component of this link. He claims that research on vocabulary acquisition has clearly shown that L2 learners often have problems with the word form. Therefore, formal aspects of vocabulary should be studied in second language vocabulary research.

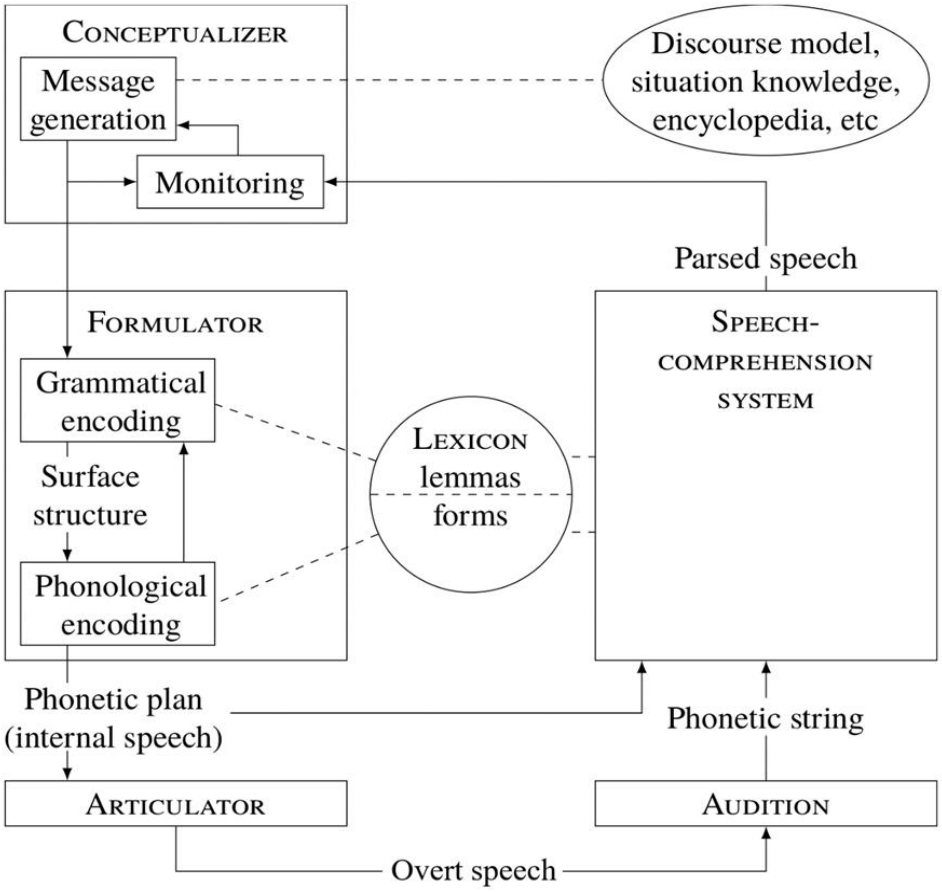
Finally, Schmitt (2010) deals with the issue of recognizing the importance of the L1 in vocabulary studies. Research has shown that the L1 strongly influences the learning and use of L2 vocabulary in various ways. For instance, some studies on lexical errors have found that a quarter of them could be caused by the L1. In addition, it should be mentioned that learners of a second language often use their L1 when learning an L2. Schmitt (2010) states that probably the best evidence for L1 influence comes from psycholinguistic research which has shown that the L1 is active during L2 lexical processing in both beginning and more advanced learners (e.g., Jiang, 2002; Sunderman & Kroll, 2006; as cited in Schmitt, 2010). It should be added that the L1 is also active while learners try to access second language vocabulary. It is necessary to take this influence into consideration in vocabulary research. It is important for the selection of target language vocabulary and of measurement formats.

3.3. Compensatory Strategies

In the field of second language acquisition studies, communication strategies have been examined by different researchers. As a result, we can see multiple concepts and taxonomies that contribute to the analysis of these types of strategies. In that regard, Poulisse (1990) considers that speakers who have a limited command in L2 may resort to reduction strategies that allow them to abandon their original communicative purpose. On the other hand, speakers may also use compensatory strategies to make up for their linguistic limitations in the L2. Poulisse (1990) concentrated on the study of the different schemes that speakers use when they do not know the correct words to complete their message. i.e., compensatory strategies. In order to analyse and classify this type of strategies she proposed a taxonomy that is embedded in Levelt's (1989) model of

communication. This model considers the relationship between the addressor and the addressee but more importantly it highlights the role of the addressee in the communication process. Likewise, this model includes a monitor device that evaluates the message comprehension in different stages of the speech production. Levelt's model comprises four main steps in the speech production, message generation, grammatical encoding, phonological encoding and articulation. "These steps are covered by three processing components, the conceptualizer, the formulator, and the articulator" (Levelt, 1989, as cited in Poulisse, 1990, p. 55). See Figure 2.

Figure 2. *Model of Speech Production.*



Note. (Levelt, 1989).

As stated by Levelt (1989), these three processing components have specific functions in the communication process. The conceptualizer enables the message generation, and it includes the planning of the content (macroplanning) and the planning of the form of the message (microplanning) that contains the choice of the speech act in accordance with the communicative intentions of the speaker. Three factors have a central role in the message generation, i) the knowledge of what has previously been said in a conversation; ii) the knowledge of the spatio-temporal environment; and iii) the speaker's knowledge of the world. Likewise, the conceptualizer holds a monitor that allows the speakers to adjust the conceptualization process.

The formulator processes the pre-verbal message that was generated in the conceptualiser into a surface structure in the grammatical encoder. The next action consists of the phonological encoding in which this structure is translated into a phonetic plan to continue the message development. In order to generate a surface structure, the formulator accesses the mental lexicon where words are stored. Lexical items detail words' meanings and comprise syntactic, morphological, and phonological information about them as well. The grammatical encoder retrieves the required syntactic information to allocate the meaning of words onto grammatical functions. The phonological encoder produces a phonetic plan that is anchored in the morphological and phonological information included in the activated lexical items. This plan acts as input to the articulator. The articulator executes the plan step by step to finally attain overt speech. This serves as the input to the listener's speech reception process. It is important to mention that the speaker can evaluate the comprehensibility of the message by using the monitoring device. Hence, he or she can have a second chance to assess his or her message.

3.3.1. Poulisse's Taxonomy of Compensatory Strategies

Poulisse's (1990) taxonomy distinguishes two kinds of archistrategies, conceptual and linguistic strategies that speakers may resort to in order to compensate for their poor lexical knowledge in the L2 or Ln. According to Poulisse's (1990) proposal, speakers who produce conceptual strategies use the conceptual knowledge they have about a concept's features and its relations to other concepts. On the other hand, speakers who use linguistic strategies employ their linguistic knowledge of their mother tongue and the target language. Conceptual strategies include two subcategories, analytic strategies, that specify the attributes of a lexical item; and holistic strategies, which replace the target word by a related item. In fact, Poulisse (1990, p. 58) states that "… the speaker who uses a conceptual analytic strategy may refer to the target concept by listing (some of) its properties" Meanwhile, a speaker who uses a conceptual holistic strategy may refer to the target concept by using a superordinate, a subordinate or a coordinate related lexical item. Some examples are provided below:

> Participant 3: (pre-intermediate level) [Analytic strategy]: "An object used to make (.) to make sure that the hair is (.) isn't tangled". Target word: hairbrush.
>
> Participant 10: (pre-intermediate level) [Holistic strategy]: "like a mountain bike". Target word: bicycle.

Speakers who employ linguistic strategies use the knowledge they have of their L1 syntactic, morphological and phonological rules and their knowledge of some of these rules in the L2. In addition, they may use their knowledge of some of the differences and similarities between the L1 and the L2. Linguistic strategies comprise two subcategories,

morphological creativity and transfer strategies. Speakers who resort to the first subcategory of strategies may use the knowledge they have of L2 morphological derivations to generate a word that they reckon may be an L2 lexical item. In general terms, these 'lexical creations' are L2 lexical items to which L2 morphemes have been added. For example:

> Participant 2 (pre-intermediate level) [Morphological creativity]: " you use it uh (:) it has a screwer(.)" Target word: drill.

