

ÇUKUROVA UNIVERSITY
THE INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES
DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

AN ANALYSIS OF COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES EMPLOYED BY
TURKISH-SPEAKERS OF ENGLISH

BİLAL GENÇ

DOCTORAL DISSERTATION

ADANA, 2007

ÇUKUROVA UNIVERSITY
THE INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES
DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

AN ANALYSIS OF COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES EMPLOYED BY
TURKISH-SPEAKERS OF ENGLISH

BİLAL GENÇ

Supervisor: Assoc. Prof. Dr. Erdoğan BADA

DOCTORAL DISSERTATION

ADANA, 2007

To Directorate of the Institute of Social Sciences of Cukurova University,
We certify that this dissertation is satisfactory for the award of degree of Doctor of
Philosophy in the subject of English Language Teaching.

Chairperson : Assoc. Prof. Dr. Erdoğan BADA
Supervisor

Member of Examining Committee: Asst. Prof. Dr. Fehmi Can SENDAN

Member of Examining Committee: Asst. Prof. Dr. Meral ATICI

Member of Examining Committee: Asst. Prof. Dr. Hülya YUMRU

Member of Examining Committee: Assoc. Prof. Dr. Hatice SOFU

I certify that this dissertation conforms to the formal standards of the Institute of Social
Sciences. / /

Prof. Dr. Nihat KÜÇÜKSAVAŞ
Director of the Institute

PS. The uncited usage of the reports, charts, figures, and photographs in this
dissertation, whether original or quotes for mother sources, is subject to the Law of
Works of Art and Thought No: 5846.

Not: Bu tezde kullanılan özgün ve başka kaynaktan yapılan bildirişlerin, çizelge, şekil
ve fotoğrafların kaynak gösterilmeden kullanımı 5846 sayılı Fikir ve Sanat Eserleri
Kanunu'ndaki hükümlere tabidir.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express my most sincere gratitude and appreciation to my thesis advisor, Assoc. Prof. Dr. Erdoğan BADA for his invaluable guidance, understanding, excellent suggestions and introducing me to this topic. He has not only guided me in my academic studies but also helped me, as a friend, acquire a new life perspective for the rest of my life.

I feel a deep sense of gratitude for my Ph. D. jury members who provided me constructive feedback and valuable comments: Asst. Prof. Dr. Meral ATICI, Asst. Prof. Dr. Fehmi Can SENDAN, Asst. Prof. Dr. Hasan Bedir, Asst. Prof. Dr. Hülya YUMRU and Assoc. Prof. Dr. Hatice SOFU

My thanks also go to my colleagues, namely, Namık ÜLKERSOY, Kağan BÜYÜKKARCI and Ebru GENÇ for their endless patience, support and encouragement.

My deepest appreciation goes to my parents, Seyit and Nazen, who have supported me with their encouragement, love and understanding in every phase of my life.

I particularly wish to thank my wife, Beyza and my daughters, Dilara and Hümeysra, for their support and for allowing me to spend most of my time on my study instead of being with them.

I would like to thank the Staff of the Institute of Social Sciences for their support.

I would like to thank the Çukurova University Research Fund for their financial support throughout the study (project number: EF 2005 D9).

Finally, thanks to everyone whose names I might have forgotten for their support, cooperation and help to make this study a reality.

I alone am responsible for the shortcomings of what follows

ÖZET

İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRENEN TÜRK ÖĞRENCİLERİN KULLANDIKLARI İLETİŞİM STRATEJİLERİNİN ANALİZİ

Bilal GENÇ

Doktora Tezi, İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı

Danışman: Doç. Dr. Erdoğan BADA

Ağustos, 2007, 89 sayfa

İletişim Stratejileri, konuşmacıların bir mesajı iletmede güçlüklerle karşılaştıkları durumlarda kullandıkları bir yöntemdir. İletişim stratejisi çalışmaları, ikinci dil kullanımını araştıran bir çok uygulamalı dilbilimcinin ilgisini çekmiştir. Bu araştırmacılar, aradıl kullanıcılarının davranışlarındaki düzenlilikleri esas alarak İletişim Stratejileri hakkında çeşitli tanımlar ve sınıflandırmalar ileri sürmüştür. Bazı araştırmacılar, İletişim Stratejisi çalışmalarının daha geniş bir göndergesel iletişimle (belirli bir bağlam içinde anlam kazanan) yapılması gerektiğini düşünmüşlerdir. Bu nedenle, bu araştırmada da bu bakış açısından hareketle, katılımcılara göndergesel iletişim görevleri vererek kullandıkları iletişim stratejileri incelenmiştir.

Sözlü söylemde kullanılan iletişim stratejileri İsveççe, İngilizce, Arapça, Japonca ve Fransızca konuşanlar arasında çeşitli veri toplama teknikleri kullanarak yürütülmüştür. Ancak, bu konu hakkında nitel bir analiz yoluyla Türk konuşmacılar arasında bir çalışma yapılmamıştır. Bu yüzden, bu çalışma, Türk konuşmacıların İngilizce konuşurken kullandıkları iletişim stratejilerini belirlemeyi amaçlamaktadır. Bu amaçla, Çukurova Üniversitesi İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı'ndan 23 birinci sınıf öğrencisine konuşma derslerinde göndergesel iletişim görevleri verilmiştir.

Bu çalışmanın sonuçları, İngilizce konuşan Türk konuşmacıların iki tür strateji kullandıklarını ortaya koymuştur: anadil-tabanlı (dil değiştirme ve kelime-kelime çeviri)

ve yabancı dil-tabanlı (tekrar, kaçınma, başka sözcüklerle ifade etme, yardım isteme ve mimiklerle anlatma) stratejiler. Bunların arasında *tekrar* stratejisinin diğerlerinden çok daha yoğunlukta kullanıldığı gözlemlenmiştir. Çoğunlukla, dolgu amaçlı olmakla birlikte *öz tamir* amaçlı tekrarlar da tüm katılımcıların dil kullanımlarında yer almıştır. Bu çalışmada *Tekrar*'ın başlıca kullanım amacının söze dolgu yapmak olduğu belirlenmişse de *öz tamir* işlevi de göz ardı edilmemiştir. Çünkü, bir konuşmacının kendi hatasını fark edip düzeltmesinin belirli bir düzeydeki dil yetisinin açık bir işaretçisi olduğu kabul edilmektedir.

Anahtar Sözcükler: iletişim stratejisi, sözlü söylem, konuşma, aradil, Türk konuşmacı

ABSTRACT**AN ANALYSIS OF COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES EMPLOYED BY
TURKISH-SPEAKERS OF ENGLISH****Bilal GENÇ****Ph. D. Dissertation, English Language Teaching Department****Supervisor: Assoc. Prof. Dr. Erdoğan BADA****August 2007, 89 pages**

Mostly used when students confront with misunderstanding or some difficulty in carrying over their message to their interlocutors, Communication Strategies (CSs) are used by speakers to compensate for language problems. Communication Strategies (CSs) are used by speakers to compensate for language problems. The study of communication strategies has been the focus of a number of applied linguists whose main concern is the analysis of second-language use. Based on regularities in the behavior of interlanguage users, different definitions and different taxonomies of CSs were offered by these linguists. Some researchers claimed that research on CSs should be embedded in a general framework of referential (signified in a specified context) communication. From this perspective, participants were assigned referential communication tasks in this study.

CSs, employed in the oral discourse, have been studied among speakers of various languages, such as Swedish, English, Arabic, Japanese, and French by using various data collection tools. However, this issue was not studied in Turkish speaker's discourse by means of qualitative analysis. Therefore, this study aims to determine the communication strategies employed by Turkish speakers of English. With this aim in mind, 23 freshman students at Cukurova University ELT Department were assigned referential communication tasks in their speaking classes.

The findings of the study indicate that two types of strategies emerged in the discussion of the participants: L1-based (language switch and literal translation), and L2-based (repetition, avoidance, paraphrase, ask for help, and mime strategies). Among these strategies, frequency of *repetition* strategy in Turkish speakers of English is considerably higher than other strategies. Mostly, filler type repetitions and quite frequent *self-repairs* were observed in the language production of all participants. Although most repetitions functioned as fillers in this study, their self-repair function, though small, cannot not be ignored since detecting one's own mistakes is accepted to be a clear indicator of certain level of language proficiency.

Key Words: communication strategy, oral discourse, speaking, interlanguage, Turkish speaker

TABLE OF CONTENTS

List of Tables	viii
List of Appendices	ix

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1. Introduction.....	1
1.1. Statement of the Problem.....	1
1.2. Background to the Study.....	3
1.3. The Aim of the Study	4
1.4. Research Questions	4
1.5. The Nature and Problems Involved in Classroom Research.....	4
1.6. Operational Definitions.....	6
1.6.1. Speaking	6
1.6.2. Communication.....	6
1.6.3. Interlanguage	7
1.6.4. Discourse Analysis.....	7

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1. The Nature of Communication.....	8
2.2. An Overview of Communication Strategies	11
2.3. Data Elicitation Methods	17
2.3.1. Picture Stories.....	17
2.3.2. Object Describing	18
2.3.3. Conversation with Native Speakers	18
2.3.4. Translation.....	19
2.4. Spoken Language: Functions and Difference from Written Language	20

2.5. Taxonomies of Communication Strategies	20
2.5.1. Language (Code) Switch	24
2.5.2. Avoidance	24
2.5.3. Paraphrase	25
2.5.3.1. Circumlocution	25
2.5.3.2. Approximation	25
2.5.3.3 Word Coinage	26
2.5.3.4. All Purpose Words	26
2.5.4. Literal Translation (Generalization)	26
2.5.5. Ask for Help	27
2.5.6. Repetition	27
2.5.7. Self-Repair	28
2.5.8. Mime	28
2.5.9. Overelaboration	29
2.6. Stages of Interlanguage Development	29

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

3.1. The Design of the Study	31
3.2. Participants	32
3.3. Instrumentation	33
3.4. Procedure	33
3.5. Data Analysis	34
3.6. Transcription Conventions	35

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1. Introduction	36
4.2. An Overall Presentation of the Data	36

4.3. Communication Strategy Use in the discussion on <i>The Cat in the Hat</i>	41
4.3.1. Repetitions in the discussion on <i>The Cat in the Hat</i>	43
4.4. Communication Strategy Use in the discussion on <i>Open Water</i>	45
4.4.1. Repetitions in the discussion on <i>Open Water</i>	48
4.5. Communication Strategy Use in the discussion on <i>The Lion King</i>	50
4.5.1. Repetitions in the discussion on <i>The Lion King</i>	53
4.6. Communication Strategy Use in the discussion on <i>Dead Poets Society</i>	55
4.6.1. Repetitions in the discussion on <i>Dead Poets Society</i>	59
4.7. Communication Strategy Use in the discussion on <i>Dragonfly</i>	60
4.7.1. Repetitions in the discussion on <i>Dragonfly</i>	64
4.8. Communication Strategy Use in the discussion on <i>Bruce Almighty</i>	65
4.8.1. Repetitions in the discussion on <i>Bruce Almighty</i>	69
4.9. Communication Strategy Use in the discussion on <i>Godsend</i>	70
4.9.1. Repetitions in the discussion on <i>Godsend</i>	73

