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The effect of monologue memorization tasks on Iranian EFL learners' fluency

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Abstract

This study sought to probe the effect of monologue memorization on EFL learners' speaking performance in Iran. In so doing, 34 intermediate EFL learners were considered as the subject pool of the present study. They were randomly classified as experimental and control. The experimental group underwent treatment including the monologue memorization task (MMT) at eight sessions. The oral performances were transcribed and analyzed to measure fluency of language output. A test of speaking was conducted to collect the data and to track the possible changes before and after the intervention in term of fluency of speaking. An independent samples t-test was conducted to find out whether or not there were significant differences between the mean scores of monologue memorization and non-monologue memorization groups. The findings revealed that when EFL learners are asked to memorize a monologue task and present it orally in a classroom, they are likely to get some improvements in their fluency of speaking. In addition, a semi structured interview and a questionnaire were conducted to screen their attitudes toward monologue memorization in their classroom students found MMT as suitable for improving their speaking skill The findings have implication for EFL learners, English language institute, materials developers and teacher trainers.

Keywords: Monologue memorization task; speaking ability; fluency; task-based language teaching

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1. Introduction

As far as the term fluency is concerned the focus has usually been on utterance fluency in the L2 professional literature, and the search for temporal measures that will serve as reliable indicators of speech that is judged as fluent (Dechert & Raupach, 1980). It is even hoped that such research will enable automatic measurements of fluency (de Jong & Wempe, 2009; Ginther, Dimova, & Yang, 2010). However, others have emphasized fluency as a perceptual phenomenon (Freed, 2000; Guillot, 1999). Lennon (1990) differentiates a broad sense of fluency referring to all-round oral proficiency with a narrow sense, referring to the speed and smoothness of delivery. Lennon (1990, p. 26) defines the term fluency as "the rapid, smooth, accurate, lucid, and efficient translation of thought or communicative intention under the temporal constraints of on-line processing". The notion of utterance fluency refers to the temporal values of speech or the "oral features of utterances that reflect the operation of underlying cognitive processes" (Segalowitz, 2010, p. 48). However, perceived fluency refers to the "inferences listeners make about a speaker's cognitive fluency based on their perception of utterance fluency" (Segalowitz, 2010, p. 48). As Fillmore (1979) points out, we do not expect the same kind of fluency from a disc-jockey and an academic; we would not criticize the academic for not speaking as fast as the disc-jockey, nor criticize the disc-jockey for being more repetitive or reformulating more than the academic.

Few researchers have discussed cognitive fluency, or the underlying psycholinguistic processes involved in fluency. Schmidt (1992) used the declarative / procedural knowledge distinction to explain how speech becomes more fluent as skills are proceduralized. Towell, Hawkins, and Bazergui (1996) used this model in their study of fluency development, and sought to distinguish the mere speeding up of processes from changes to the nature of the processing that was taking place. Segalowitz (2010) has focused specifically on measurements of cognitive fluency and how it develops. He has taken particular interest in how simple speeding up of processing through practice can be distinguished from deeper changes in the structure and organization of processing, which may lead not only to faster processing but also to greater processing stability (Segalowitz, 2000, 2010)**.** If the increase in processing stability is greater than the increase in processing speed, he argues, we can say that cognitive fluency has improved.

Riggenbach (1991) examines how high and low level learners differ, identifying speech rate, silent pauses (especially when not at grammatical boundaries) and "clusters of disfluencies" as key areas that distinguish the two groups. Riazantseva (2001) makes a 3-way comparison between L1 Russian speakers, L2 speakers of English (who are also the Russian speakers), and a second group of L1 English speakers. This allows for comparisons of pausing patterns between groups speaking two different L1s, between L1 and L2 speakers of English, and between the same people speaking their L1 and L2. She finds that L1 Russian features longer pauses than L1 English, but that while low level Russian L2 speakers of English make much longer pauses than L1 English speakers, these pauses become significantly shorter at higher levels.