Transfer strategies consider the similarities between L1 and L2. This kind of strategies comprises borrowing, foreignizing and literal translation. Borrowing is described as the use of an L1 lexical item without any morphological or phonological adaptation. For example,

> Participant 7 (pre-intermediate) [Borrowing]: " Ocho (ehmm) this kind of tropical bird what is (.) it name? guacamayo maybe". Target word: parrot.

Foreignizing is defined as the use of an L1 or Ln lexical item with morphological and/or phonological adaptation. For example:

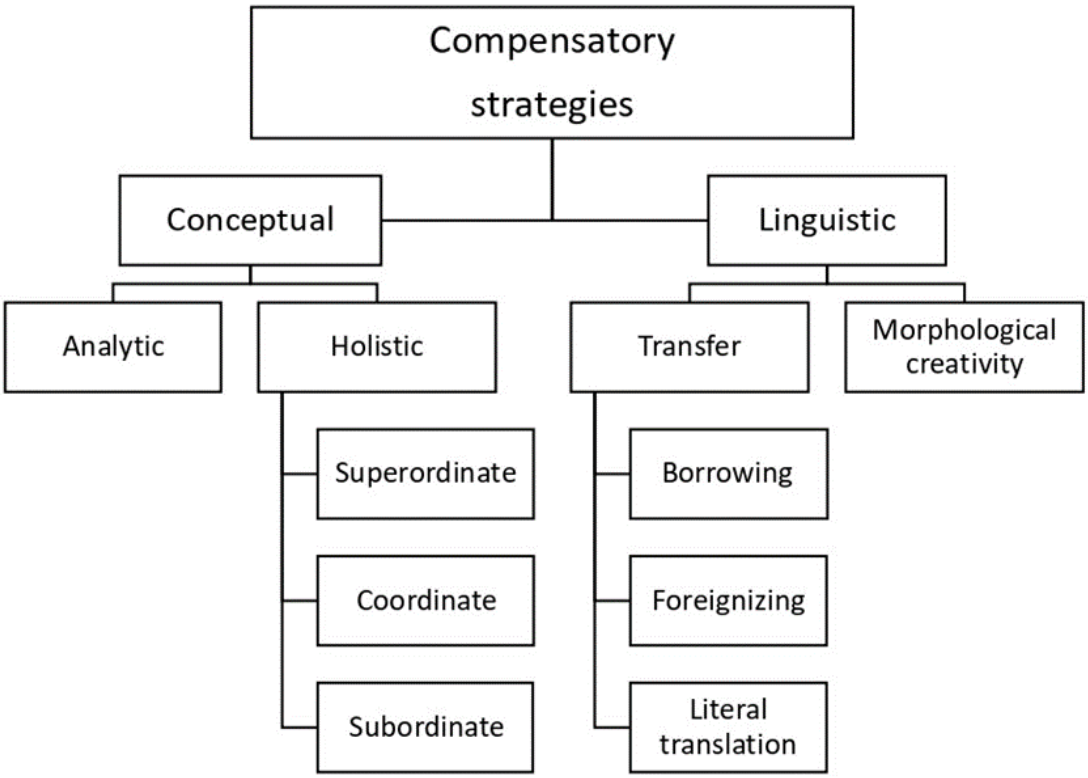
> Participant 6 (intermediate level) [Foreignizing]: "biciclete, I don't remember the exact word, but I think that is". Target word: bicycle.

Literal translation is defined as the word-by-word translation of an L1 or Ln word into the target language. For example:

Participant 8 (intermediate level) [Literal translation]: "a real turkey I don't know [the] exactly the name". Target word: peacock.

The organisation of the strategies is summarised in Figure 3.

Figure 3. *Taxonomy of compensatory strategies*



Note. (Poulisse, 1990).

3.3.2. Communicative Competence

The concept of communicative competence was proposed by the anthropological linguist Dell Hymes (1967, 1972) to contrast it to Chomsky's (1957, 1965) theories which focused on linguistic competence. Chomsky believed that the consideration of social factors would lie outside the field of linguistics. On the contrary, Hymes claimed that apart

from linguistic competence, it was necessary to consider sociolinguistic competence, i.e., the knowledge of the rules of use of a language to be able to appropriately use it in different contexts.

The concept of communicative competence proposed within applied linguistics has been very influential in second language pedagogy. The term 'communicative competence' has been present in second language teaching for about 40 years. During these years, building on the works of Hymes (1972) and other linguists, applied linguists have made various proposals to enrich the conceptualization of this notion, e.g., Brumfit (1984); Bachman (1990). Among these contributions, Canale's (1983) and Canale and Swain's (1980) can be said to be the framework that acquired the status of a central framework for English language teaching. One of the components of the concept of communicative competence is strategic competence, which includes the use of compensatory strategies, one of the variables of the present study.

Canale (1983) proposes a modular view of the concept of communicative competence. Thus, four areas of knowledge and skills are suggested:

i) Grammatical competence, which is concerned with the mastery of the language code (verbal and non-verbal). Therefore, features and rules of the language are included such as vocabulary, sentence formation, pronunciation, and spelling.

ii) Sociolinguistic competence includes sociocultural rules of use; therefore, this competence "addresses the extent to which utterances are produced and understood *appropriately* in different sociolinguistic contexts" (Canale 1983, p. 7). Some contextual factors are the status of participants and purposes of the

interaction. It is important to bear in mind that appropriateness of utterances refers both to meaning and form.

iii) Discourse competence is concerned with the knowledge and skill needed to combine grammatical forms and meanings to produce different types of unified spoken or written texts, e.g., oral and written narratives.

iv) Strategic competence refers to the "mastery of verbal and non-verbal communication strategies that may be called into action for two main reasons" (Canale, 1983, p. 11). One may be to make up for breakdowns in communication caused by conditions such as momentary inability to recall a word, an idea, or a grammatical form, or due to insufficient competence in one or more of the other areas above. The other reason refers to how communication can be enhanced, e.g., deliberately slow speech for rhetorical effect.

Canale (1983) describes discourse competence as the knowledge of and skill in combining linguistic elements to achieve a unified textual whole. Some experts perceived this component as being at a different level when compared to the other competences. Celce-Murcia (2007) had this perception and formulated "a more complex, but better integrated, model of communicative competence, which highlights this central role for discourse competence" (Flowerdew, 2013, p. 7). In her model, discourse competence is described as "the selection, sequencing, and arrangement of words, structures, and utterances to achieve a unified spoken message." (Celce-Murcia, 2007, p. 46) Here the other components of the model come together; thus, the linguistic levels, formulaic patterns and the sociocultural and interactional components are united to create coherent

text. Thus, discourse competence is a level above the other components in Celce-Murcia's model, a level which both incorporates and controls all of the other elements.

The other components of communicative competence in Celce-Murcias's (2007) model are described below:

i) Sociocultural competence refers to pragmatic knowledge, or how to communicate appropriately depending on the social and cultural context in which the communication is taking place. Here there are variables such as social contextual factors (age, gender, status, and relationships of the participants), stylistic appropriateness and cultural factors.

ii) Linguistic competence includes several areas of knowledge and skill: phonological (at a segmental and suprasegmental level), lexical, morphological, and syntactic knowledge.

iii) Formulaic Competence refers to knowledge of fixed and prefabricated chunks of language that speakers use in everyday conversations. Examples of formulaic language are collocations, idioms, lexical frames and routines (fixed phrases like "all of a sudden" and sequences like "How are you" "I'm fine, and you?").

iv) Interactional competence is described as the knowledge needed for a successful interaction. It has three sub-components: actional competence which refers to knowledge of how to perform common speech acts, or acts with specific purposes like future scenarios, expressing opinions, problems or feelings, etc. Another subcomponent is conversational competence, which refers to knowledge of the turn-taking system and other genres in dialogue, e.g., how to start a

conversation, how to change a topic, how to interrupt. This competence also includes a nonverbal/paralinguistic subcompetence, e.g., kinesics, proxemics, the role of silence and pauses.

v) Strategic competence involves strategies for language learning and use, which have been described as specific processes that learners engage in order to enhance their target language learning. These processes are learning strategies or communication strategies. On one hand, learning strategies can be cognitive, metacognitive or memory related. On the other hand, communication strategies are used when there is a problem in communication but also a desire to convey a message. This includes strategies such as: achievement (codeswitching, mimic), stalling or time gaining, self-monitoring, interacting (asking for help, confirmation checks), and social (searching for opportunities to use the target language).