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION

5.1. Research Questions and Findings	81
5.2. Pedagogical implications and conclusions	82
5.3. Limitations and further research	83
REFERENCES	84
APPENDICES	90
CURRICULUM VITAE	97

LIST OF TABLES

Table 2.1. Tarone's (1980) Taxonomy of Communication Strategies	21
Table 2.2. Bialystok's (1990) and Poulish, Bongaerts & Kellerman's (1990) Taxonomy of CSs	21
Table 2.3. Bada's (1993) Taxonomy of CSs	22
Table 2.4. Dörnyei and Scott's (1997) Taxonomy of Communication Strategies	23
Table 4.1. Number of Communication Strategies Employed by Participants (General)	37
Table 4.2. Analysis of Repetition Types in the discussion (General)	38
Table 4.3. Potential Repetition Reasons (General).....	40
Table 4.4. Number of Communication Strategies Employed (The Cat in the Hat)	41
Table 4.5. Analysis of Repetition Types in the Discussion on (The Cat in the Hat)	44
Table 4.6. Potential Repetition Reasons (The Cat in the Hat)	44
Table 4.7. Number of Communication Strategies Employed (Open Water).....	45
Table 4.8. Analysis of Repetition Types in the discussion on (Open Water).....	48
Table 4.9. Potential Repetition Reasons (Open Water)	49
Table 4.10. Number of Communication Strategies Employed (The Lion King)	50
Table 4.11. Analysis of Repetition Types in the Discussion on (The Lion King)	53
Table 4.12. Potential Repetition Reasons (The Lion King).....	54
Table 4.13. Number of Communication Strategies Employed (Dead Poets Society)	55
Table 4.14. Analysis of Repetition Types in the Discussion on (Dead Poets Society)	59
Table 4.15. Potential Repetition Reasons (Dead Poets Society)	59
Table 4.16. Number of Communication Strategies Employed (Dragonfly)	60
Table 4.17. Analysis of Repetition Types in the Discussion on (Dragonfly)	64
Table 4.18. Potential Repetition Reasons (Dragonfly)	65
Table 4.19. Number of Communication Strategies Employed (Bruce Almighty)	66
Table 4.20. Analysis of Repetition Types in the Discussion on (Bruce Almighty)	69
Table 4.21. Potential Repetition Reasons (Bruce Almighty).....	70
Table 4.22. Number of Communication Strategies Employed (Godsend).....	71
Table 4.23. Analysis of Repetition Types in the Discussion on (Godsend)	73
Table 4.24. Potential Repetition Reasons (Godsend)	74
Table 4.25. Comparison of L1-based and L2-based strategies	79

LIST OF APPENDICES

Appendix 1 Extract from the Transcripts of the Discussion on	
<i>The Cat in the Hat</i>	90
Appendix 2 Extract from the Transcripts of the Discussion on	
<i>Open Water</i>	91
Appendix 3 Extract from the Transcripts of the Discussion on	
<i>The Lion King</i>	93
Appendix 4 Comic Strip Watanabe and Gappa (2005) Used in Their Study	96

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

In performing language tasks in and out of the classroom, language learners can employ communication strategies and use such strategies across language skills. It is obvious that L2 users are likely to frequently run into communication problems more often than their L1 counterparts. Therefore, it sounds reasonable to argue that efficient and controlled use of CSs should in principle be an integral part of the strategic behavior that characterizes second language (L2) learners (Manchon, 2000).

The language devices applied to overcome communication problems have been the target of extensive research in various subfields of applied linguistics, and researchers have provided various taxonomies of communications strategies (CSs) but there have been very few studies providing a detailed analysis of the strategies L2 speakers employ when encountering communication difficulties (Dörnyei & Kormos, 1998).

There are two kinds of difficulties faced in communication: difficulties in expressing messages and understanding messages expressed by other people. In this study we will focus on the former type and study what learners do when they encounter a difficulty in expressing the message. In other words, this study aims at surveying some features of communication strategies in coping with communication difficulties in a target language situation.

In this study, we will take the position that assigning referential tasks in speaking is a practical and effective pedagogical tool for communicative language teaching. This way, we would be able to provide learners with a platform of authentic use of language, as well as opportunities to learn and practice English.

1.1. Statement of the Problem

Lack of communication, even in speaking classes at foreign language departments leads to inability to communicate in a native-like way even after many long years spent

learning the target language. The problems are partly due to the fact that there is a great number of students who teachers are expected to get to speak in a rather limited period of classroom time. Yet, even in a classroom time, teachers would be able to assign tasks giving opportunities for communication (Flyman, 1997). The majority of Turkish EFL (English as a Foreign Language) learners even at tertiary level share a number of characteristics regarding their oral performance and their attitude towards it. Although they have been introduced to the main grammatical forms and their functions, and they possess a relatively wide vocabulary, they still display some negative features such as:

- being reluctant to use the L2 for spontaneous interaction in the classroom
- tending to abandon their effort to communicate in the L2 and they resort to either L1 (native language) or silence when they encounter any problems.
- appealing (invariably in L1) to the teacher to provide them with the 'correct' lexical item or structure.

Although students are taught classes aiming to develop all the four skills, they still feel that classroom-based speaking practice does not prepare them for the real world. This is because mostly speaking classes consist of language practice activities focusing on specific grammar points, information-gap activities or discussions on an assigned topic. None of these activities teaches patterns of real interaction. So what can we do in the classroom to prepare students for real interaction?

It is a fact that L2 users meet communication problems more than L1 users is a fact which leads to the conclusion that the efficient use of CS should be an integral part of L2 users' speech (Manchon, 2000).

Spoken language has both interactional and transactional characteristics (Brown and Yule, 1983b), but on which points should teachers focus in class? Brown and Yule (1983a) suggest that when teaching spoken language teachers should focus on teaching longer transactional turns because students need to be able to communicate information efficiently whether in their country or in a native-speaker country. That is why participants in this study were asked to make comments on emerging themes of movies they had watched. This way, participants were given the opportunity to develop their listening skills. As Ridgeway (1999) puts it, conversation or other interactive speech situations are great means to practice listening comprehension and speaking, in which case learners face reality rather than imaginary characters in imaginary texts.

Group discussions are effective means of teaching speaking in foreign language classrooms because they require the use of language in real time; and they allow

language to be used in a relatively natural situation of turn taking. Thus, they bridge the gap between controlled language learning and the uncertainties of the outside world in which genuine communicative situations occur. Group discussions are also important in that they provide much speaking time to students. If the aim of speaking is communication and if it is obvious that communication does not require perfect English, then it makes sense to try to increase the quantity of communication practices in classrooms. We might get students to communicate with each other using 'correct' or 'non-correct' English.

CSs, employed in the oral discourse, have been studied among speakers of various languages. However, this issue was not studied in Turkish speaker's discourse by means of qualitative analysis. Therefore, this study aims to determine the communication strategies employed by Turkish speakers of English.

1.2. Background to the Study

Often spontaneous, open-ended, and evolving, speaking is an interactive process of constructing meaning that involves producing, receiving and processing information (Florez, 1999). One of the least developed skills of L2 learners is the ability of speaking, whereby many L2 learners believe that speaking ability is the most important measure of knowing a language. They believe that maintaining a fluent conversation with others is much more important than reading, writing or comprehending spoken language. That speaking is accepted as a product of language learning rather than an important process in language learning seems to be a common belief which leads students to consider it as a difficult faculty. Therefore, it is instructors' task to help students not only expand their knowledge of the language but also their confidence in using it.

Among the most important aims of the speaking class is to help students become more confident and successful communicators; at the end of the course, the students are expected to be able to take risks and maintain a natural conversation or discussion. Students are not only expected to experience classroom dialogues but also real life interaction. As Donald (2005) suggests, students need to be competent at both 'message-oriented' or transactional language and interactional language, language for maintaining social relationships.

From preparatory and freshman students to senior and graduate students, it is an obligation for students to express their ideas, whether in open discussion or in formal presentation, through clear and persuasive speech.

When students confront with misunderstanding or some difficulty in carrying over their message to their interlocutors, Communication Strategies (CSs) are used by speakers to compensate for language problems. Communication Strategies help those non-native speakers in coping with language structures that they have problems with. Employing CSs, students could communicate successfully with other speakers both in formal and informal situations (Flyman, 1997; Gabrielatos, 2004; Kocoglu, 1997; Konishi & Tarone, 2004; Manchon, 2000).

1.3. The Aim of the Study

The principal aim of this study is to describe the CSs employed by Turkish speakers of English conducting their in-classroom-speaking activities. We would like to analyze CSs in accordance with a pre-determined taxonomy. Following, we will display to what extent Turkish students are effective communicators, and what improvement they exhibited at the end of the semester in terms of effective CSs use. Following research questions are formulated in relation to the aim of the study.

1.4. Research Questions

The present study seeks to find answers to the following research questions:

1. What kinds of communication strategies do Turkish speakers of English employ?
2. To what extent do Turkish speakers employ L1-based and/or L2-based strategies?
3. What differences occur in terms of frequency in CSs use between the beginning and the end of the academic term?

1.5. The Nature of and Problems Involved in Classroom Research

Language classroom research has been conducted through diverse data collection and analysis procedures. While in the early days of classroom research since the focus was

on teacher training, observation instruments were used focusing primarily on teacher's behavior; as language classroom research in today's classrooms has become more deeply involved in issues of language learning, interaction among learners and teachers has become the new focal point. Without doubt, some changes has followed this change in focus; therefore, there is a decrease in the use of observation schedules and an increase in the use of discourse analysis and transcribed data (Allwright & Bailey, 1991).

In published discourse studies, a wide variety of elicitation procedures have been used including picture description, personal narrative, story retelling, procedural events, and conversation. It was found that elicitation procedure affects the discourse of the subjects and discourse performance affects the type and the content of information generated.

Although discourse analysts typically use transcripts and audio/videotaped interactions as their data base (Allwright & Bailey, 1991), the spoken language has hardly been analyzed directly so far; it is often analyzed from written transcriptions (Lemke, 1998). Some analysts use transcripts and accompanying videotapes in order to document the nonverbal channel of communication. We also followed the same procedure because nonverbal channel is yet another way of communication strategy use.

Producing transcripts has its own peculiar disadvantages. In the first place, it is well known that producing a high quality transcript even if you use standard orthography is a time-consuming task. Secondly, transcription at the level of the word also erases information about emphasis, value-orientation, degree of certainty or doubt, attitude of surprise or expectability, irony, humor, emotional force, speaker identity, and speaker dialect or language background (Lemke, 1998).

Another problem involved in classroom research is what is called as "observer's paradox", a phrase which was used by Labov (1972), and could be glossed as the difficulty of extracting natural speech from informants in order to analyze contemporary patterns of use. When a linguist wants to have an interview with a native speaker or conduct a classroom research, the participant(s) of such a study, being aware that everything they say is to be analyzed, often alter their speech. This is a major handicap for a researcher, yet the researcher can overcome this handicap with patience, by visiting the classroom frequently, familiarizing the subject and intrusive data collection devices with the participants, making himself/herself available to the participants before and after observation, and maintaining an openness to the people involved in the study.

Thus, the participants will probably accustom to the researcher (Allwright & Bailey, 1991) and thus produce more natural data.