Similarly, Kormos and Dénes (2004) seek to identify the temporal measures that best predict the fluency ratings of independent judges. They find that speech rate, mean length of run and "pace" (the number of stressed syllables per minute) are the best predictors of fluency ratings. Iwashita, Brown, McNamara, and O'Hagan (2008) consider the relationship between holistic oral test scores from raters and a variety of measures of grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, and fluency. With respect to the fluency measures, they find the ones that correlate most strongly with rater scores are speech rate, and the time and frequency of silent pauses. In this article, "speech rate" is in fact pruned speech rate, as all repair and filled pauses were removed before analysis. In a similar study, Ginther, Dimova, and Yang (2010) compare oral proficiency test (OEPT) scores with temporal measurements made using Praat software, together with measures of lexis, grammar and pronunciation. Speech rate, articulation rate and mean syllables per run are found to correlate most closely with test scores, while silent

pauses (but not filled pauses) also correlate significantly. The numbers of participants in these studies vary considerably: 6 in Riggenbach (1991); 30 speakers of Russian and 20 of English in Riazantseva (2001); 16 in Kormos and Denes (2004); 200 for Iwashita et al. (2008), and 150 for Ginther et al. (2010). Longitudinal studies can show fluency development over time, often by comparing temporal fluency measures with rater judgments. Longitudinal studies focus on fluency development but they also throw light on the nature and measurement of fluency itself. An early example of a study of fluency development is Lennon (1990). The findings are of limited reliability because of the small sample size, but Lennon found that all four of the German speakers of L2 English he studied improved on pruned speech rate, number of filled pauses per unit, and percentage of C-units followed by a silent pause.

Freed (1995) studied American learners of L2 French, some of whom spent a semester abroad, while others stayed at home. The abroad group was, against expectations, not found to show significant differences from the "at-home" group, except for in the measure of speech rate. It was, however, found that lower level learners did make greater overall improvement than the higher level ones. Towell et al. (1996) studied a group of 12 British students of L2 French on a four year course at a university in the UK. The key measures on which improvements were found after a year abroad were mean length of run and speech rate.

A series of more recent longitudinal studies have come from Derwing, Munro, Thomson, and Rossiter (2009). These studies focus on second language learning of English among immigrants to Canada, representing different L1 language backgrounds. They found that a Slavic-language speaking group made progress in fluency and comprehensibility over a two-year period, while a Mandarin-speaking group made little progress over the same time. The 2009 paper found that L1 and L2 fluency correlations were strong at low levels of L2 proficiency, but that they weakened with L2 development. The fact that L1 fluency became less significant as a predictor of L2 fluency as L2 level increased led the authors to hypothesize that fluency was a "state", which could change over time, rather than a "trait", which was relatively fixed and would never change. In this study, the measures which correlated best with rater judgments of fluency were speech rate, pruned speech rate and pause frequency (pauses per second), with pruned speech rate showing the strongest correlations for both Mandarin and Slavic speakers.

An issue not addressed in the research cited above is how fluency relates to other proficiency measures. It seems intuitively likely that more complex and accurate speech may at times be achieved at the expense of fluency, while for more fluent speech, accuracy and complexity may need to be sacrificed. This idea of trade-offs has been extensively studied by Skehan and Foster (1999). Fluency is divided into three facets: speed fluency (rate of speech), breakdown fluency (pausing) and repair fluency (repetitions, reformulations etc.). Findings relevant to the present research include evidence that mid-clause pausing is related to (lack of) planning, while end-of-clause pausing is not (Skehan & Foster, 2005). A related study by Tavakoli and Skehan (2005) found that repair fluency was distinct and independent from speed and breakdown fluency. This study is also of interest in that it compares fluency on different tasks – using both narratives with a more structured in content and ones with a looser overall structure. It was found that fluency was greater in the more structured narratives.

To summarize the findings of the above research, the measure which is most often found to be a good indicator of fluency is speech rate. Pruned speech rate is less often used as a measure, but when it is it seems to be equally, or even more, reliable. Mean length of run is the other main measure that reflects fluency. The significance of phonation/ pause-time ratio is only supported in some studies, and there is evidence that the amount of pausing does not always distinguish between levels of proficiency or fluency. It seems that it is pause location rather than pause time, length or frequency that is the key factor in distinguishing fluent from non-fluent speech (Tavakoli, 2011).

If we focus on speaking, we notice that there are several things we usually do not pay attention to. Speaking is a complex skill and should be taught everywhere and it is a skill that learners learn better in groups (Celce-Murica, 2001). Speaking is the second naturally acquired skill and it has an important role in

communication; hence it seems that teachers in EFL classes take this skill for granted in a sense that it is developed naturally as it was happened for speaking in L1 (Celce-Murica, 2001). One of the most important things about language is the participation in a social context; however, it is not enough to develop one's speaking skills in L2 (Schemitt, 2012).