3.3.3. The Speaking Skill

Goh (2016) provides a description of second language speaking in terms of the concept of speaking competence and the processes involved in speech production. She also provides information on research studies on speaking skills.

3.3.3.1. Speaking Competence

Goh (2016) states that it is necessary to understand what speaking involves if speaking instruction is considered. Speaking involves dynamic interactions of mental, articulatory, and social processes. To convey a message, “speakers need to determine what they want to say and use their linguistic knowledge to construct utterances and encode their message in sounds and sound patterns” (Goh, 2016, p. 145). These aspects

are necessary to be able to express the message they want to, and at the same time, to be understood by their listeners. Furthermore, it is important that speakers take into account the context of interaction they are in and engage their listeners in a socially appropriate manner.

Goh starts her discussion by dealing with a description of second language oral communication by Johnson (1981, as cited in Goh, 2016, p. 145), which she finds very important to bear in mind. Producing a conversation utterance is more complicated than just being grammatical since the utterance must be appropriate on various levels at the same time: it must fulfil the speaker's aim and conform to "the role relationships between the interactants; to the setting, topic, linguistic context, etc." (Goh, 2016, p. 145). The speaker must also produce his utterance within severe constraints due to the fact that he does not know in advance what will be said to him, which implies that he also does not know how he will respond to the utterance. "The rapid formulation of utterances which are simultaneously 'right' on several levels is central to the (spoken) communicative skill" (Goh, 2016, p. 145).

3.3.3.1.1. Enabling Skills

An important characteristic of competence is the ability to produce utterances that are grammatically accurate. However, accuracy by itself is insufficient because competent speakers need to use language for innumerable functions to achieve a range of communication goals. They need to decide the type of information and how much of it is needed, and to find productive ways to express their meaning, organise their speech and articulate the sounds that accompany their speech intelligibly.

Goh and Burns (2012) have organised speaking skills into four sets or clusters of skills that they consider appropriate for the learning and communication needs of learners. These skills are described below.

i) Pronunciation skills. Articulatory and phonological skills enable speakers to produce sounds at the segmental and suprasegmental levels. At the segmental level, “learners need to articulate discrete sounds such as vowels, consonants and diphthongs, and clusters of these sounds” (Goh, 2016, p. 146). In turn, the suprasegmental features are not only a reproduction of sentence stress patterns that show attitude or emotions. Instead, they have important communicative value and are produced in response to the real-time unfolding of meanings in discourse during an interaction.

ii) Speech function skills. Speech is used to perform speech acts, which means that spoken language is produced to get things done. In order to achieve this, speakers are required “to produce utterances that can convey desired communicative functions through a combination of appropriate language use, appropriate vocabulary choice and grammar.” (Goh, 2016, p. 146). Learners need to acquire basic language functions, e.g., inform, accept, decline, request, explain, and describe.

iii) Interaction management skills. Some speech functions are related to the ability to manage an interaction or control the flow of conversations. These functions include beginning an interaction, taking turns, giving turns, asking for clarification,

changing topics, and concluding a conversation. Due to cultural differences, language learners will “need to recognize their interlocutors' moves as well as creating moves and utterances in socioculturally acceptable ways” (Goh, 2016, p. 147).

iv) Discourse organisation skills. Most spoken encounters occur in situations where participants have equal or equivalent opportunities to speak. Language learners may be expected to generate longer pieces of speech, for instance, when giving a presentation, explaining, or describing methods, or telling an event or a story. Learners will require the ability to create these spoken texts in ways that are consistent with sociocultural conventions.

3.3.3.2. L2 Speaking Performance

Language learners can encounter challenges that might affect their speech fluency. Segalowitz (2010) proposed a multidisciplinary cognitive science framework that draws from neurocognitive science and social psychology of bilingualism to explain L2 speech performance. It provides an explanation for L2 speech performance in terms of the dynamic relationships among various factors that may exert demands on L2 learners' speech. “These are cognitive perceptual systems that underlie speech production, utterance fluency features (e.g., speech rate, hesitation, and pausing), motivation (e.g., willingness to communicate, beliefs, language and identity, and the concept of L2 self), the social or interactive communicative context and fluency-relevant perceptual and cognitive experiences (e.g., exposure, opportunities for repetition, practice).” (Goh, 2007, p. 150) The capacity of language learners to maintain engagement despite how difficult

this proves to be and to make up for a lack of lexical knowledge demonstrates that they also engage in the metacognitive processes of planning, self-monitoring and evaluation.

4. METHODOLOGY

4.1. Participants

The sample in the present study was constituted by 12 first year and 14 second year students of the undergraduate programme of English Linguistics and Literature offered at the Facultad de Filosofía y Humanidades, Universidad de Chile. This is a four-year programme which includes theoretical and applied linguistics, general literature, English and American literature, and English language studies. According to the academic programme, the participants' proficiency levels correspond to pre-intermediate and intermediate levels. In terms of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR), the students' proficiency levels in English can be described as A2, i.e., basic users, in the case of first year students, and B1, i.e., independent users, in the case of second year students. In regard to the students' age, it ranged between seventeen and twenty-two. The students volunteered as participants after being invited by the research group, nonetheless, they were asked to sign a consent letter the day of the study. (See Appendix A).

4.2. Data Collection

4.2.1 Data Elicitation

Concerning vocabulary knowledge, it was assessed by using two instruments, two productive vocabulary size tests, corresponding to a 3,000-word level, and 5,000-word level frequency. These tests are sections of the Vocabulary Knowledge Levels Test (VKLTS) developed by Laufer and Nation (1999). Regarding lexical compensatory

strategy use, it was elicited by means of an oral production task which consisted in naming pictures.

4.2.1.1. Instruments

4.2.1.1.1 Productive Vocabulary Knowledge Levels Tests

These tests focus on a controlled production measure of vocabulary that includes items from different frequency levels. The Productive Vocabulary Knowledge Levels Tests developed by Laufer and Nation (1999) were used to collect the data. The tests selected were the 3,000-word and 5,000-word levels. (See Appendix B). In each item a meaningful sentence is provided, and the first letters of the target word are given. The purpose of these letters is to prevent the participants from completing the exercise with a word that belongs to another frequency level. The following examples correspond to one item from the 3,000-word frequency test, and one from the 5,000-word frequency test.

3,000 word level

2. The thieves threw ac…… in his face and made him blind.

5,000 word level

2. The voter placed the ba…… in the box.

4.2.1.2. Lexical Compensatory Strategy Use in an Oral Production Task

The main objective of this task is to elicit lexical oral compensatory strategy use. This task was adapted by the research group following the theoretical and methodological proposals made by Nanda Poulisse in 1990 for her PhD thesis supervised by Theo

Bongaerts and Erik Kellerman. The task consists in the naming of 15 objects and animals that were shown in slides to the participants. (See Appendix C). The instructions given to the students were to look at the slides one by one and to name the object in each picture or if the students did not know the names of the objects, they were asked to describe what they saw. (Appendix D). The students' performance was recorded.

Concerning the word selection for this task, the research group examined different lexical compensatory strategies word lists used by researchers in similar studies (e.g., Poulisse, 1990; Littlemore, 2003). 25 words were selected as a preliminary proposal. Each word was consulted in the Contemporary Corpus of American English (COCA) in terms of their frequency of occurrence in English. Subsequently, the list was sent to five English language teachers of the Department of Linguistics to act as external evaluators. They were asked to give their opinion on the difficulty of the words for first and second year students (Appendix E). Taking into consideration the opinion of the external evaluators, as well as the frequency of occurrence of the words in the preliminary list, a total of 15 words were selected that had different levels of difficulty. (See list in Appendix F).

4.2.2. Data Collection Procedure

4.2.2.1. Pilot Testing

A pilot test for both tasks was carried out before the main data collection. Five students from both first and second year took the productive test and participated in the oral task. After completing each task, they were asked for feedback on the way the tests were administered, the time given for its completion, and the clarity of the instructions.

The feedback obtained about the tasks was recorded. The students' opinions were taken into consideration for the administration and design of the final version of the tasks.

4.2.2.2. Vocabulary Knowledge Levels Productive Tests

Both productive tests were given by two members of the research team under the supervision of a teacher. The students were asked to complete the tests within 20 minutes. The data was collected over a period of four weeks, which was longer than expected.

4.2.2.3. Oral Production Task

The task was formatted as a PowerPoint presentation that had both the instructions of the task as well as the slides required to complete it. The task was administered by members of the research team. The participants' completed the task individually and their performance was recorded. No time limit was given for this task.