1.6. Operational Definitions

1.6.1 Speaking

Speaking is expressing yourself easily or can be characterized by clear expressive language through the use of uttered sounds for auditory communication. When we learn a language, there are four skills that we need for complete communication. When we learn our native language, we usually learn to listen first, then to speak, then to read, and finally to write. These are called the four “language skills”. In order to achieve a good command of the language, it is important that the students master all these language skills. We might also bear in mind that while writing, reading and listening are important parts of language learning, they do not on their own enable the individual to produce spoken English fluently and accurately. A considerable amount of practice is to be conducted before the gap between recognition and production is bridged (Donald, 2005).

1.6.2. Communication

Communication is the exchange of thoughts, messages, or information, as by speech, signals, writing, or behavior. Language and communication are at the heart of human experience, whether communication takes place face-to-face, in writing, or across centuries through reading literature. Language is the development of basic form of communication between human beings, and in a society. We cannot communicate in any real sense without language, other than through gestures; we do communicate through some non-verbal forms like visual arts, but the culmination of true communication is through language (Açıkgoz, 2003).

1.6.3. Interlanguage

An “interlanguage” is a structured grammatical system, constructed by the learner, which approximates the grammatical system of the language being acquired. As acquisition proceeds, the interlanguage system evolves into a better approximation of the standard system.

In the process of acquiring a second language, language learners may acquire forms of language that are in between native language (L1) and L2. This can happen when, for example, they incorrectly apply rules of their native language to the target language, or when they may not have completely learned the full extent or limitations of a rule’s use and so misapply the rule systemically.

1.6.4. Discourse Analysis

With its wide range of meanings discourse analysis stands for a number of approaches to analyzing the language use above the sentence or clause level either written or spoken. The term discourse analysis first entered general use as the title of a paper published by Zellig Harris (1952; cited in Demo, 2005).

The term now is used to describe research pertaining not only to pure linguistics context but also to diverse disciplines such as sociology, anthropology, and psychology. Although there are a few various disciplines involved in discourse analysis, and the scholars working centrally in these different disciplines tend to concentrate on different aspect of discourse, they all view language as social interaction, and are concerned with the social contexts in which discourse is embedded (Demo, 2005; Brown & Yule, 1983b). Contrary to much of traditional linguistics, discourse analysts not only study language use beyond the sentence boundary, but also prefer to analyze naturally occurring language use, and not invented examples.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. The Nature of Communication

Communication is defined as the management of messages for the purpose of creating meaning. Communication refers to the transmission of information (a ‘message’) between a source and receiver using a signaling system: in linguistic contexts, source and receiver are interpreted in human terms, the system involved is a language, and the notion of response to (or acknowledgement of) message becomes of crucial importance. In theory, communication is said to have taken place if the information received is the same as that sent. Human communication may take place using any of the available sensory modes (hearing, sight, etc.) (Rajendran, 2006). While early research focused on characteristics of speakers, seeking to understand variables associated with persuasiveness, contemporary research examines factors which influence interpersonal communication.

In the social sciences, communication is a term used to designate a special category of human behavior (Robillard, 2005). Generally seeking answers to such questions as “What are the basic elements of communication” or “Can we associate those elements with some principles”, philosophical tradition focusing on communication theory deals with communication at two levels: micro communication (between individuals) and macro communication (between societies). These two levels, however, are not separate from each other (Açıkgöz, 2003). According to some theories of communication, communication must be directed towards another person or entity. This essentially ignores intrapersonal communication which is conducted through diaries or self-talk. Thus one important goal for communication research becomes to explain not only how communication occurs within particular settings but also how communication differs across settings: 1) Intrapersonal, 2) Interpersonal, 3) Group, 4) Organizational, and 5) Societal (Public and Mass).

Interpersonal communication is the process of sending and receiving information or communication with another person. Interpersonal communication involves four

basic elements; sender: person who sends information; receiver; person who receives the information sent; message: content of information sent by sender; and response: feedback from receiver.

Those working on communication theory believe that the complexity of communication is evolving in that both the substance and structure of the communication are changing. Human beings, therefore, are forced to develop their communicative competence for a more successful communication (Leydesdorff, 2000). This accounts for the fact that early computer translation experiments discovered that natural language is ambiguous and nonlinear, and that each symbol can have multiple meanings. In addition to ambiguity in language and multiple meanings a symbol might have, humans often experience communicative breakdowns due to the following reasons:

- Not understanding the language: Verbal and non-verbal messages are in a different language. This includes not understanding the jargon or idioms used by another sub-culture or group.
- Not understanding the context: Not knowing the history of the occasion, relationship, or culture.
- Obfuscation: Intentionally delivering an obscure or confusing message.
- Distraction: Inadequate attention to processing a message. This is not limited to live conversations or broadcasts. Any person may improperly process any message if they do not focus adequately.
- Improper feedback and clarification: In asynchronous communication, neglecting to give immediate feedback may lead to larger misunderstandings. Questions and acknowledgment such as (“what?”) or (“I see”) are typical feedback mechanisms.

While the philosophical tradition considers language as a set of sentences used by a speech community for communication, Chomsky considers it an individual/species property, but not one that can be attributed to a community. Moreover, for Chomsky communication always depends on inferences and is not the primary function of language (Smith, 1999).

To carry on with linguistic ideas on communication, Jakobson, a Russian thinker who became one of the most influential linguists of the 20th century by pioneering the development of structural analysis of language, poetry, and art, argued that the act of

communication existing out of six essential parts: the addresser (or the sender), the addressee (or the receiver), the context, the message, the contact and the code:

The *addresser* sends a message to the addressee. To be operative the message requires a context referred to ('referent' in another, somewhat ambiguous nomenclature), seizable by the addressee, and either verbal or capable of being verbalized; a code fully, or at least partially, common to the addresser and the addressee... and, finally, a contact, a physical channel and psychological connection between the addresser and the addressee, enabling both of them to enter and stay in communication (Jacobson, 1960: 353; qtd in Hawthorn, 1992).

The focus within the verbal message on one of the six factors creates a message corresponding to one of the following six functions:

1. Emotive (or expressive: focuses upon the addresser which is exemplified in the form of an interjections)
2. Conative (appellative - ordering, begging: emphasis on addressee. The most significant characteristics of conative function is that it is not liable to a truth test.)
3. Metalingual (linguistic: focus on code. For example when we ask an addresser to explain what he or she means by a particular word.)
4. Poetic (focus on the message itself for its own sake)
5. Referential (denotative - journalistic: focus on context)
6. Phatic (with an emphasis on contact, clearing channel for communication)

According to Jacobson's model and the six factors corresponding to the six functions of the model, in our study we observe the referential function, which could be considered quite normal because the participants were assigned a referential communication task.

Communication can take place not only necessarily with language, we can communicate without language as well. Language, however, helps to constrain the inferential process to make it easier for the hearer to guess the interlocutor's intention. The difference between non-linguistic communication and linguistic communication is like the difference between drawing a picture using only black and white colors and drawing another picture using various colors, with resulting differences in precision.

2.2. An Overview of Communication Strategies

To enable learners to be ‘communicatively competent’ or ‘communicatively efficient’ is the motto of modern language teaching policies. In other words, the most commonly expressed aim of modern language teaching is to encourage students to become competent communicators.

Communication, philosophically, psychologically and linguistically is a very complex process. Linguistic, philosophical and psychological literature on communication provides different definitions for communication. They deal with epistemological, metaphysical, ethical issues in communication; the relationship between communication and identity; the nature of language, and the role that symbols play in communication. Yet, for our purposes, we are going to define communication as a process of exchanging information usually via a common system of symbols.

It was not until the 1970s that researchers became aware of the systematic language phenomena which occurred when L2 speakers’ linguistics resources and communicative intentions mismatched. In fact, even when one analyze fragments of spontaneous L2 oral discourse, s/he observes frequent use of CSs. That is why understanding the nature of strategic language use has been an important research direction in the last three decades and a wealth of literature has accumulated not only on the nature of CSs but also on taxonomies of strategic language devices, variation in CSs use and practical implications of CSs research (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997). The term communication strategy was introduced into the literature of applied and theoretical linguistics by the seminal study of Selinker (1972) titled *Interlanguage*. Selinker lists five factors that directly affect the output of the interlanguage system:

1. Language transfer: fossilizable items, rules, subsystems that occur in the interlanguage as a result of transfer from the native language.
2. Transfer of training: items resulting from particular approaches used in training.
3. Strategies of second language learning: identifiable approaches by the learner to the material being learned.
4. *Strategies of second-language communication*: identifiable approaches by the learner to communication with native speakers of the target language (italics are researcher’s).

5. Overgeneralization of target language linguistic material:
overgeneralization of target language rules and Semantic features

As can be seen, Selinker did not handle CSs in detail; but, since then much research has been conducted on *communication strategies* (CS), the means used to overcome some difficulty in expressing an intended meaning. While some studies aimed at the identification and classification of linguistic materials produced by the speakers in case of a gap between communicative intentions and the speakers' linguistics resources (Tarone, 1980; Færch & Kasper, 1980), other studies tried to investigate the psychological processes underlying the use of communication strategies (Bialystok, 1990; Poulishse, Bongaerts, Kellerman, 1990).

Interlanguage is the result of the interaction among many language acquisition device factors in any two (or three in multilingual situations) languages developing more or less simultaneously. This linguistic behavior is described similarly by many researchers in second-language acquisition and bilingualism studies. First coined by Larry Selinker in 1972, the term has been expanded by many other researchers: for example Sharwood Smith (1994) describes Interlanguage as systematic non-native linguistic behaviour which shows that non-native speakers possess their own language system and they are speakers of a sort of dialect of the language. Interlanguage may be viewed as an adaptive strategy in which the speaker tries to speak the interlocutor's L1 although he has little proficiency in it (Duran, 1994). The idea of interlanguage is founded upon the assumption that an L2 learner, at any particular moment in his/her learning sequence, is using a language system which is neither the L1, nor the L2. As Bada (1993) argues, "interlanguage refers to a separate linguistic system independent of both native and target languages" (p.9). With its own grammar, its own lexicon and so on, it is a third language. The rules used by the L2 learner are to be found in neither the learner's own mother tongue, nor in the Target Language.

Unlike the behaviorist approaches of the 50s and 60s which argued that learners' errors could be predicted by comparing and contrasting the grammars of the native and target languages (where there were differences, errors might emerge), interlanguage suggests that although transfer occurs, it is more complex than as argued by the behaviorist scholars. Transfer occurs either consciously as a deliberate communication strategy where there is a gap in the learner's knowledge or unconsciously because the correct form is not known or could not be recalled or it has been completely automatized (Benson, 2002).

Benson (2002) goes on arguing why transfer is a complex phenomenon: that transfer is not the only reason for error, nor does it always lead to error. Occurring at syntactic, phonological, and lexical levels, transfer

- a. might be facilitative in that where two languages are identical positive transfer occurs;
- b. can result in avoidance where a structure does not exist in the L1;
- c. can lead to different rates of development by either delaying or accelerating the acquisition of L2;
- d. can lead not only to different rates but also to different routes of acquisition; and
- e. can result in over production.

In addition to transfer from L1, another factor effective on the interlanguage of a learner is markedness: the unique nature of interlanguage, then, is characterized by “the interplay between language-specific transfer factors and nonlanguage specific universal development factors” (Major, 1998:132). Finally, we should always bear in mind that “the L2 learner’s grammar is to be judged as an L2 system in its own right, not against that of the native speaker” (Cook, 2002: 9).