Opportunities for speaking in an EFL classroom require serious structure and planning (Brown, 2010). Learners as well as some teachers often think the ability to communicate is knowing the grammar, but it was at the beginning of the nineteen century that the systematic role of teaching was about grammar, then the first method appeared which was called the Grammar Translation Method (Celce-Murica, 2001). Although there are many techniques in the textbooks for developing the EFL learners' speaking performance such as drama, conversation modelling, etc. (Brown, 2010; Celce-Murica, 2001), it seems that each of these techniques has its own limitations and required conditions in terms of classroom applicability. Therefore, there is still a need for developing new techniques and knowing more about the effect of each of the available techniques or the innovative ones on different aspects of fluency, that is, fluency. Moreover, since the learners are the main stakeholders in a speaking activity, there is a need to know how they affectively perceive a given speaking task.

The rise of communicative language teaching approach leads us to the fact that fluency needs to be developed in a balanced language course. Moreover, in the realm of communicative language teaching approach, affective factors, such as attitude, have generally been the canon of debate on the role of personal factors affecting language learning (Brown, 2010). Regarding these facts, it is important to devise a teaching technique in EFL classes to improve all the aforementioned aspects in a balanced manner. This study is an attempt to test on of the frequently used oral teaching techniques in EFL classes, monologues, regarding its effect on these aspects of oral fluency.

The problem under investigation of this study is to the existing L2 professional literature regarding the concept of fluency as a characteristic of L2 speech and how they may be affected through utilization of a specific teaching intervention. Thus, this study aimed for both cognitive and affective aspects. As far as the cognitive aspect was concerned, it was aimed to probe how MMT can shed light on learners' fluency of speaking. The second aim was the affective aspect. Regarding this aspect, the learners' voice and attitude toward the MMT was probed their attitude for incorporating MMT in their classroom. Considering the purpose of the present study, the following research question was formulated:

- Does incorporating monologue memorization improve EFL learners' fluency of speaking?
- What are EFL learners' attitudes toward incorporating monologue memorization in their classroom?

2. Methodology

2.1 Participants

The participants were 34 intermediate adult learners as reported by language institute placement test. Given the geographic location and the small number of students at private language institute, it was not possible to have random assignment of students. Thus, an available sampling procedure was conducted for the subject selection. They were all female EFL learners whose ages ranged from 20 to 31, majority 22. They were passing interchange 3, units 8-16. The participants were all Persian native speakers who had at least three years of experience learning English at different private English language Institute. They were randomly assigned to an experimental group and a control group including 19 and 15 learners respectively.

2.2 Instruments

Oxford Placement Test (OPT) - Before the treatment session began, all the participants took part in a

paper-based placement test, Oxford Placement Test (OPT) which was used to check the homogeneity of the groups in terms of their proficiency levels. This test has 60 multiple choice items in three sections including vocabulary (20 items), grammar (20 items), and reading passages (20 items). Learners had 60 minutes to take the test under serious testing condition. According to the guidelines of the test, those learners who score 37-47 as upper-intermediate ones and are asked to participate in this study.

Speaking Test - This was designed according to IELTS general speaking task In the Speaking test, the participant have a discussion with an examiner. It will be interactive and as close to a real-life situation as a test can get. The Speaking test is 5-7 minutes long and is in three parts:

Table 1

Parts of speaking test

Part	Description
Part 1	You will answer questions about yourself and your family.
Part 2	You will speak about a topic.
Part 3	You will have a longer discussion about the topic introduced in Part 2.

This test task was scored according to the IELTS scoring rubric. It should be noted that the examiner held a score for the fluency for each participant. However, these scores were allotted according to the rubric presented for scoring IELTS speaking tests. This rubric is set and published by IELTS officials.

Drawing on Ali and Munkundan (2012) work, an adapted questionnaire was proposed to probe students attitude. The adapted version comprised of 10 closed-ended items. It was developed to measure the learners' attitude toward a technique or a classroom practice presented by the teacher toward a specific skill; in case of the present study, speaking skill. A Likert Scale ranging from 5= for Strongly Agree (SA) to 1=Strongly Disagree (SD) was utilized. To probe the reliability of this questionnaire, it was examined in a similar group. The result enjoyed the reliability .81.

2.3 Procedure

In order to collect the data, the participants took an OPT and the learners whose scores were in the range of 37-47 participated in this study. Then, they were asked to take part in the speaking test performed as an interview test described in the instrument section. Next, the examiner scored their performance according the rubric of the IELTS public scoring framework. It is worth mentioning that due to the administrative constraints of the research, the procedure followed by Benis and Bazzaz (2014). That is, one experienced examiner holding a PhD degree in TEFL conducted the interview and scored the learners. In order to ensure the inter-rater reliability another trained rater listened to the audio section recorded. After the course of the intervention, the same procedure was followed for the posttest of the study.