4.3. Data Processing

4.3.1. Scoring Criteria

Regarding the scoring method used for both frequency levels of the Productive Vocabulary Knowledge Test, one point was given for each correct answer. All misspellings and blank answers were considered a mistake so no point was assigned. Some answers were considered correct though they were not the target answer, as in the case of the word *career* in which the misspelling *carreer* was considered correct. Plural

forms were also given a point as in the case of *hens*, *reforms* and *ballots.* Finally, in the target word *scare* the inflections -ed and -s were also marked as correct.

4.3.2. Procedure for Data Analysis

4.3.2.1. Vocabulary Knowledge Tests

1. The 34 productive vocabulary tests were marked individually by each member of the research group and the two supervisors.

2. Sessions were held to solve doubts about the answers that were given, the application of the scoring criteria, and the revision of the final scores.

3. The members of the research team tabulated the results of the two tests on the software Microsoft Excel, organising every student's score per target word.

4. The two tests' means and standard deviations were calculated.

5. Spearman's and Pearson's methods were applied to identify possible correlations between the participants' productive vocabulary knowledge and their use of lexical compensatory strategies.

4.3.2.2. Oral Production Task

1. Orthographic transcription of the oral task recordings. An agreement on the criteria used for transcribing was reached after completing a preliminary transcription, for example, hesitations and laughter were omitted. In order to establish specific transcription symbols, Jefferson's (2004) proposals were taken into account (Appendix G). (See some examples in Appendix H).

2. Identification and classification of lexical oral compensatory strategies. Each instance of lexical strategy was underlined and assigned an abbreviation of the type of strategy identified in terms of Poulisse's taxonomy (Appendix I). This oral production task analysis took three weeks to complete in nine sessions of 90 to 120 minutes each. It was a collaborative effort between the research group and the supervisors. Next, the analysis of the strategies used by the participants was organised according to each picture. After that, three sessions were held to revise the analysis of the strategies. Finally, grids were used to give an account of the strategies used by the participants.

3. The results of lexical compensatory strategies used were tabulated on the software Microsoft Excel.

4. The means and standard deviations related to the use of lexical compensatory strategies were calculated.

5. Spearman's and Pearson's methods were applied to identify possible correlations between the participants' productive vocabulary knowledge and their use of lexical compensatory strategies.

5. PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

The analysis of the results is organised on the basis of the research questions of the study. First, questions 1 and 3 are answered, then questions 2 and 4, and finally, question 5. This organisation provides more comprehensible answers to the research questions.

5.1. Research Questions 1 and 3

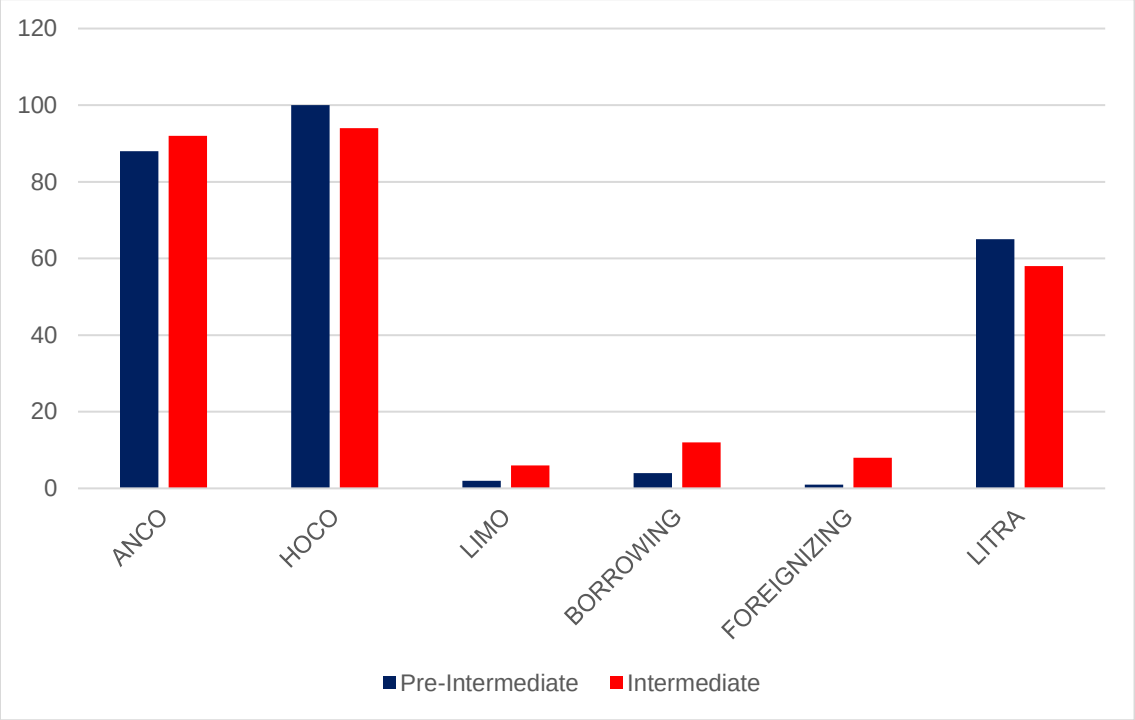
Research questions 1 and 3 aim to give an account of the lexical compensatory strategies used by pre-intermediate and intermediate-level students in the context of an oral task, and to compare the use of these strategies.

a) Research question 1: What categories of lexical compensatory strategies are used by pre-intermediate and intermediate students in the completion of one oral task?

b) Research question 3: How does pre-intermediate students' use of lexical compensatory strategies compare to intermediate students' use of lexical compensatory strategies?

The results can be seen in Figure 4.

Figure 4. *Use of lexical compensatory strategies by pre-intermediate and intermediate level students*



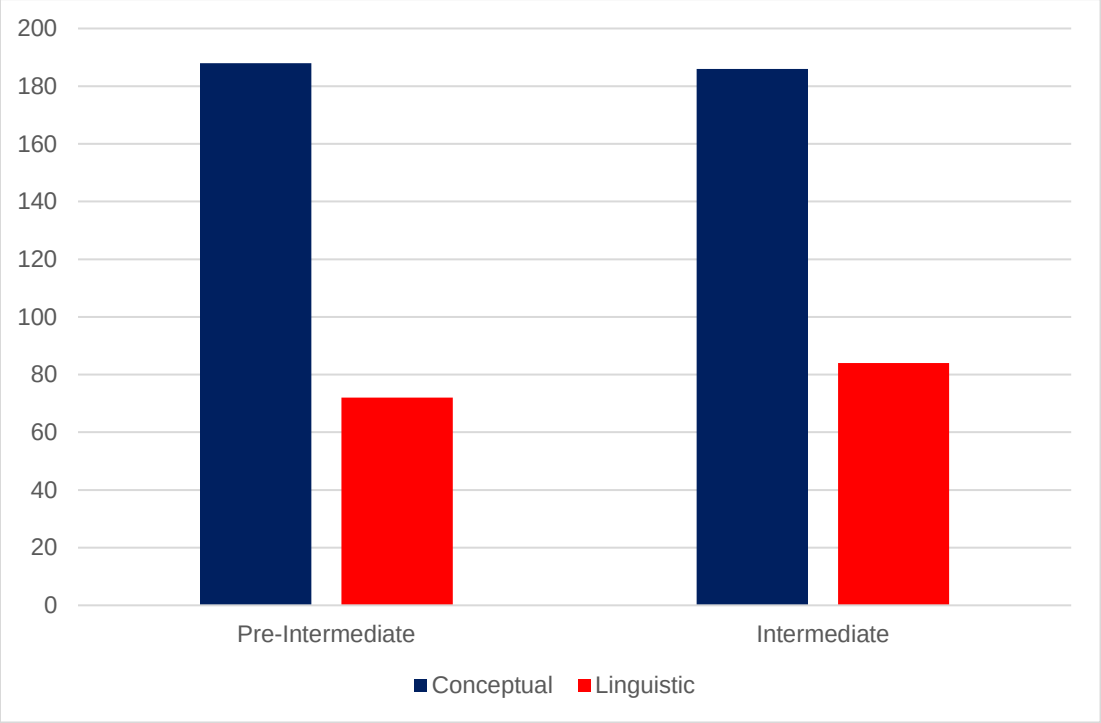
In Figure 4, it can be seen that both groups of students mainly use holistic conceptual strategies (HOCO), analytic conceptual strategies (ANCO), and literal translation strategies (LITRA), while the linguistic strategies morphological creativity (LIMO), borrowing, and foreignizing are less frequently used. In the specific case of pre-intermediate students, it can be observed that the percentages of HOCO, ANCO and LITRA categories were 38.46%, 33.85% and 25%, respectively, while the LIMO, borrowing and foreignizing strategies altogether add up to less than 3%.