Metaphorically speaking Sharwood Smith (1994) argues that Interlanguage means the events that can be observed and recorded. It is not the invisible language system which must exist somewhere in the mind of the user. It is like “bees and beehives that we can see, touch, hear and smell not the principles that dictate their shape and determine all fascinating activities that we can observe” (p.8). The “language” part of the term suggests that this is something related with an autonomous linguistics system and “inter” part of the term suggests that this is an intermediate stage in the user’s linguistic development.

Ellis (1985) explains interlanguage as the theoretical construct which underlies the attempts of SLA researchers to identify the stages of development through which L2 learners pass on their way to L2 proficiency. According to Ellis, learners do not progress from zero knowledge of a target rule to perfect knowledge of the rule. They progress through a series of interim or developmental stages on their way to target language competence.

Sharwood Smith (1994) suggests that the major findings of second language acquisition and interlanguage studies are that second language acquisition is not easily understood because it is a complex process but having a great deal of systematicity, it is

not random and that a major goal for researchers is to determine how and where fossilization takes place. Selinker coined the term *fossilization* to refer to non-target forms becoming fixed in the interlanguage. Selinker defines the term as:

Fossilizable linguistic phenomena are linguistic items, rules, and subsystems which speakers of a particular L1 tend to keep in their IL relative to a particular TL, no matter what the age of the learner or amount of explanation and instruction he receives in the TL (Selinker, 1972; qtd. in Han, 2004:215)

In this context, studies of communication strategies seem to play an important role. Through elicited narratives via controlled methods such as translation tasks, picture descriptions, video/audio tape analyses, identifying familiar objects, researchers might be able to determine fossilized items at morphological, phonological, lexical and syntactical levels.

It is well-known that communication involves cooperation on the part of the addresser and the addressee, so speakers of a language do adopt both receptive and productive communication strategies. Focusing on the latter, most of CSs research investigated the productive strategies of language learners interacting with native speakers of the target language with the assumption that the interlocutor has perfect command of the language system and of the topic of discourse (Corder, 1986).

Lessard-Clouston (1997) holds that it is after Canale and Swain's (1980) seminal work in which they recognized the importance of communication strategies as a key aspect of strategic competence, a number of studies have been carried out. Canale and Swain's definition of communicative competence has four sub-categories: grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence and strategic competence. Grammatical competence has the same effect with linguistic competence, which focuses on literal meaning of communication. Sociolinguistic competence is the capacity to match register to situation. Discourse competence refers to the ability to link and make the suitable interaction in a coherent way. *Strategic competence helps to enhance the effectiveness of communication and compensating for breakdowns in communication* (italics are researcher's).

Due to differing theoretical perspectives, researchers have disagreed on the question of whether such strategy training is beneficial. While some (Gabrielatos, 2004; Dörnyei, 1995; Kocoglu, 1997) advocated the teaching of CSs, some (Konishi &

Tarone, 2004) believe that what could be taught are the resources in L2 that learners need in order to use CSs because learners are already aware of these strategies such as circumlocution, approximation and word coinage. Canale (1983) also points to two possible objections to teaching of communication strategies: 1) they are universal and 2) they are picked up in mastering the first language. Yet, Canale (1983) holds that even though a general strategy such as *paraphrasing* is indeed universal and is used in first language communication, learners must be shown how such a strategy can be employed in second language use, and they must be encouraged to use such strategies instead of remaining silent.

Communication strategies are the steps taken by language learners in order to enhance the effectiveness of their communication (Littlemore, 2003; Canale, 1983) or to compensate for breakdowns in communication caused by momentary inability to recall an idea (Canale, 1983). Mostly, the ‘obstacle’ in communication seems to be a vocabulary item, which has not been learnt, or cannot be recalled. “This ‘improvisation’ or device is a Communication Strategy and has been the object of much research in the SLA and Sociolinguistic fields since the late seventies” (Andrioti, 2005). L2 learners continually find themselves in situations for which they lack the vocabulary to express certain desires or needs. In such cases, learners employ communication strategies like paraphrasing in order to negotiate a shared meaning.

Cohen (1998), while advocating the strategy training in second language programs, warns us not to confuse language learning strategies and communication strategies because communication strategies are used in speaking and writing with the sole intention of language use.

Arguing for the teaching of at least some of CSs Rabab’ah (2004) explains the benefits of consciousness-raising of some strategies as:

- communication strategies can lead to learning by eliciting unknown language items from the interlocutor, especially in the appeal for help strategy;
- communication strategies are part of language use. Even native speakers use communication strategies in their speech and use time-gaining devices in order to keep the conversation going, such as “*you know*”, “*what do you call it?*”, and other strategies; and finally,

- the use of a communication strategy is not an indication of communication failure; on the contrary, it can be very successful in compensating for the lack of linguistic knowledge.

Manchon (2000) also has some important arguments in favor of training the students in the use of CSs. Firstly, strategic competence is part of the learner's communicative competence (which is composed of linguistic, sociolinguistics, discourse and strategic competence). In order to enhance the communicative competence of learners, Manchon states that L2 teaching should include the development of the student's use of CSs.

We, however, agree with Ellis (1984) who suggests "Whereas a learner who paraphrases extensively but does not avoid is to be considered a better performer than one who avoids extensively, a learner who neither avoids nor paraphrases is to be considered better still" (p. 44). Referential communications tasks, as advocated by (Brown & Yule, 1983a) and exposure to language help learners become more like native speakers.

Yet doing research in the strategies and inferring implications for speaking in ELT classes we need to always bear in mind the caution expressed by Little (2005): "The greatest single danger inherent in the current interest in strategies is that it may generate pedagogical techniques as crude in their assumptions as those that are sometimes still employed to teach grammar."

One of the most significant differences between L1 and L2 speaking processes is that the L2 learner has more than one language at his/her disposal. Thus, the learners may make use of either L1 or L2 cognitive operations when s/he produces utterances in the target language.

Pertaining to the issue of differences between learning strategies and communication strategies, we could state that while learning strategies are the effort learners make in order to improve their already-existing competence of L2, and communication strategies are resorted to by learners to compensate for their shortcomings and incompetence in the target language. From what we gather from this difference is that, while learning strategies are employed to improve the performance prior to communication, CSs are resorted to during actual communication. Secondly, while LSs require planning and are usually conscious processes (Oxford 1990), CSs are employed in time of difficulty, consciously or unconsciously, to save the moment.

2.3. Data Elicitation Methods

In the brief history of communication strategy research, several kinds of reference tasks have been used to elicit CSs from speech production. In this section we will present information about various data elicitation methods employed in CS research. Employing the data elicitation methods (mentioned below), researchers have tried to find out task effect, variation according to proficiency level and gender of learners, the effectiveness of various CSs types or potential benefit of CSs training.

2.3.1. Picture Stories

Concrete picture description has always been a readily available task used in both first and second language research. In a picture-story-kind of data collection Ellis (1984) asked participants to tell the story depicted in the picture. Each of the participants was audio-recorded and then transcriptions in normal orthography were prepared. In her study, Flyman (1997) employed picture stories as well. Just like Ellis' study, the subjects in Flyman's were asked to retell a story that was presented in a series of pictures with no speech involved. Watanabe and Gappa (2005) used a comic strip in their study. They allowed three minutes for the subjects to prepare for the task before a maximum of four minutes were given to tell the story first in Japanese and a week later in English. They asked the subjects to make a story out of the comic strip referring to every detail so that anyone could vividly imagine what they were saying (See Appendix 8 for the strip). They also conducted a retrospective interview after the subjects finished the task.

Besides a picture story, Dobao (2005) also asked her subjects to describe a photograph in as much detail as possible. Since the pictures and the photograph were pre-determined by the researcher, they provided a constant pre-selected content to be communicated by all the learners, a factor which facilitates comparative analyses of the data. Some of the scholars used picture stories are Rossiter (2003), who conducted a study on adult learners; and Rabab'ah (2004), who conducted a study on Arab learners of English in Jordan.

What is important in assigning a picture task is to make sure that these real world objects are related to the vocabulary unknown to participants, thus it creates lexical gaps in learners' communication prompting the use of CSs (Wongsawang, 2001).

2.3.2. Object Describing

In object description tasks the researchers generally favored less familiar items for the participants because if the entities are familiar the participants could produce single-word labels or short phrases, thus fewer number of CSs could be elicited (Yule, 1997). In Watanabe and Gappa's (2005) study, pictures of concrete objects were shown to the study participants; each participant chose two pictures randomly from a total of nine and then s/he was asked to describe the pictures following a minute of preparation. Instead of showing pictures to the participants, Littlemore (2003) gave a booklet containing fifteen test items (most of which depicting plants and animals) to the participant. Thanks to a pre-test, Littlemore made sure that the names of the items would be unknown to the majority of the participants. She chose so many items from nature because they would permit the use of a variety of CSs. In addition to these data elicitation techniques, in a study conducted on the use of CSs by native speakers of English, Konishi and Tarone (2004) asked participants to explain to a foreigner concepts involving human beings (bursar, caretaker), animals (rhinoceros, ostrich), plants (oak, lavender), etc.

2.3.3. Conversation with Native Speakers

In her study on Spanish learners' CSs usage, Bou-Franch (1994) arranged a conversation between native speakers of English and Spanish speakers of English; namely the task she assigned aimed to elicit oral data. In order to identify CSs properly, she also asked learners to take part in a retrospective session with herself. Another technique was presented by Kocoglu (1997) in her study where she paired Turkish learners of English and native speakers to provide 20 conversations, which were also audio taped and transcribed. Another conversation task was also assigned by Dobao

(2005) in order to obtain a sample of oral language that could be considered as an example of normal everyday communication. Her aim was to engage the students in a conversation with herself in which they could talk about personal topics of interest and shift freely from topic to topic as in normal social interaction. She also conducted a retrospective interview with each of the participants one day after the accomplishment of the communicative tasks. In order to elicit speakers' intuitions on their oral productions, students were asked to look at the transcripts of their performance and to point out to the interviewer all those communication problems they had experienced as a result of a lexical deficiency and the strategic techniques they had used to solve them.

2.3.4. Translation

In her study of Swede learners of French, Flyman (1997) assigned the subjects to translate five Swedish sentences into French. She argued that the sentences were of average difficulty and contained some words and structures that were likely to cause problems for the level of her subjects. She told the subjects to translate the sentences into French, then another student was to translate the related sentence into Swedish again. A kind of translation task was also assigned in a study conducted by Wongsawang (2001) in which the researcher prepared situations where participants had to use English in explaining some Thai cultural specific notions. Translation tasks as these are usually preferred since they allow the researcher to have an almost absolute control over the choice and content of the task. This and previously mentioned techniques are by no means the only means of eliciting data. Researchers keep introducing new ways adding this continuously growing field of research.

2.4. Spoken Language: Functions and Difference from Written Language

According to Brown and Yule (1983b), while admitting that the use of one function does not necessarily mean the total exclusion of the other, there two basic functions of language: the function which serves to convey the content is called *transactional*, and the other used to express social relations and personal attitudes is called *interactional*.

Bygate (2003) holds that research in language has provided us with three justifications for the study of speaking in its own right:

1. Discourse-based and corpus-based approaches to language study have identified a number of oral genres and sub-genres which are characterized by patterns of discourse and lexico-grammatical features which are quite distinct from those of written discourse.
2. Developmental research shows that both first and second language abilities are commonly quite distinct in individual speakers: it is quite frequent for second language users to differ significantly in their oral and written use of the lexico-grammar of a second language, and similar differences are not uncommon in first language development.
3. There is abundant evidence of significant socio-psychological differences between the processing of speech and writing which underlie these differences in genre and ability.