Then the learners were randomly assigned to a control group (non-monolog memorization task, hereafter, NMMT). They received conventional speaking activities including role play and conversation modeling. The experimental group followed the same procedure along with monologue memorization tasks (MMT) for 8 sessions. More precisely, every session the learners in the MMT group assigned a topic related to the one they had already covered in the class. Before assigning the topic, some relevant vocabulary from the vocabulary section was introduced in the class so as to help learners familiarize while preparing for the performance. They were asked to give their own perspective to the topic by presenting lecture within 1 or 2 minutes. More specifically, they were requested to use their memory without referring their notes. They were also free to utilized other materials like audio, video, book. All students were asked to present their short talks every session. This performance was considered as some points for their final evaluation. Next, the teacher highlighted students lexical and grammatical mistakes especially those have been covered during the course of instruction. It should be noted that, the learners in the MMT group had to stay a little longer in their classes since these activities may have led the teacher be behind the schedule regarding other tasks should be done in the class. However, the

NMMT group underwent the routine course of instruction. The speaking sections of the lessons were presented according to the teachers' manual using conversation practice and pair works. As a note of caution, these tasks were presented in both groups. Only the topics for discussion were without prior preparation. The teacher invited all the participants to cooperate in the classroom discussion. The discussion lasted for at least ten minutes. The goal was to engage all the learners in the discussion. The teacher did not end up this phase unless she is assured that all learners have already commented.

3. Results

This section provides the descriptive statistics of the OPT and then provides the results of the independent samples t-test for testing the homogeneity of the groups.

Table 2

Descriptive statistics for OPT for NMMT and MMT group

	Grouping	*N*	*Mean*	*SD*	*Std. Error Mean*
OPT	MMT	19	42.47	2.67	.61
	NMMT	15	43.06	3.57	.92

As indicated in the table 2, there are 19 learners in the MMT group and 15 learners in the NMMT group. The mean score for the MMT group was 42.47 and the corresponding standard deviation is 2.67. The mean score for the NMMT group was 43.06 and the corresponding standard deviation is 3.57.

Table 3

Test of normality for OPT

		Shapiro-Wilk		
	Grouping	Statistic	df	Sig.
OPT	Experimental	.931	19	.178
	Control	.892	15	.072

Table 3 shows that the distribution of the scores are normal since the observed p values is higher than the accepted level of .05. Based on the results of the normality test, it was justifiable to use a parametric test to compare the means from the two groups.

Table 4

Independent samples t test for comparing OPT scores

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances								
								95% Confidence Interval	
OPT	*F*	Sig.	*t*	*f*	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
	3.95	.05	.380	32	.706	.40	1.07	-1.7	2.58

According to the results (t= .38, *p*= .70) in table 4, it can be concluded that there is no significant difference between the experimental group and the control group in terms of their scores on OPT. hence, it can be concluded that the groups are similar in terms of their proficiency level.

The following table shows the results of the descriptive analysis of the scores obtained from the speaking test in terms of the learners' fluency. According to table 5, there are 19 learners in the MMT group and 15 learners in the NMMT group. The pretest mean score for the MMT group equals 4.78 and the corresponding standard deviation is.63. The pretest mean score for the NMMT group equals 4.60 and the corresponding standard deviation is .66. Accordingly, the posttest mean score for the MMT group equals 5.65 and the corresponding standard deviation is .60. The pretest mean score for the NMMT group equals 5.23 and the

corresponding standard deviation is .56.

Table 5

Descriptive statistics for speaking pretest of fluency

	Grouping	*N*	*Mean*	*SD*	*Std. Error Mean*
Fluency Pretest	MMT	19	4.79	.63	.14
	NMMT	15	4.6	.66	.17
Fluency Posttest	MMT	19	5.66	.60	.14
	NMMT	15	5.23	.56	.15

Table 6

Test of normality for speaking test for fluency in both groups

		Shapiro-Wilk		
	Grouping	Statistic	df	Sig.
Fluency Pretest	MMT	.836	19	.074
	NMMT	.772	15	.072
Fluency Posttest	MMT	.875	19	.068
	NMMT	.851	15	.068

According to table 6, the statistics for the experimental group pretest scores (S-W= .83, *p*= .07) shows that the distribution of the scores are normal since the observed p values is higher than the accepted level of .05. Moreover, the statistics for the control group pretest scores (S-W= .77, *p*= .07) shows that the distribution of the scores are normal since the observed p values is higher than the accepted level of .05. The same goes for the experimental group posttest scores (S-W= .87, *p*= .06) and the control group posttest scores (S-W= .85, *p*= .05).