Likewise, intermediate students mainly resorted to HOCO, ANCO and LITRA strategies in the completion of the oral task with 34.81%, 34.07% and 21.48%

respectively. While LIMO, borrowing and foreignizing strategies used by the participants add up only to 9.63%.

In Figure 5 the use of lexical compensatory strategies will be presented in terms of the two broad types of knowledge proposed in Poulisse's (1990) taxonomy, conceptual and linguistic.

Figure 5. *The use of conceptual and linguistic knowledge by pre-intermediate and intermediate students*



According to the results obtained, the pre-intermediate students used mainly their conceptual knowledge to complete the oral task, 72.31%, and they appealed to their linguistic knowledge less frequently, 29.69%. Whereas the intermediate students

resorted to their conceptual knowledge, 68.89% and they exploited their linguistic knowledge of both languages, English and Spanish, with 31.11% of linguistic strategies.

One possible explanation for the difference in the use of conceptual and linguistic strategies between the two levels may be the proficiency level of the students. Probably intermediate students establish relationships and comparisons between their first language and the target language more easily.

5.2. Research Questions 2 and 4

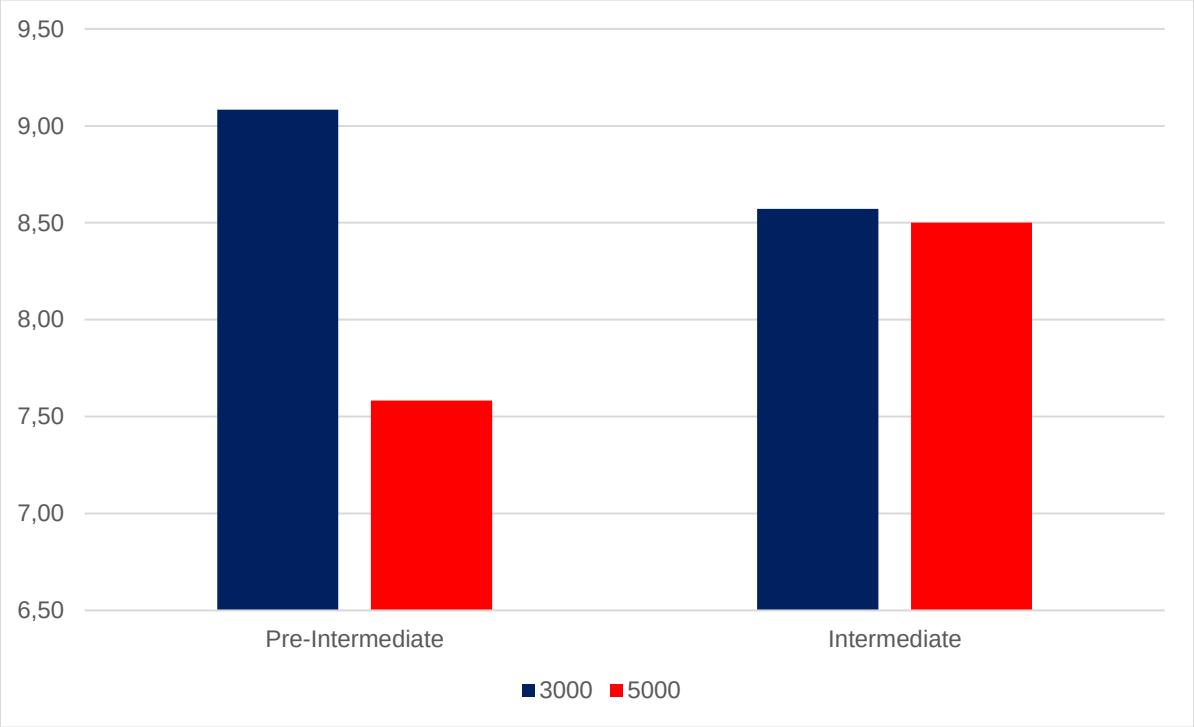
Research questions 2 and 4 aim to give an account of the pre-intermediate and intermediate students' productive size of vocabulary knowledge, and to compare this type of knowledge in both groups.

a) Research question 2: What is the productive size of vocabulary knowledge of pre-intermediate and intermediate students like?

b) Research question 4: How does pre-intermediate students' productive size of vocabulary knowledge compare to intermediate students' productive size of vocabulary knowledge?

Figure 6 shows the average scores obtained in the productive size of vocabulary knowledge test in both groups of participants.

Figure 6. *Productive size of vocabulary knowledge test average scores*

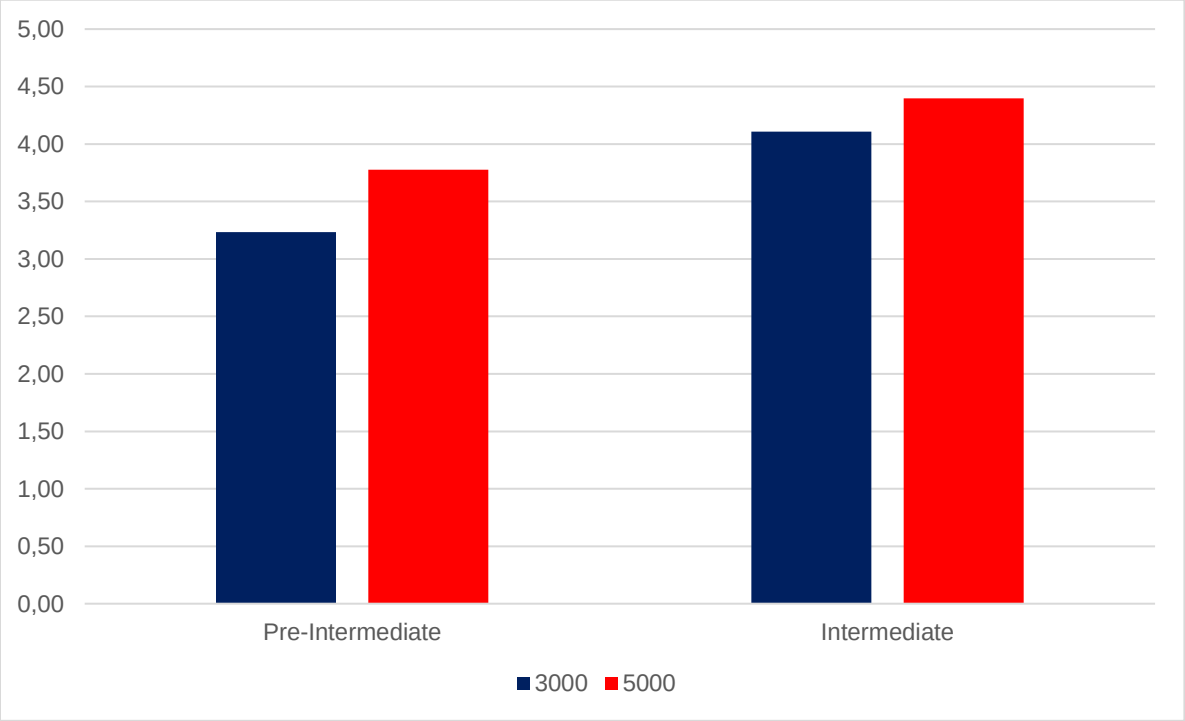


As seen in Figure 6, the pre-intermediate level students obtained an average of 9.08 points in the 3,000-word level productive size of vocabulary knowledge test. Whereas the intermediate level students got an average of 8.57 points, 5.64% lower than the score of the first group of students. Regarding the 5,000-word level productive test, the pre-intermediate level students scored an average of 7.58 points, while the intermediate level students scored an average of 8.50 points, 12.09% higher than the score of the other group of students.