2.5. Taxonomies of Communication Strategies

Communication Strategies (CSs) research is not immune from controversies: there is no universally accepted definition of CSs leading to the emergence of several competing taxonomies of CSs (Dörnyei & Scott, 1997). The taxonomy of Communication strategies is a two-fold process: in the first place there are two kinds of approaches treating CSs quite differently (Andrioti, 2005). While Tarone (1980) defines CSs as “mutual attempts of two interlocutors to agree on meaning in situation where the requisite meaning structures do not seem to be shared” (p.420) and expounds an interactional approach; the advocates of the cognitive approach Bialystok and Kellerman suggest looking at the underlying processes and define communication strategies as *linguistic* and *conceptual*; *conceptual* strategies are later divided into *holistic* and *analytic* strategies.

Similarly, Bou-Franch (1994) distinguishes contributions to the scope of communications strategy as *linguistic approach* (she lists the studies of Tarone (1980), Færch and Kasper (1980), and Paribakht (1985) in this category) and *cognitive approach* of which Poullisse, Bongaerts and Kellerman (1990), and Bialystok (1990) are the major advocates.

The scholars in the latter group criticize traditional taxonomies on the grounds of psychological credibility; for example Kellerman believes that some of the strategies display same underlying process so they should not be classified under different headings even if they have different linguistics realizations (cited in Flyman, 1997).

Here are some examples of the CSs taxonomies as offered by eminent scholars:

Table 2.1. Tarone's (1980) Taxonomy of Communication Strategies

1. Avoidance	2. Paraphrase	3. Conscious Transfer	4. Appeal for Assistance	5. Mime
• Topic Avoidance • Message Abandonment	• Approximation • Word Coinage • Circumlocution	• Literal Translation • Code Switch		

While some scholars such as Dörnyei and Scott (1997), classify CSs as Direct, Interactional and Indirect strategies, some talk about binary systems such as L1 based strategies, L2 based strategies (Bada, 1993); conceptual analysis and code control (Bialystok, 1990; Poulisse, Bongaerts, & Kellerman, 1990).

Table 2.2. Bialystok's (1990) and Poulisse, Bongaerts & Kellerman's (1990) Taxonomy of CSs

Analysis Based (ANCO) Strategies	Control Based (COCO) Strategies
• Paraphrase • Word coinage • Mime	• Language (Code) switch • Appeal for assistance (Request for help) • Linguistic word coinage • Ostensive definition • Transfer

Table 2.3. Bada's (1993) Taxonomy of CSs

L1 Based Strategies	L2 Based Strategies
• Language Switch • Foreignizing Native Language Items • Transliteration (Literal Translation)	• Epenthesis • Word Coinage • Paraphrasing • Restructuring • Avoidance • Appeal to Authority • Prefabricated Pattern • Overelaboration

In Table 2.4 below, we could see taxonomy of communication strategies offered by Dörnyei and Scott. This taxonomy is the most comprehensive one among the nine different taxonomies offered by Tarone (1980), Færch & Kasper (1980), Bialystok (two different taxonomies: one in 1983 and one in 1990), Paribakht (1985), Willems (1987), Nijmegen Group, Poullisse (1990), and by Dörnyei & Scott (1997).

Table 2.4. Dörnyei and Scott's (1997: 197) Taxonomy of Communication Strategies

Direct Strategies	Interactional Strategies	Indirect strategies
Resource-Deficit related Strategies • Message Abandonment • Message Reduction • Message Replacement • Circumlocution • Approximation • Use of all-purpose words • Word Coinage • Restructuring • Literal Translation • Foreignizing • Code switching • Use of similar sounding words • Mumbling • Omission • Retrieval • Mime	Resource-Deficit related Strategies • Appeals for help	Processing time pressure related strategies • Use of fillers • Repetitions
Own-performance problem-related strategies • Self-rephrasing • Self-repair	Own-performance problem-related strategies • Comprehension check • Own-accuracy check	Own-performance problem-related strategies • Verbal strategy makers
Other-performance problem-related strategies • Other-repair	Other-performance problem-related strategies • Asking for repetition • Asking for clarification • Asking for confirmation • Guessing • Expressing non-understanding	Other-performance problem-related strategies • Feigning understanding

The most noticeable of these strategies are Language (Code) Switch, Avoidance, Paraphrase, Literal Translation, Ask For Help, Repetition, Mime, and Overelaboration. Below, we will deal with each of these strategies.

2.5.1. Language (Code) Switch

The speaker, knowing more than one linguistic code, switches to a different one to express the meaning. As with other strategies, code switch is most employed in situations where the present competence of speakers in the target language would not suffice to them to communicate their ideas with or in a target language; and language switch is very common with lexical items rather than with other domains of language (Bada, 1993). Flyman-Mattson and Burenhult (1999) list five factors influencing and explaining code switching in the second language classroom:

1. Linguistic insecurity, e.g. the difficulty teachers experience in relating new concepts.
2. Topic switch, i.e. when the teacher switches code according to which topic is under discussion; it might be suggested, for instance, that certain aspects of foreign language teaching such as grammar instruction, is preferably expressed in the mother tongue of the students.
3. Affective functions, e.g. spontaneous expression of emotions and emotional understanding in discourse with students.
4. Socializing functions, i.e. when teachers turn to the students' first language to signal friendship and solidarity.
5. Repetitive functions, i.e. when teachers convey the same message in both languages for clarity.

2.5.2. Avoidance

Avoidance strategies refer to all those techniques by which the speakers, lacking the necessary target language item to convey the originally intended message, does not make reference to it (Dobao, 2005). Although a commonly used strategy, avoidance is one of the most difficult to detect because in some contexts we may not be sure whether the speaker refrains from speaking about a certain topic. As illustrated in Tarone's taxonomy in Table 2.1 above, avoidance can emerge in two forms: **topic avoidance** and **message abandonment**.

As Bada (1993) suggests avoidance may occur not only in lexical items but also in phonological utterances and grammatical structures. While in phonological avoidance, speakers try to refrain from uttering words which contain a problematic sound for themselves, in grammatical avoidance they refrain from using a newly learned grammar item and opt for the structures that they feel confident with.

2.5.3. Paraphrase

A paraphrase is a statement or remark explained in other words or another way, so as to simplify or clarify its meaning. It also a means of expressing the same message in different words A paraphrase may result in a longer (as in circumlocution), rather than shorter, version of the intended lexical item. In this category, we have Circumlocution, Approximation, Word Coinage, and All Purpose Words strategies.

2.5.3.1. Circumlocution

In a general sense, circumlocution means describing a word with other words, for example: when you think of an object like scissors but do not recall the exact the word you try to paraphrase it through circumlocution (without naming it) and paraphrase scissors as a thing you use to cut paper or cloth. Circumlocution is said to be often helpful while learning a new language, when one does not have the word for a particular thing.

2.5.3.2. Approximation

This strategy consists of the use of a superordinate, synonymic or a subordinate term of the intended concept. Approximation takes place when the concept is replaced by a word that shares several features with the intended concept. It implies analyzing the concept the non-native speaker wishes to express and the learner compares this concept to similar ones. Therefore, it is a linguistic manifestation of the processing

strategy of conceptual analysis. What Tarone calls approximation is categorized as holistic strategy by some other scholars; for example Nijmegen Group (Flyman, 1997).

2.5.3.3. Word Coinage

Employing word coinage strategy, language learners create lexical terms which do not exist or are not found in the target language. The speaker produces a lexical item based on assumptions regarding the L2 rules of word-formation. For example in Wongsawang's study (2001) one of the participants uttered the following sentence: "I the smell you know kind of from...*inscent stick* you know" The participant created a non-existent L2 word to explain the concept *thuup*.

2.5.3.4. All Purpose Words

When a speaker uses an all purpose word s/he extends a general, empty lexical item to contexts where specific words are lacking. This strategy is mostly employed via using the words like "thing", "stuff", "make", or "do".

2.5.4. Literal Translation (Generalization)

The learner solves lexical gap problems by using IL items which would not normally be used in a context, resulting in the extension of socially or grammatically inappropriate words or phrases to the same context. Literal translation occurs as result of language transfer which can be across all learner types from beginner to intermediate and to advanced. As Bada puts it (1998; 200) "this type of transfer, if not as prevalent as phonological transfer still has a wide range of occurrences in TL learning." Literal translation often causes ambiguities and 'funny' situations; therefore, it is the inspiration for several jokes. Below is joke involving literal translation.

An English-speaking businessman spends three days negotiating a tough deal with a Japanese businessman. The third day, things

are going well, and he says, “well, I think that at last we're thinking along parallel lines.”

The next day the Japanese businessman doesn't show up. The English-speaking businessman checks the hotel and discovers that the Japanese businessman has already checked out! So he rushes to the airport and finds the Japanese businessman in the departure waiting room, and asks “Why are you leaving? It took three days, and we were finally thinking along parallel lines!”

And the Japanese businessman nods, and says, “Yes, yes. I scrutinize my dictionary. Parallel lines will never meet. So I go home.”

2.5.5. Ask For Help

The non-native speaker requests linguistic help from his/her interlocutor. The learner, controlling a gap in the code, chooses to ask the hearer about the code to overcome the problem. It is therefore symptomatic of the process of code control. As we see in Table 2.3 above, Bada (1993) categorizes “ask for help” under L2-based strategies with the title “appeal to authority”.

2.5.6. Repetition

In this study, the term *repetition* refers to repeated items of speech of non-native speakers of English, which may be on word, phrase or sentence basis. Repetition in spoken language has been discussed from a number of different perspectives such as in terms of why and how often repetitions are employed, what is the possible implication of repetition on the manner of speaking, etc. (Bell & Gustafson, 2006).

Although most occurrences of self-initiated repetitions are conducted as a self-repair strategy, we could not classify every repetition as belonging to the class of self-initiated self-repair: A speaker might repeat lexical items to:

- a) emphasize meaning or meanings of other words,
- b) hold the floor when being interrupted by the addressee,

- c) or if the speaker suspects that he or she could not be heard the first time because of a disturbing noise, or because he or she interrupts the speaker and tries to gain the floor (Rieger, 2003).

As Rieger, we did not consider the above types of repetition as self-initiated self-repair and therefore did not code and analyze in this current study. What we are interested in this study is the repetition employed as a communication strategy, which is mostly described as self-initiated self-repair.

2.5.7. Self-Repair

In conversation analysis, research on self-repair began with the studies of Gail Jefferson, who does not use the term self-repair but error correction (Rieger, 2003). Linguistic repair occurs when a speaker detects a breakdown in communication, focuses on the trouble area, and selects a repair behavior. Repair, however, is not only limited to the replacement of an error but deals with some other kinds of troubles. Since self-repair is part of the organization of language and its interactive use, in order to better understand the organization and language itself we need to study rules governing self-repair. Conversation analysts have conducted studies on self-repair but very little research has been done on repetition as a source of self-repair (Rieger, 2003).