Table 7

Independent samples t test for speaking test for fluency

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances								
	F	Sig.	*t*	*df*	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
Fluency Pretest	.617	.438	.85	32	.400	.189	.22	-.26	.64
Fluency Posttest	.161	.691	2.1	32	.044	.424	.20	.012	.83

According to the results (t= .85, *p*= .40) in table 7, it can be concluded that there is no significant difference between the experimental group and the control group in terms of their scores on pretest. However, according to the results (t= 2.10, *p* = .04) in table 8, it can be concluded that there is a significant difference between the experimental group and the control group in terms of their scores on posttest. Therefore, it can be concluded that the groups are significantly in terms of their accuracy both on the posttest. In other words, the null- hypothesis stating that incorporating monologue memorization does not improve EFL learners' fluency of speaking is rejected. That is the treatment could improve fluency after 8 sessions.

The second research question aimed to screen EFL learners' attitudes toward MMT in their classroom. The researcher distributed a questionnaire among the learners in the experimental group and the results are reported in the table below.

Table 8

Descriptive statistics of EFL learners' attitudes toward incorporating MMT

	Items	Mean	SD
1.	I could enrich my speaking using the method	3.01	0.43
2.	I could make the best use of the method in learning speaking skill.	2.33	0.51
3.	I had a good opportunity learning new speaking skills using the method	2.91	0.64
4.	I was motivated to use the method in learning speaking after I was introduced to it	2.78	0.83
5.	I noticed that my ability of speaking have changed after being exposed to the method	2.51	0.91
6.	I could master the speaking skills easily using the method	2.67	0.74
7.	I could talk in English easily using the method	2.98	0.61
8.	I enjoyed speaking using the method	3.06	0.66
9.	I found that it is interesting to use the method in learning speaking	2.98	0.51
10.	I found that the method was suitable for me to improve speaking	2.98	0.40

As indicated in the table 8, most of the mean scores are near the point 3. This table reveals that students found MMT as suitable for improving their speaking skill. They showed interest incorporating MMT in their classroom. Besides, they reported that they have noticed their performance changed after incorporating this task. Figure 1 below represents the schematic representation of the data in detail.

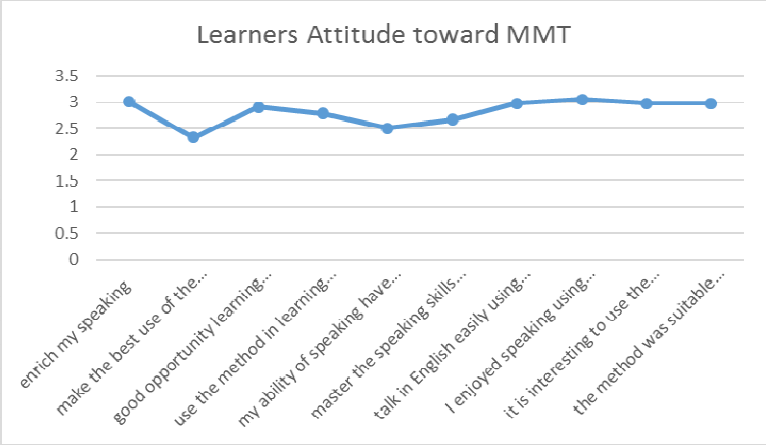

Figure 1. EFL learners' attitudes toward MMT

4. Discussion

This study addressed the effect of oral presentation in the form of monologue memorization, as a speaking task, on learners' oral production in terms of fluency. The findings of the present study echoes Ellis and Yuan (2004) in that it confirms when learners have access to pre-task planners and assign their full attention to linking words and expressions to meaning, this can aid them compose more fluent texts. Furthermore, based on their conclusion pre-task planning foster learners fluency in what follows: 1) it paves the ground for the learners to plan the text as far as organization and content are concerned; and 2) it may foster L2 learners' confidence in writing effectively. In a number of previous studies, it was revealed that some tasks can improve fluency as it was shown by the findings of this study. For example, Foster and Skehan (1996), Skehan and Foster (1999), and Tavakoli and Skehan (2005). On the contrary, Tavakoli and Foster (2008) and Rahimpour and Mehrang (2010) reported that task structure cannot improve fluency. This finding may be justified by what is stated by Tavakoli and Foster (2008). They explained that a task which is monologue makes greater demands on attention resources compared with an interactive task; hence, this demand can decrease fluency. The effectiveness of oral presentation in general and monologue memorization on learners' speaking fluency improvement can be due to the opportunity of learners in repeating the task. This claim is supported by Bygate (1996) who stated that in first performance of a task, learners can familiarize with the content which they should produce and in other performance of the same task, they have sufficient attention resources to devote to selecting and editing appropriate output which may