The results of the 3,000-word level test were unexpected since the intermediate level students were supposed to know more words in that band than the pre-intermediate level students. A possible explanation for this outcome may be that some intermediate level students may have disregarded the importance of the test. In fact, some of these

students got very low scores or even no points at all; therefore, their average score was lower than expected; and thus, their standard deviation was higher as shown in Figure 7.

Figure 7. *Productive size of vocabulary knowledge test standard deviation*



5.3. Research Question 5

Research question 5 refers to the relationship between the participants' use of lexical compensatory strategies and their productive size of vocabulary knowledge.

Research question 5: Are there any relationships between pre-intermediate and intermediate students' use of lexical compensatory strategies and their productive size of vocabulary knowledge?

In order to establish these relationships, Pearson's and Spearman's methods were used to find correlations between the variables of the study. Although the first analysis made does not answer research question 5, it is interesting to give an account of the correlation between the use of conceptual and linguistic strategies in each group of students. The results that are shown in Table 2 reveal that both the Spearman's and Pearson's methods indicate a strong correlation between the use of conceptual and linguistic strategies for both groups of participants. In other words, participants who used more conceptual strategies also used more linguistic ones, and the students who used less conceptual strategies also refrained from using linguistic strategies in both groups.

Table 2. *Correlations between conceptual and linguistic strategies used by pre-intermediate and intermediate students*

Correlations	(1) Spearman	(2) Pearson
Conceptual – Linguistic (Pre-Intermediate)	0.887***	0.897***
Conceptual – Linguistic (Intermediate)	0.649**	0.725***

Note. *** shows that the correlation is significant at the 0.01 level; ** shows that the correlation is significant at the 0.05 level, and * shows that the correlation is significant at the 0.1 level.

One possible explanation for these correlations is that students who used more linguistic and conceptual strategies tried to complete the oral task even though they did not know the target word. Thus, there was an effort on the part of the students to convey

their communicative intent. The academic program intends to develop the students' communicative competence in the L2; consequently, it motivates the students to communicate their ideas in different communicative contexts, even though they may face linguistic shortcomings.

Regarding research question 5, the correlations between the lexical compensatory strategies used by pre-intermediate students and their productive size of vocabulary knowledge test scores are shown in Table 3.

Table 3. *Correlations between types of lexical compensatory strategies used by pre-intermediate students and their productive size of vocabulary knowledge test scores*

Correlations	(1) Spearman	(2) Pearson
Conceptual – Productive (3,000)	- 0.663**	-0.823***
Conceptual – Productive (5,000)	-0.783***	-0.837***
Linguistic – Productive (3,000)	-0.515*	-0.632**
Linguistic – Productive (5,000)	-0.649**	-0.685**
Participants	12	12

Note. *** shows that the correlation is significant at the 0.01 level; ** shows that the correlation is significant at the 0.05 level, and * shows that the correlation is significant at the 0.1 level

Table 3 shows a strong negative correlation between the use of conceptual strategies and the 3,000-word level productive test scores according to Pearson's method; while this negative correlation is moderate according to Spearman's method. Moreover, it is relevant to mention that these correlations are statistically significant at 5% and 1% for the Pearson's and Spearman's methods respectively. In other words, the pre-intermediate level students who obtained a higher score in the 3,000-word level productive test, used less conceptual strategies. It can be inferred then that those students who obtained higher scores in the vocabulary knowledge test either knew the target words in English or they resorted to using linguistic strategies in the completion of the oral task.

Concerning the correlation between the use of conceptual strategies and the 5,000-word level productive test scores, there are strong negative correlations according to both coefficients. In addition, both coefficients present a statistical significance of 1%. That is to say, the participants who obtained higher scores in the 5,000-word level productive test used fewer conceptual strategies. These results are similar to the ones obtained for the 3,000-word level productive test, even though the frequency band of the test is more difficult, i.e., it includes words that are less frequently used. It can be inferred that those students who got higher scores in the productive vocabulary test knew the target words of the oral task.

Regarding the correlation between the use of linguistic strategies and the 3,000-word level productive test scores, in both Pearson's and Spearman's correlation coefficients, a moderate negative correlation can be observed. Additionally, the statistical significance for both coefficients was 10% and 5% respectively. The students who

obtained higher scores in the 3,000-word level productive test, resorted to fewer linguistic strategies. A possible explanation for this result could be that pre-intermediate students do not establish relationships between their L1 and the target language because of their proficiency level.

The correlations between the use of linguistic strategies and the 5,000-word level productive test show a moderate negative correlation according to Spearman's method, and a strong moderate negative correlation in the case of Pearson's method. Both coefficients have 5% statistical significance. It could be claimed that pre-intermediate students do not resort to linguistic strategies because they cannot establish relationships between their L1 and the target language.

In Table 4, the correlations between the lexical compensatory strategies used by intermediate students and the vocabulary knowledge productive test scores (3,000 and 5,000 word bands) are presented.

Table 4. *Correlations between types of lexical compensatory strategies used by intermediate students and their productive size of vocabulary knowledge test scores*

Correlations	(1) Spearman	(2) Pearson
Conceptual – Productive (3000)	-0.636**	-0.461*
Conceptual – Productive (5000)	-0.745***	-0.559**

Linguistic – Productive (3000)	-0.208	-0.209
Linguistic – Productive (5000)	-0.329	-0.362
Participants	14	14

Note. *** shows that the correlation is significant at the 0.01 level; ** shows that the correlation is significant at the 0.05 level, and * shows that the correlation is significant at the 0.1 level.

The correlation between the use of conceptual strategies and the scores of the 3,000-word level productive test is moderate negative according to Spearman's correlation coefficient. Nonetheless, no correlations were found between the variables of the study according to Pearson's correlation coefficient as the correlation is lower than 0.5. Both correlations are statistically significant at 5% and 10% for Spearman's and Pearson's respectively. In other words, considering Spearman's coefficient, it can be assumed that participants with higher scores in the 3,000-word level productive test use fewer conceptual strategies. These results are similar to the ones obtained by the pre-intermediate participants.

Concerning the correlation between the use of linguistic strategies and the productive test scores in both 3,000-word and 5,000-word levels no correlation between the variables was found. In fact, there is no clear relationship between the use of linguistic strategies and the scores of the productive tests because the values are lower than 0.5.

None of these correlations show statistical significance and as such no relationship can be drawn between the participants who obtained higher scores and their use of linguistic strategies. These results are different from the ones obtained by the pre-intermediate participants.

6. CONCLUSIONS

The general objective of this study was to explore relationships between the participants' use of lexical compensatory strategies and their productive size of vocabulary knowledge in English. For this purpose, an oral production task and two productive size vocabulary knowledge tests were used to collect the data.

The analysis that was carried out showed that there is a correlation between the participants' use of lexical compensatory strategies and their productive size of vocabulary knowledge. The results obtained show that pre-intermediate level students relied on their world-knowledge in the completion of the oral task since they mainly used holistic and analytic conceptual strategies. Likewise, intermediate level students resorted to their conceptual knowledge in the completion of the oral task since most of the strategies they used were analytic and holistic ones. Nevertheless, this group of students used more linguistic strategies than pre-intermediate students. In that regard, we can infer that they produced strategies that exploited the similarities between English and Spanish. The use of linguistic strategies may also imply that intermediate level students have a deeper knowledge of English, which enables them to establish relationships. Furthermore, the results revealed that both groups of students tried to complete the oral task by using both conceptual and linguistic strategies. As mentioned in the discussion of results, this effort may reflect the motivation and instruction given in the academic program.

The theoretical-descriptive framework that guided this study is based on proposals made by applied linguists whose work focuses on vocabulary assessment, vocabulary knowledge, lexical compensatory strategies, and speaking competence. Authors such as

Nation, 2001, 2006; Poulisse, 1990; Schmitt, 2010; Macaro, 2010; Celce-Murcia 2007; Canale, 1983, can be mentioned. Although it has been said that measuring vocabulary knowledge is a complex task, Laufer and Nation (1999) have provided resourceful instruments with their Vocabulary Knowledge Level Tests in different frequency word bands. Along the same lines, identifying the use of compensatory strategies allows researchers and teachers to assess the progress of speakers in their process of acquiring a second language. Moreover, it is relevant to keep in mind that compensatory strategies are part of the model of communicative competence proposed by Canale (1983) and Celce-Murcia (2007) in the field of applied linguistics.