Kormos (1999) advocates the need of researching psycholinguistic factors effective in self-repair. A psychological approach to the investigation of L2 self-repair and monitoring has the potential to illuminate us about the four areas of second language acquisition. Researching L2 self-repair not only advances our knowledge of the process of L2 speech production and provide a basis of comparison with L1 self-repair research; it also might promote the testing of different psycholinguistics models of L2 learning and the development of automaticity.

2.5.8. Mime

This strategy refers to the use of non-verbal communication, and is the product of conceptual analysis when, through gestures and words, features defining the intended meaning are expressed. However, when by means of only gestures the intended concept

is pointed at or explained, this strategy is mainly a reflection of code control, since important changes are operated on the channel of expression switching from verbal to non-verbal mode

2.5.9. Overelaboration

Overelaboration is a communication strategy in which the language learner while attempting to carry over his/her intended message produces highly formal utterances. Although those utterances are considered correct in terms of grammatical rules they are overtly not native-like. This strategy is said to be closely related to the character of learning situation (Tarone, Cohen, Dumas, 1983: cited in Bada, 1993). Thus, in classes where the teaching of grammar has a prevailing status over teaching skills, like in most high schools in Turkey, learners tend to transfer rather formal structures which they practice in their classes to their verbal communication.

1. *I would I would feel happy because I get bored so it would a big changes for my life so I would feel happy.*
2. *So that he would be happy enough and he is like traditional father or traditional parent in Turkey...*
3. *He is a different teacher.*

The lack of some of the contracted forms in speech is a kind of grammatical overelaboration while the overemphasis placed on the pronunciation articles such as “a” and “an” is phonological overelaboration (Bada, 1993).

2.6. Stages of Interlanguage Development

Brown (1994) offers a four-stage systematicity to account for the interlanguage development, which, again he himself suggests, has its own drawbacks. Referring to those stages, one cannot assert that a learner in a the final stage has competence in all of the linguistics subsystems of language. For example, with respect to a given tense a learner might be in the third or fourth stage and in the second stage when it comes to passive voice. Brown (1994) also remind us that production errors are alone not adequate to measure overall competence. The stages as offered by Brown are:

- a) Random Errors Stage: Corder (1973) calls this stage *presystematic* (qtd. in Brown, 1994; 211). the learner is only vaguely aware that there is some systematic order to a particular class of items. For example, I am can swim.
- b) Second (or Emergent) Stage: the learner develops consistency in linguistic production.
- c) Systematic Stage: the learner is now able to manifest more consistency in producing the second language.
- d) Stabilization Stage: the learner has relatively few errors and has mastered the system to the point that fluency and intended meanings are not problematic.

In our study, however, we did not try to determine the interlanguage development of the participants since as with their apparent drawbacks these stages could not allow us to measure overall competence and may thus mislead us. In our study we observed that our participants display features of both second and third stages in their speeches.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

3.1. The Design of the study

The present study is designed as a qualitative research. The method of this study is naturalistic in that we do not manipulate the research setting; yet we will analyze the findings of video recordings qualitatively. As this study could be categorized under Discourse Analysis, we will use transcripts decoded from videotaped interactions as our database. Besides, since we are also interested in the non-verbal channel of communication, we will use transcripts and accompanying video recordings. Although producing a high quality transcript of classroom interaction is a time consuming job, even with standard orthography, it takes about five times the length of the interaction, verbatim transcripts displaying all the hesitations, false starts and pauses are extremely valuable records (Allwright & Bailey, 1991).

We used elicited narratives in this study because compared with personal narratives, elicited narratives such as retelling a film, or picture stories have some advantages as follows:

- a) the sequence of the events is known to the researcher independently of the narrative itself;
- b) elicited narratives could be compared across learners, and
- c) the content of the picture story and the film may be manipulated to test specific rules of distribution (Bardovi-Harlig, 1994).

Although there is no rationale for collecting or experimentally eliciting spontaneous data mentioned in the literature so far, compared with artificial data spontaneous data is favored because it directly reflects natural language use. Spontaneous data means that either the learner is completely unaware that he or she is observed or the data is produced when the subject is supposedly relaxed and not focused on producing language to satisfy the researcher (as in our study). The participant's attention is therefore focused on conveying the message in the language

and not especially on the form in which that meaning is expressed whereby a speech situation is created much like a completely spontaneous speech situation (Sharwood Smith, 1994). Given that any elicitation device which allows learners to reflect on what they are doing and allow them to alter their behavior accordingly does not provide us subconsciously acquired knowledge, the rationale for spontaneous data becomes clear. If you exercise pressure, the learners produce language they are forced to borrow from their well-controlled competence in their native language, which means we cannot ascribe their productions to their second language development. On the other hand, spontaneous behavior would seem to reflect a mixture of well-controlled IL competence and well-controlled L1 competence as well as a combination of styles matching the language to various speaker needs and social situations (Sharwood Smith, 1994).

3.2. Participants

The participants in this study are Turkish 1st year students of English studying at the ELT Department, University of Çukurova; all being trained to be prospective English teachers. There were 23 students enrolled in a speaking class, and their ages ranged between 19 and 22 years. Only three of the participants were males and the rest were all females. They are graduates of either private or state high schools from different provinces of Turkey. Relying on the results of the standardized university entrance exam they took, the participants were assumed to have had a similar level of proficiency in English. Most of them plan to be teachers of English following their graduation.

In our study, we applied the convenience sampling strategy in which the selection of units from the population is based on easy availability and/or accessibility. The major disadvantage of this strategy, as mentioned above, is that that we have no idea how representative the information collected about the sample because in convenience sampling the probability of the sample being unrepresentative of the population is quite high (Paton, 2002).

For ethical reasons, we have numbered the participants from 1 to 23 and tried to avoid any identifying sign when we quote verbatim utterances of them within the text.

3.4 Instrumentation

We aimed to use one data collection tool: video recording, that is, we transcribed the video recordings of spontaneous narratives produced by the participants.

Video recording provides us with denser linguistic information than does field note taking, for it allows us to record every word. When taking field notes, the researcher is limited to writing down the gist of what interlocutors say, or recording only brief interactions consisting of a few short turns because of constraints on memory and the inherently slower speed of writing as compared with speaking.

Another advantage of video recording is permanence (Grimshaw, 1982 cited in DuFon, 2002), which gives us to experience an event repeatedly by playing it back. With each repeated viewing, we can change our focus somewhat and see things we had not seen at the time of taping or on previous viewings (Erickson, 1982 cited in DuFon, 2002). Replaying the event also allows us more time to contemplate, deliberate, and ponder over the data before drawing conclusions, and hence serves to ward off premature interpretation of the data. Even a rare event, when captured on tape, can be replayed repeatedly for a thorough analysis so that it can still be studied intensively. Real time observation does not have this advantage.

3.4. Procedure

The main data of this study come from the video-recordings of speaking classes conducted by the researcher's academic advisor. Before the researcher started video recordings, he attended some classes, introduced himself to the class (the participant group), and informed them about his project. This was because the researcher tried to create a good rapport with the students.

First, the lecturer asked the students to form their discussion groups on their own. They negotiated with each other and formed groups of 4 or 5 students. They were also advised to stick to speaking English as much as possible during the discussions. They were warned not to read from their notes; they were supposed to use their own words in their discussions. Warning about potential negative implications on their grades, the lecturer also advised them not to read or repeat memorized sentences.

Then a two-fold data collection procedure was observed in this study: First, the students watched movies and in the following class session they discussed the emergent themes, characters, setting, etc. of the film; the groups came to the front of the classroom and shared their ideas with the rest of the classroom and other group members as well. There were seven discussions throughout the semester each of which lasted around one hour. Both the audience students and the group in the front asked questions to each other. They asked both content and inference questions about the movies they watched. Compared with listening to radio or cassette recorder, watching movies is usually easier to follow and comprehend as the visual elements aid comprehension. Given the fact that lack of target language exposure as spoken by its native speakers is an important reason behind English majors' likely weakness in communication, getting the students to watch a movie could expose them to target language use.

Students ST1, ST2, ST3, ST4 and ST5 were in the 1st group, ST6, ST7, ST8, ST9 and ST10 in the 2nd, ST11, ST12, ST13 and ST14 in the 3rd, ST15, ST16, ST17 and ST18 in the 4th and ST19, ST20, ST21, ST22 and ST23 were in the 5th group. On the discussion day, each group came to the front in a random order and shared their ideas with the other group members and the rest of the class. The data collection period took place in three months (October, November and December, 2005), and seven speaking class sessions were recorded yielding about 350 minutes of group discussions. All the groups had the chance to speak in the seven discussion sessions.

3.5. Data Analysis

Qualitative data were analyzed through content analysis, and the usages of language switch, avoidance, paraphrase, literal translation, ask for help, repetition and mime strategies were the themes emerged from the analysis of Communications Strategies. Descriptive statistics such as frequencies and percentages pertaining to strategies were analyzed through SPSS software package for Windows version 11.5.

In descriptive statistics, we presented the frequencies and percentages of the CSs we included in this study in tabular form, and then referring to verbatim examples of the participants, we analyzed why and how certain strategies were resorted to.

Since among the strategies used, repetitions cover a major part, they were analyzed again in isolation; they were divided into two groups as *word-basis* and *group-basis*. Word basis repetitions were categorized regarding their syntactic classes, and syntactic categorization of group-basis repetitions was made considering the word initiating lexical groups.

3.6. Transcription Conventions

The transcriptions of the video-recordings were completed by the researcher, himself. Not only the verbal aspect of the communication but also other devices were important for this study, therefore, in transcribing the data, we marked the mimes as well. Repetitions were also quite important for this study; they were included accurately and meticulously in the transcript. Since we were interested only in communication strategies rather than pronunciation, intonation, etc. we have employed some basic transcription conventions. As researchers conducting scientific analysis, we have always avoided manipulating our spoken data. While transcribing the spoken data, we tried to report as faithfully as possible what was said. Therefore, it is quite common that there may be ungrammatical forms, repetitions and incomplete sentences in the quoted data. Pauses were indicated as preceding utterances because pause length was regarded as a function of the amount of planning which the speaker put into his next utterances (Chafe, 1979 in Brown and Yule 1983b). The video-recorded data was transcribed using the following conventions:

- ... indicates a very short gap in the speech
- + indicates pause in seconds
- *** indicates inaudible segments
- () indicates the comments made by the researcher
- (?) indicates the researcher is not sure about the word.
- indicates cut off speech

In line with these conventions, we transcribed the data and in the next chapter we displayed the results of the data gathered. After presenting the frequencies and percentages of the CSs we included in this study in tabular form, we then referred to verbatim examples of the participants.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1. Introduction

This chapter presents the results and discussion of findings in this study. To begin with, we will display an overall analysis of CSs employed by the participants in their discussions on the seven movies they watched. Following, we will go through an in-depth analysis of each discussion made by participants by displaying the data in tabular forms. CSs in the data were identified with scrutiny. The researcher coded the data twice in order to provide more reliable coding. The CSs detected in this study were seven categories in all: language switch, avoidance, approximation, literal translation, ask for help, repetition, and mime.

We would like to remind the readers that much of the research in the context of CSs has been done in order to find out what strategies are favored by the speakers when they face lexical problems in carrying out certain tasks. In our study, however, the participants were assigned only one kind of task: the participants watched seven different movies and during the next speaking class session they conducted discussions on each related movie.