result in better language production. Another point to be mentioned, as a result of fluency improvement of learners, is providing the learners with planning time. Ellis (2009) and Ahmadian and Tavakoli (2011) claimed that rehearsal and planning can be hypothesized to help fluency development because they assist language learners to enhance their access to their exemplar-based knowledge and even assist learners to make stronger connections between their exemplars. The findings of this study indicated that the learners speaking performance may significantly increase in terms of the fluency. Although there are a number of studies confirming the findings of this study, there seems to be other researchers who may not agree with the findings of this study or the similar ones done in the past. In sum, the issue of the role of monologue memorization tasks in improving the learners' speaking performance may still stay controversial.

Similarly, considering the results of the second research questions, it can be argued that the learner enjoyed MMT. However, some of the learners did not welcome MMT. It should be noted that product-oriented and teacher-centered classes are better to be changed into process-oriented and learner-centered in which personal and group work among students are encouraged. The advantage of this kind of classes is that it allows learners talk in a low-risk environment and makes students become less dependent on the teacher and more dependent on the group for their learning. Thus it can build their self-confidence in using English for meaningful communication. This type of learner-centered learning activity clearly meets the students' needs for an active speech role (Gan, 2012).

Moreover, in terms of the attitude of the learners toward MMT employed in the classroom, it is worth mentioning that the learners did not generally welcome this type of task. It seems that although this task can be cognitive effective on the speaking performance of the learners, it may not be affectively welcomed by the EFL learners in Iranian context. This is due to their educational background. In the EFL context of Iran, students experience 6 year of product oriented approach at school. This is much more becoming for the learners since the feel safer affectively.

5. Conclusions

This paper was an attempt to shed lights on the probable impact of monologue memorization on fostering EFL learners' fluency of speaking. The findings of this study concluded that when EFL learners are asked to memorize a monologue and present it orally in the classroom, they are likely to get some improvements in their fluency of speaking. Since students were exposed to a monologue memorization task, this may enhance their confidence in speaking due to the affective factor. Thus they might feel lee monitoring in speaking.

This is what has been echoed in L2 professional literature in that when affective factors raise, the output would decrease. Thus, a cross sectional study can be conducted to probe their attitude toward incorporating this task in EFL classroom. This research was implemented with the context of Iranian EFL learners at the intermediate level; thus, this finding should be considered with careful caution on learners' fluency. A similar study can be conducted through a longitudinal study with a deeper look on how incorporating monologue memorization can pave the ground for learners' fluency and accuracy of speaking. In addition, a another study can be done to examine the pattern of the improvement of the learners speaking ability in term of lexical development.

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Appendix: IELT Band score for fluency

Band	Fluency and coherence
9	speaks fluently with only rare repetition or self-correction; any hesitation is content-related rather than to find words or grammar speaks coherently with fully appropriate cohesive features develops topics fully and appropriately
8	speaks fluently with only occasional repetition or self-correction; hesitation is usually content-related and only rarely to search for language develops topics coherently and appropriately
7	speaks at length without noticeable effort or loss of coherence may demonstrate language-related hesitation at times, or some repetition and/or self-correction uses a range of connectives and discourse markers with some flexibility
6	is willing to speak at length, though may lose coherence at times due to occasional repetition, self-correction or hesitation uses a range of connectives and discourse markers but not always appropriately
5	usually maintains flow of speech but uses repetition, self-correction and/or slow speech to keep going may over-use certain connectives and discourse markers produces simple speech fluently, but more complex communication causes fluency problems
4	cannot respond without noticeable pauses and may speak slowly, with frequent repetition and self-correction links basic sentences but with repetitious use of simple connectives and some breakdowns in coherence
3	speaks with long pauses has limited ability to link simple sentences gives only simple responses and is frequently unable to convey basic message
2	pauses lengthily before most words little communication possible
1	no communication possible no ratable language
0	does not attend