The notion of compensatory strategies proposed by Poulisse (1990) and the taxonomy designed to identify and analyse the strategies produced by the participants in the oral task were appropriate to fulfil the objectives of the present study. It is important to highlight that Poulisse inserted her taxonomy into Levelt's (1989) speech production model, which is acknowledged as the most comprehensive model of communication. Poulisse (1990) modified this model to give an account of second language speech production and comprehension. On the other hand, Goh (2016) states that speaking competence is complex in nature since it involves various processes.

The instruments applied in the study, i.e., productive size of vocabulary knowledge levels tests (Laufer & Nation, 1999) and the oral production task were appropriate to collect the data of the study. The oral production task was created by the research team, based on Poulisse's proposals (1990). On the other hand, the productive vocabulary tests in the 3,000 and 5,000 frequency word bands were selected because they have been widely used in previous studies by renowned authors.

One limitation of the research is related to the number of participants. The number of students that volunteered to participate in the study was appropriate for the specific purposes of the research; however, it is not possible to generalise our findings with only 26 participants. As for future research, having a larger number of participants would be advisable. Furthermore, it would be interesting to conduct other studies, such as a longitudinal research which would provide an insight into learners' interlanguage stages in their acquisition of English as a second language. Other studies may use various oral tasks that would involve different communicative purposes, e.g., interviews, story retell, and conversation.

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APPENDIXES

Appendix A. Consent Letter

CARTA DE CONSENTIMIENTO

Para: Estudiantes de inglés como segunda Lengua
De: Grupo de investigación de Seminario de Grado

El proyecto de investigación al que se le invita a participar de manera voluntaria estudia el conocimiento léxico en inglés como L2. Las tareas propuestas son las siguientes:

1) Una tarea de producción oral en inglés como L2.
Esta tarea consiste en dar el nombre en inglés de 15 objetos y animales que aparecen en diapositivas en un archivo PowerPoint. La duración estimada de esta tarea es de aproximadamente 10 minutos y debe ser grabada.

2) Una tarea de conocimiento léxico productivo de inglés como L2.
Esta segunda tarea consiste en completar palabras en el contexto de oraciones en inglés. La duración de esta tarea es de aproximadamente 20 minutos.

Por otra parte, para poder organizar la información que recogeremos en la realización de las tareas, necesitamos que escriba y/o mencione su nombre cuando corresponda. Nos comprometemos a respetar la confidencialidad de los nombres de los participantes.

Agradecemos su buena voluntad y se despiden atentamente,

El grupo de investigación

Yo ……. acepto participar en la investigación del Seminario de conocimiento léxico en inglés como segunda lengua.

Santiago, agosto de 2022

Appendix B. Vocabulary Knowledge Productive Tests

Name:

Level:

Productive task

1. Complete the words in the dotted line. An example has been done for you. No dictionaries are required for this task.

Example: “Her **flo……** were a highlight of her garden” -> “Her **flowers** were a highlight of her garden”

Part A

1. He has a successful car…… as a lawyer.

2. The thieves threw ac…… in his face and made him blind.

3. To improve the country’s economy, the government decided on economic ref…….

4. She wore a beautiful green go…… to the ball.

5. The government tried to protect the country’s industry by reducing the imp …… of cheap goods.

6. The children’s games were funny at first, but finally got on the parents’ ner……

7. The lawyer gave some wise coun…… to his client.

8. Many people in England mow the la…… of their houses on Sunday morning.

9. The farmer sells the eggs that his he…… lays.

10. Sudden noises at night sca…… me a lot.

11. France was proc…… a republic in the 18th century.

12. Many people are inj…… in road accidents every year

13. Suddenly he was thru…… into the dark room.

14. He perc…… a light at the end of the tunnel.

15. Children are not independent. They are att…… to their parents.

16. She showed off her sle…… figure in a long narrow dress.

17. She has been changing partners often because she cannot have a sta……

relationship with one person.

18. You must wear a bathing suit on a public beach. You're not allowed to be na…….

Part B

1. Soldiers usually swear an oa…… of loyalty to their country.

2. The voter placed the ball…… in the box.

3. They keep their valuables in a vau…… at the bank.

4. A bird perched at the window led…….

5. The kitten is playing with a ball of ya……

6. The thieves have forced an ent…….. into the building.

7. The small hill was really a burial mou……

8. We decided to celebrate New Year's E…… together.

9. The soldier was asked to choose between infantry and cav……

10. This is a complex problem which is difficult to compr……

11. The angry crowd sho…… the prisoner as he was leaving the court.

12. Don't pay attention to this rude remark. Just ign…… it.

13. The management held a secret meeting. The issues discussed were not disc…… to the workers.

14. We could hear the sergeant bel……commands to the troops.

15. The boss got angry with the secretary and it took a lot of tact to soo……. him.

16. We do not have adeq…….. information to make a decision.

17. She is not a child, but a mat…….. woman. She can make her own decisions.

18. The prisoner was put in soli…… confinement.

Appendix C. Pictures for the Oral Task

1.

2.

3.

4.

5.

6.

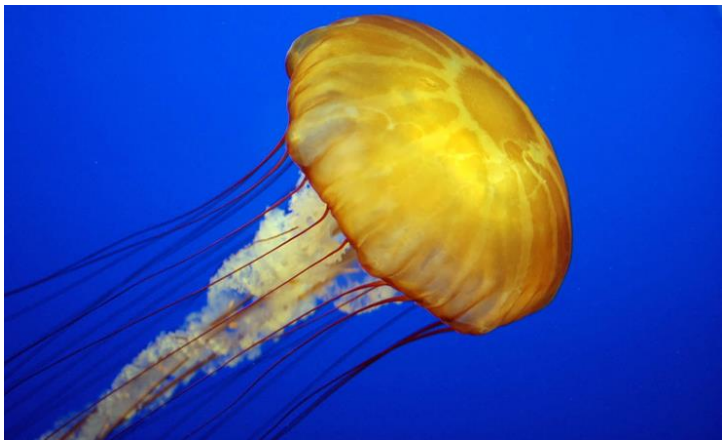
7.

8.

9.

10.

11.



12.

13.

14.

15.

Appendix D. Instructions for the Oral Production Task

- The following task includes 15 slides with pictures of concrete objects and animals. You have to name the objects and animals in English. If you do not know the English words, you must try a different way of making clear what they are.
- Each picture has a number; so please mention the number before giving your answer.
- As soon as you finish with one picture, you can continue with the next one.
- The time limit for this task is about 20 minutes.

Thank you very much for your contribution to the study.

Appendix E. Letter and Grid Sent to the English Language Teachers

Universidad de Chile

Facultad de Filosofía y Humanidades

Departamento de Lingüística

Dear Professor:

We are writing to you to request your valuable participation and knowledge as an expert in second language teaching in our department to judge whether the first-year students know the words listed in the attachment. Our research study will include a naming object task as one of the instruments to assess vocabulary knowledge. This task includes high, mid and low frequency words that are going to be selected from the list attached. Our supervisors are Ms Ximena Tabilo and Ms Alfonsina Doddis.
The participants of the study will be 10 first year students and 10 second year students who are taking the Licenciatura en Lingüística y Literatura Inglesas programme offered by the Facultad de Filosofía y Humanidades, Universidad de Chile. We would be grateful if you could send your answers by Friday 5th of August
We look forward to hearing from you,

Sincerely,
Constanza Acuña
Pamela Araos
Juan Guillermo Cartes
Amanda Cerda
Esteban Chehuaicura
Claudia Leiva
Francisca Pulgar
Fernanda Reyes

In this task the students will have to name the following concrete objects:

Words	Do you think the students know these words? Yes/No/I am not sure	Comments
bicycle		
air conditioner		
blinds		
butterfly		
cushion		
drill		
ice skates		
hairbrush		
handbag		
hill		
key		

jellyfish		
keyboard		
pacifier		
peacock		
parrot		
toothpick		
umbrella		
pipe		
swan		

Appendix F. List of Target Words for the Oral Production Task

1. Bicycle
2. Cushion
3. Peacock
4. Butterfly
5. Drill
6. Dustpan
7. Hairbrush
8. Parrot
9. Horseshoe
10. Umbrella
11. Jellyfish
12. Humming top
13. Handbag
14. Pacifier
15. Swan

Appendix G. Transcription Symbols Used in the Oral Production Task

Jefferson (2004)

- (.) A micropause - a pause of no significant length.
- (0.7) A timed pause - long enough to indicate a time.
- [ ] Square brackets show where speech overlaps.
- > < Arrows showing that the pace of speech has quickened.
- ( ) Unclear section.
- **:** Colons - indicate a stretched sound.