4.2. An Overall Presentation of the Data

As mentioned in Chapter 3, the data collection period lasted nearly three months. In order to present the findings in an explanatory way, descriptive statistics values of the CSs in the seven discussions were presented. The presentation of the data in this way helped the researcher to display general and specific pictures of the CSs employed.

**Table 4.1. Number of Communication Strategies Employed by Participants
(General)**

	Frequency	Percentage
Repetition	471	73,1
Literal Translation	51	7,9
Avoidance	48	7,5
Paraphrase	34	5,3
Language Switch	19	3,0
Ask for Help	15	2,3
Mime	6	0,9
Total	644	100
$\chi^2 = 1839,957$		

Table 4.1 clearly shows that repetition is the most frequently used CS (73,1%); and literal translations (7,9%) second, and avoidance (7,5%) third. Besides, paraphrase (5,3%), language switch (3,0%), asking for help (2,3%) and mime (0,9%) were also employed, though rather rarely. We, however, would like to remind the readers that nine occurrences of the ask for helps were conducted through miming. As with the general tendency, in all individual discussion sessions we have observed a significant difference in the distribution of CSs ($p \leq 0.05$).

One of the most important factors affecting CSs in the discussions was the role of mutual knowledge, which enabled the speakers to reduce their references to objects, characters, people, etc. in the movies. Since they all watched the movies together, a common ground was established among them. Speakers mostly take the listener's knowledge into account to make communication effectively. As Yule (1997) observed, interactional communication tasks (such as direction giving on a map) provide new information for both sides, the listener and the speaker, so they increase the shared knowledge causing communication of further references to items in maps (in our case, to movies) less demanding. Another factor affecting CSs is the complexity of the topic: drawing on the findings of her study, Bou-Franch (1994) suggests that the complexity of a topic has a positive, intense correlation with the total amount of CSs. Hence, to Bou-Franch, if we have an above average complex topic, the number of CSs should also

be higher and if the complexity is below average, the presence of the CSs should be below average.¹ Unlike Bou-Franch's study in which she found that during conversation among non-native speakers, the speakers tended to employ language switch and requesting help from each other, in our study, the participants, all of whom are non-native speakers, only rarely employed such CSs. This is because they were to be graded according to their performance in the class and the teacher, always speaking English, encouraged them to use this language in and out of class.

We, however, do not want to mean that the success of the interaction during the classes is measurable by sheer number of CSs used. The criteria would be as follows: a) the discussions were carried on in the target language, b) the task requirement was met, that is the participants were assigned a class session to discuss their ideas and they followed their schedule successfully. Given the fact that the participants have similar proficiency levels, only rare communication problems occurred among them.

Due to their great ratio in the use of CSs, repetitions were analyzed in isolation following Bada's model as presented in Table 4.2 (2007). In the analysis, single word repetitions were categorized as "word basis" and repetitions of groups of words were categorized as "group basis". Word-basis repetitions were categorized regarding their syntactic classes, and syntactic categorization of group-basis repetitions was made considering head word in the groups. While, group basis repetitions initiated with conjunctions or other idiosyncratic group repetitions were classified as "other", repetitions of pronoun plus auxiliary/verb combinations and clause repetitions were classified as "clause".

Table 4.2. Analysis of Repetition Types in the Discussion (General)

Word Basis			Group Basis		
Word Class	Number	%	Group Type	Number	%
Pronoun	65	24,3	Noun Phrase	34	16,67
Aux/Verb	67	25,1	Verb Phrase	39	19,11
Noun	54	20,2	Adjective	27	13,23

¹Regarding topic, Selinker and Douglas (1985, 1987, 1989; cited in Whyte, 1994) conducted a series of case studies involving interviews of non-native graduate students on topics related to work and life. Their studies showed that the strategies of the non-native students differed when they talked about their major fields or their life and culture. For example, while one speaker seemed confident and competent in his work domain and even correcting the mistakes of native interlocutor, he encountered problems in finding the lexical items in the discussion on life. These studies suggest that second language variation occurs across different discourse domains and this variation could be perceived at CSs level.

			Phrase		
Adjective	32	12,0	Prepositional Phrase	9	4,41
Preposition	20	7,5	Adverb Phrase	2	1,00
Conjunction	15	5,6	Clause	83	40,69
Article	13	4,9	Other	10	4,90
Adverb	1	0,4	Total	204	100
Total	267	100			

While 56,7% of repetitions were recorded to be at word-basis, the remaining 43,3% were at group-basis. We see that while by 24,3% at word basis pronouns were mostly repeated, by 40,69% at group basis, clauses were the most repeated parts of the sentences. Following pronouns and clauses, verbs and verb phrases (by 25,1% at word basis and 19,11% at group basis) were the second most repeated parts of sentences. The qualitative analysis reveals that the main function of repetition as self-repair is to delay the production of the next lexical item because it gives the speaker the opportunity to hold the floor while s/he is engaged in linguistics or cognitive planning. During this short time the speaker can search for a particular word or construction or think about the content of the upcoming utterances.

What is remarkable in this table is that repetition of pronouns and (auxiliary) verbs at both word and group basis levels have a large portion in the distribution. Especially in the group basis repetitions, more than two fifths of the repetitions are pronoun repetitions. Those pronouns were mostly repeated with the auxiliaries following them.

For all of the subjects, it has been observed that their use of repetitions occurs at mostly word basis level as compared to group level repetitions. The participants use more repetitions of personal pronouns, and more repetitions of pronouns and verb conjugations.

The repetition of pronouns both at word basis and group basis occurs more often as compared to other word classes. Its primary functions is to postpone the next lexical item and gain additional time. Pronouns recycled either without the use of any other elements or pronoun plus verb conjugations recycled without the use of any other

elements. Examples for both word basis and group basis repetitions are presented below in order:

Word basis:

Ex1 ST20: But after the the birthday **of of** the child, Jessie and he go to go to buy a basketball...

Ex2 ST13: And I think **he he** can do everything to be an anchorman.

Group basis:

Ex3 ST19: For example when he he is making interview he hears that **his rival his rival** is anchorman

Ex4 ST3: Sometimes **we got we got** depressed and pray God to help us and go everything right.

Ex5 ST9: **He saw for example he saw** a boy who entered to the classroom.

As to repetitions of adjectives, we have observed that while the repetitions of possessive adjectives occurred mostly at group basis, other kinds of adjectives were repeated at word basis. Without much surprise the majority of the nouns were repeated at word basis.

Table 4.3. Potential Repetition Reasons (General)

Reasons	Number	%
Filler	348	73,89
Self-repair	123	26,11
Total	471	100

As can be observed from Table 4.3, the participants produced repetitions more with a purpose to allow them the opportunity to work on new utterances, i.e. they resorted to repetitions as a kind of “filled pause”. With 73,89%, the participants repeated sentence elements with this aim, whereas 26,11% of the repetitions were employed as an attempt to modify an already produced utterance. Rieger (2003) defined the functions of self-repair as a) word search, b) word replacement, and c) repair of person reference and most these functions involve the replacement of one lexical item

by another. As potential reasons for repetition Bada (2007) suggests there are two main significant reasons leading to repetitions: planning for new utterance (vocalized filler), and modification of the utterance in the repeated form (self-monitoring).

4.3. Communication Strategy Use in the Discussion on *The Cat in the Hat*

The first movie watched was titled *The Cat in the Hat*. In the following speaking class session, the students had a discussion on the movie. The discussion lasted around 41 minutes and the students produced some 3400 words during the discussion. The count of the CSs identified in the discussion is presented in Table 4.4 below.

Table 4.4. Number of Communication Strategies Employed (The Cat in the Hat; Word count: ~3400, Duration: 41 minutes)

	Frequency	Percentage
Repetition	41	65,1
Paraphrase	9	14,3
Literal Translation	8	12,7
Avoidance	4	6,3
Mime	1	1,6
Language Switch	0	0
Ask for Help	0	0
Total	63	100
$\chi^2 = 83,270$		

As seen in Table 4.4, with 65,1% repetitions was the most employed strategy, and following repetition, we observe the employment of paraphrase and literal translation with 14,3% and 12,7%, respectively. Although few, we see avoidance and mime strategies as well.

The movie is about two children, Conrad, an overweight slob, and Sally, a hyper-achiever, who are left home alone by their mother (Joan) and with nothing to do. Then one day while away at work, the mother leaves Conrad and Sally at home with a sleeping Asian babysitter. They are told not to mess up the house and all is well until

the cat arrives to create some chaos. He spends most of the movie wrecking the house, quite literally turning the place inside out, and teaches the children that they too can, wreck the house and turn the place inside out. Joan is dating her neighbor, Quinn, who does not get along with Konrad because he is pressuring Joan to send Conrad away to military school.

In this first discussion, the students were not quite aware of what they were expected, that is why this is one of the shortest discussions. They also were nervous that they did not use any Turkish word. Below are some examples of CSs employed and potential underlying reasons:

Ex6 ST15. He does everything then. He doesn't know he is responsible to **his.....**

While talking about the characters of Conrad and Sally, ST15 tries to explain why Konrad misbehaves but she could not recall the word "misbehavior" and then just **abandons** her message. As examples for paraphrase, we present verbatim remarks of the participants:

Ex7 ST19. Saying lies is not a **good thing**.

Ex8 ST8: Our family life should be our **first option**.

In the film we see that Quinn tells lies to Joan and as a result of poetic justice – which we witness in most of literary works- his bad habit and vices are penalized. ST19 discusses Quinn's end in the movie; but instead of talking about some habits, she uses the semantically most comprehensive word *thing* to mean *habit*. ST8 commenting on the dilemma Joan experiences –Joan sometimes has to neglect her children because of her job responsibilities- criticizes Joan for not giving *priority* to her children. The concept of *priority* is replaced by *option*. As for literal translations we present some verbatim examples of the participants:

Ex9 ST14. Quinn was indebted to somewhere and he hasn't a **tidy life**.

Ex10 ST20: But her daughter daughter is very **wise**

ST14's sentence displays two examples of semantic (literal) transfer: *to be indebted to somewhere* and *to have a tidy life*. While talking about the antagonist in the film, Quinn, whose furniture was seized by court officials, ST14 literally translates a Turkish sentence into English. Again the same student, meaning that Quinn is an unemployed man, trying to persuade Joan to marry him not for he loved her but for her money uses the adjective *tidy*. Having tidy life, here, means, the kind of life where you get married and then have children, and be careful with your alcohol intake. Obviously unlike Joan who with hard work and determination, created a regular life for her children, always drinking, having a lot of debts, Quinn does not have regular life. Although both *tidy* and *regular* mean methodical and/or orderly, in this context, *regular* would be a more appropriate adjective to describe someone's life.

In the same manner, ST20 executes a literal translation. The adjective "akıllı" in Turkish is used to describe both high cognitive skills and hard working, and well-behaved children. In the film unlike misbehaving Conrad, Sally is an attractive, pretty and well-behaved child.

Ex11 ST2: ... John (meaning Joan) has a boss who is who has a *** he is so **meticulous**. They have a babysitter who wakes up once or twice during they are watching film. And there is a fish. Who warns them about dangers...

In the film, Joan Walden works for a real estate agency and her boss has an obsession with hygiene. He suffers from obsessive compulsive disorder (OCD), an illness characterized by oddly repetitive behavior such as washing one's hands too frequently and never shaking hands with anyone. As he is the boss, he forces his employees to wash their hands regularly. Employing approximation (one the sub categories of paraphrase), ST2 explained the boss' obsession with hygiene using the adjective "meticulous".