Appendix H. Examples of Transcriptions of the Oral Production Task

Transcription 1

First year. Subject 4. Audio recording: 02:58.

Picture 1: bicycle

Number one (.) bike

Picture 2: pillow

Number two (.) pillow

Picture 3: peacock

Eh (3 secs) Number three (2 secs) it's like a bird (.) eh (2 secs) with a lot of colours (.) eh

Picture 4: butterfly

Number four (.) butterfly

Picture 5: drill

Number (.) five it's like an instrument (.) for construction

Picture 6: dustpan

Number six (.) it's for like (.) the garbage (2 secs) eh (.) also it's an instrument

Picture 7: hairbrush

Number seven (.) a brush

Picture 8: parrot

Number eight (.) it's a bird with red (.) yellow (.) and blue colours

Picture 9: horseshoe

Eh (.) number nine (.) is for like the (.) horse feet (.) i think it's eh: (.) the material is metal

Picture 10: umbrella

Number 10 (.) umbrella

Picture 11: jellyfish

Number eleven (.) it's a fish (.) eh (3 secs) yeah a fish

Picture 12: humming top

Number twelve is a: (.) Chilean like game (.) eh: it's traditional

Picture 13: handbag

Number (.) thirteen eh (.) a bag

Picture 14: pacifier

Number fourteen eh: (.) it's for eh (.) the baby (.) it's like (.) a thing for the baby to put in: (.) in the mouth

Picture 15: swan

Number fifteen (.) is: (.) a: um: ah >lo tengo en la punta de la lengua< um (.) swan

Transcription 2.

Second year. Subject 13. Audio recording time: 02:01.

Picture 1: bicycle

One (.) bicycle

Picture 2: cushion

Two (.) pillow

Picture 3: peacock

Three (.) peacock

Picture 4: butterfly

Four (4 sec) four (umh) butterfly

Picture 5: drill

Five (.) drill

Picture 6: dustpan

Six (.) the thing you use to: (4 sec) retrieve the garbage when you're: cleaning up

Picture 7: hairbrush

Seven (.) hairbrush

Picture 8: parrot

Eight (2 sec) bird

Picture 9: horseshoe

Nine (.) a: the thing [that ha:s] >that horses have< on their paws

Picture 10: umbrella

(2 sec) ten (.) umbrella

Picture 11: jellyfish

Eleven (1 sec) (umh) (tʃ) I know this one (umh) (7 sec) >ok< I'm not sure how it's called

but I kno:w it’s a: (2 sec) animal that lives in the sea: that doesn’t have a brai:n and that its >very poisonous and you can find it on the shore sometimes<

Picture 12: humming top

Twelve (.) a: typica:l (3 sec) game in Chile and in other places mostly in Latin America (.) you take cord and you wrap it around this thing and you: let it go: and it spins around

Picture 13: handbag

Thirteen (.) purse

Picture 14: pacifier

Fourteen (umh) (9 sec) pacifier

Picture 15: swan

Fifteen (.) swan.

Appendix I. Examples of Lexical Compensatory Strategy Analysis

Analysis 1

Second year. Subject 8. Audio recording time: 5:09.

Picture 1: bicycle

Number one (.) a bicycle

Picture 2: cushion

Number two (.) a pillow

Picture 3: peacock

(1 sec) Number three a: **turkey [HOCO] a real turkey [LITRA]** I don't know [the] exactly the name but it's this **bird [HOCO]** with a long tail with feathers that look like eyes maybe

ANCO

Picture 4: butterfly

Number four (.) a butterfly

Picture 5: drill

(2 sec) Number five (.) a drill or **a driller [LIMO]** or automatic drill I think that's the name

Picture 6: dustpan

Number (ehh) six (ehh) the thing you use to **collect [HOCO]** the trash the piece of trash that it's on the floor

ANCO

Picture 7: hairbrush

Number seven (ahh) the item you use to brush your hair

ANCO

Picture 8: parrot

Number (ehh) eight (.) a: **bird [HOCO]** a very **coloured [LIMO]** (.) coloured bird (ahh) red bird I don't know the name in English or Spanish but [it's the thing] that the bird **that are very related with pirates [LITRA]**

ANCO

Picture 9: horseshoe

Number nine (ehh) the **thing that are put on the on the feet of the horses [LITRA]** (ehh) [it's] **it's also related with [LITRA]** (ehh) with good luck I think

ANCO

Picture 10: umbrella

Number ten (.) an umbrella

Picture 11: jellyfish

Number eleven sorry number eleven (.) jellyfish I think is the name of these jelly **things [HOCO]** with tentacles that are in the sea

ANCO

Picture 12: humming top

Number twelve (.) it's a: (ehh) it's a: **common game [LITRA]** in Chile [it's like this wood] this thing made of wood that you throw with a rope and it spins

ANCO

Picture 13: handbag

Number thirteen (ooh) it's a **bag [HOCO]** it's some kind of bag **that are related [LITRA]** [with] with women this handbag I think it's

ANCO

Picture 14: pacifier

Fourteen (.) the thing that are given to babies to stop crying like (ehh) (ehh) because the thing that is **put on the mouth** **[LITRA]** is like a nipple so the baby thinks it's their mom I think that is the reason

ANCO

Picture 15: swan

Number fifteen (.) it's not a goose [it] it look like a **goose [HOCO]** but it's more **sophisticated** **[HOCO]** [it's more like it's this] (ehh) is from the **animal** **[HOCO]** from this tale of this little duck that was very ugly [in the] [in the] in the first part of the book and after it was very beautiful and it's that **bird** **[HOCO]**

ANCO

ANCO	**10**
HOCO	**10**
LIMO	**1**
BORROWING	**0**
FOREIGNIZING **LITRA**	**0** **6**

Appendix J. Examples of Conceptual and Linguistic Lexical Compensatory Strategies

I. Conceptual strategies

1. Analytic. they may refer to the intended concept by either listing some of its properties or using their encyclopaedic knowledge. When analysing the transcriptions, the term ANCO was used to categorise the use of this strategy in bold letters and underlined. The whole utterance was categorised as ANCO.

Second year. Subject 10.

Picture 14: pacifier

The next one is a **toy [HOCO]** used for babies (2 secs.) which is the colour pink and the plastic thing **that goes directly to the mouth [LITRA]** of the baby is orange

ANCO

2. Holistic. They may refer to the intended concept by substituting the word for a related concept which shares some of the criterial properties. When analysing the transcriptions, the term HOCO in bold letters was used to categorise the use of this strategy, along with underlying the use of this strategy.

First year. Subject 2.

Picture 7: hairbrush

Seven uh: a **comb [HOCO]**

II. Linguistic strategies

1. Morphological creativity. Use of L2 rules of morphological derivation to create (what the subject assumes to be) comprehensible L2 lexis-existing L2 words to which morphemes have been added. When analysing the transcriptions, the term LIMO in bold letters was used to categorise the use of this strategy, along with underlying the sentence in which it was used.

Second year. Subject 8.

Picture 5: drill

(2 sec) Number five (.) a drill or **a driller [LIMO]** or automatic drill I think that's the name

2. Transfer. They exploit similarities between languages, divided into three sub-categories:

2.1. The use of L1–Ln without any phonological or morphological adaptation. Few instances were used, borrowing in bold letters when this strategy was used for this category, as well as underlying the words used.

Second year. Subject 7.

Picture 11: jellyfish

Once (3 sec) it's a kind of of **medusa [BORROWING]** I'm not sure [if] if that's a cognate or not

2.2. Foreignizing. The use of L1 or Ln words with phonological or morphological adaptation. It was used in a few instances, foreignizing in bold letters when this strategy was used, as well as underlying the instances in which this category was used.

First year. Subject 10.

Picture 7: hairbrush

Picture number seven (.) uhm (.) I don’t know the name (.) but it’s for your hair (.) like to **ordenate [FOREIGNIZING]** (.) your hair (.) and it’s: (.) pink

ANCO

2.3. Literal Translation. Word by word translation of an L1 or Ln word or phrase into the target language. The term LITRA in bold letters was used as well as underlying the instances in which this category was used.

Second year. Subject 12.

Picture 3: peacock

Number three (ehh) **roya:l turkey [LITRA]**