4.3.1 Repetitions in the Discussion on *The Cat in the Hat*

Table 4.5 below illustrates repetitions of parts of a sentence at both word and group basis.

Table 4.5. Analysis of Repetition Types in the Discussion on (The Cat in the Hat)

Word Basis			Group Basis		
Word Class	Number	%	Group Type	Number	%
Pronoun	6	24,0	Noun Phrase	3	18,75
Aux/Verb	7	28,0	Verb Phrase	5	31,25
Noun	5	20,0	Adjective Phrase	3	18,75
Adjective	3	12,0	Prepositional Phrase	1	6,25
Preposition	2	8,0	Adverb Phrase	-	
Conjunction	1	4,0	Clause	2	12,50
Article	1	4,0	Other	2	12,50
Adverb	-	-	Total	16	100
Total	25	100.0			

Among the 41 repetitions occurred in the discussion on *The Cat in the Hat*, repetition of nouns, pronouns, verbs, and group basis verb repetitions have a prevailing status. While nouns and pronouns were repeated mostly in isolation, verb repetitions occurred at both word (24,0%) and group basis (31,25%). Below, we present some examples to word and group basis verb repetitions:

Ex12 ST14: . But **he he** can't care she can't care about her children because she has to work a lot and his boss her boss is a very bad man.

Ex13 ST20: I can say one thing, for example, the big cat and the children go go into a bo_ a telephone box and they see a party there. **The people the people dances dance** crazily there.

Table 4.6. Potential Repetition Reasons (The Cat in the Hat)

Reasons	Number	%
Filler	29	70,73
Self-repair	12	29,26
Total	41	100

In the first discussion, in line with general tendency, while around 29% of the repetitions were *self-repairs*, 70% of them were *filler* repetitions. As this was the first discussion the participants were more alert about what they said. In the first example below it is seen that the participants were not always aware of the mistakes they made. And as we will see in the following discussions, a frequent type of mistake was the choice of wrong reference form as exemplified in ST19's utterance.

Ex14 ST14: But at the beginning Konrad don't like the Quinn. He **prove** **proves** the Quinn her mother that he isn't a good man.

Ex15 ST19: Loving her children is a good thing for a mother. But **he he** **can't care** **she** can't care about her children because she has to work a lot..

4.4. Communication Strategy Use in the Discussion on *Open Water*

The second movie participants watched was *Open Water*, the setting of which was somewhere in the Caribbean. The tragic end had a profound effect on the participants. In the next speaking class session, participants had a discussion on the movie. The discussion lasted around 53 minutes and the participants produced some 5000 words during the discussion. The count of CSs identified in the discussion is presented in Table 4.7 below.

Table 4.7. Number of Strategies Employed (Open Water; Word Count:~5000, Duration 53 minutes)

	Frequency	Percentage
Repetition	76	72,4
Avoidance	13	11,1
Paraphrase	7	6,0
Literal Translation	5	4,3
Language Switch	4	3,4
Ask for Help	3	2,6
Mime	0	0
Total	107	100
$\chi^2 = 227,778$		

As seen in Table 4.7, with its 72,4% repetition is the most employed strategy; following repetition, avoidance (11,1%), paraphrase (6,0%), literal translation (4,3%), and language switch (3,4%) took place in the discussion. The participants were not observed to employ miming, yet they asked for help by 2,6%.

Based on the true story of a happy couple, *Open Water* is about Daniel and Susan, who go on holiday in the Caribbean. They are both scuba divers, and they sign up for a sightseeing dive trip. While they are in the water, other divers climb in and out of the boat. The crew attempts to keep track of everyone, but they end up counting two of the other divers twice. Convinced that they have everyone accounted for, they depart for shore. Susan and Daniel surface from their dive to find themselves abandoned in open waters. While their floatation equipment allows them to stay at the surface, however, they realize that they are not alone in the sea! They are besieged by hungry sharks. In the end, Daniel is devoured by sharks, and sorrowful Susan commits suicide. As for language switch, we will analyze the following verbatim remarks of the participants:

Ex16 ST9:Because they weren't very, very very far. They could have swim. They could have swim at least half an hour and ...they could they could have reached the boat. **May be..yani** they shouldn't lose their hope.

Ex17 ST1: By the way as far as I know the sharks **Neydi o are**

Unlike the discussion on *The Cat in the Hat*, participants had a lengthy and hot discussion on *Open Water*. This was partly due to the tragic end of the lovers and their attachment to each other, which is a topic always hot for young generations. The participants got so excited during the discussion that in order to maintain their speech they sometimes switched codes and sometimes asked for help in their native language. They, however sometimes just abandoned their message as exemplified below:

Ex18 ST4: I want to say about one thing. The people in that film in that.. the instructors in the ship hadn't got any responsibility because Susan and Daniel... in sea **there is...**

Ex19 ST19: I think I want to say some messages from the film, I think we must take some lesson from the film. We must, **we can** Danger can be everywhere.

Since it was a movie involving sea, the participants needed especially marine vocabulary to carry on with their discussions. When they needed to use such vocabulary, they had to abandon their message because they were not able to complete message. Again, due to this lack of marine vocabulary, we see avoidance examples in the speeches of the participants as above and paraphrases as follow:

Ex20 ST3: They go firstly they go a vial_ a holiday village and the their they go their settle place they go dive dive shop then an instructor gives them some instruction to for about how they'll dive and what they'll do. And they they wear their **special clothes** and dive and dive one by one.

In the movie, Daniel and Susan sail into the endless ocean on a boat. They go scuba diving in the ocean. "Special clothes" worn for diving are scuba equipment which consists of suit, jackets, fins and masks.

As for literal translation, we could give the following utterances as examples:

Ex21 ST15: Of course, I agree with you **from some point**. But the situation is different, they were in the middle of the ocean. May be they were in live somewhere else, they were in a city for example. I would have some reason to live. But the situation can not be compared with normal one. The situation is different.

Ex22 ST6: We mustn't swim. Some parts of the **film didn't real to me**. I couldn't see any features on their faces they will die.

While talking about *agreement*, native speakers say either "agree in some points" or "agree on some points". In Turkish the verb *agree* requires the use of the use of the following word to have either the ablative or locative case declension. That is why student ST15 uses the preposition "from" instead of "on" or "in".

ST6's idiosyncrasy originates from peculiar characteristics of the Turkish language: the copula in English is achieved in different ways from that in Turkish. A copula is a word that is used to link the subject of a sentence with a predicate (a subject complement or an adverbial). Though it might not itself express any action or condition, it serves to equate or associate the subject with the predicate. A copula is sometimes a verb or a verb-like part of speech, a copula is often called a linking verb and English

copulas include “to be”, “to become”, “to get”, “to feel”, and “to seem”. In Turkish, the enclitic personal suffixes are used to complete the sentences, and these suffixes are sometimes used only for emphasis. This causes Turkish speakers learning English to sometimes neglect the copula in their speech.

4.4.1 Repetitions in the Discussion on *Open Water*

Table 4.8. demonstrates repetitions of parts of a sentence at both word and group basis.

Table 4.8. Analysis of Repetition Types in the Discussion on (Open Water)

Word Basis			Group Basis		
Word Class	Number	%	Group Type	Number	%
Pronoun	12	27,9	Noun Phrase	3	9,1
Aux/Verb	13	30,2	Verb Phrase	7	21,2
Noun	6	14,0	Adjective Phrase	5	13,5
Adjective	5	11,6	Prepositional Phrase	2	6,1
Preposition	5	11,6	Adverb Phrase	-	
Conjunction	-	-	Clause	12	36,4
Article	1	2,3	Other	4	12,1
Adverb	1	2,3	Total	33	100
Total	12	27,9			

As other strategy use increased in the second discussion, so did the frequency of repetitions. What is outstanding in this discussion is less than half of the repetitions are repeated clauses most of which are initiated by a pronoun (36,4%) and repeated pronouns at word basis (27,9%). Verb repetitions also have a significant place among the repetition types (30,2% at word basis and 21,2% at group basis). Not to be ignored is also the presence of conjunctions and noun repetitions. Some examples of repetition in this discussion are:

Ex23 ST3: And they they wear their special clothes **and dive and dive** one by one.

Ex24 ST11: So when they **got out of the sea got out of the water** they saw no one.

Ex25 ST20: They mustn't have left **without without without** them.

Table 4.9. Potential Repetition Reasons (Open Water)

Reasons	Number	%
Filler	37	48,68
Self-repair	39	51,31
Total	76	100

The second discussion was the only discussion in which the frequency of self-repairs was not much greater than the filler type repetitions:

Ex26 ST9: I think before Daniel didn't **lost lose** their his life he may be couldn't...

Ex27 ST1: They **killed, they were killed**.

As shown in the examples above, self-repairs mostly consisted of correcting grammatical mistakes. Besides these, we see examples, as in below, of semantic repairs in which the interlocutor corrects his/her vocabulary choice or reference form:

Ex28 ST5: I think Daniel and Susan are not responsible. **They must have dive, they have must have arrived** to the ship on time.

Ex29 ST22: ..after he died he let herself to the water and **he drown_ she drown she drowned, she got drowned**.

Unlike *The Cat in the Hat*, based on a true story *Open Water* seemed to provide a somewhat difficult topic for the participants. This difficulty reflected itself not only in the relative high number of avoidance but also in the high frequency of self-repairs.

4.5. Communication Strategy Use in the Discussion on *The Lion King*

The third movie watched was *The Lion King*. It is a famous Walt Disney animation whose target is children. What is especially significant about this film is that one can see several kinds of animals living in the jungles of Africa. The discussion on *The Lion King* lasted around 50 minutes and the students produced some 4600 words during the discussion. Count of CSs identified in the discussion is presented in Table 4.10 below:

Table 4.10. Number of Strategies Employed (The Lion King; Word Count:~4600, Duration: 50 minutes)

	Frequency	Percentage
Repetition	70	73,6
Literal Translation	12	12,6
Avoidance	6	6,3
Paraphrase	5	5,3
Language Switch	1	1,1
Ask for Help	1	1,1
Mime	0	0
Total	95	100
$\chi^2 = 227,547$		

In this discussion, in addition to repetitions (73,6%), literal translations were also employed quite frequently (12,6%). Following literals translations we see avoidance and paraphrase with 6,3% and 5,3%, respectively. Language switch (1,1%) and “ask for help” (1,1%) took place only once in the discussion.

The Lion King is set in Africa, and tells the story of a pride of lions who live on Pride Rock. As the film opens, King Mufasa and his mate, Sarabi are welcoming their son, Simba into the world. Simba is introduced to the other animals in the kingdom, who know that he is the heir to the throne. Mufasa’s brother, Scar, who dreams to be king one day, is not happy at all. As Simba begins to grow, and spends his days playing with his friend, Nalla and learning about the land from his father. Scar begins to plan some tricks to rid the kingdom of both Mufasa and Simba. He, finally, succeeds in

killing Mufasa and, Simba flees from Pride Rock, and finds himself in an oasis, where he meets a meerkat named Timon and a naive warthog named Pumbaa. Timon and Pumbaa take in Simba, who grows into an adult lion. As Simba grows up, he realizes that he must return to Pride Rock, face scar, and take his revenge. Despite the clear language and simple plot of the cartoon, the participants still sometimes need to abandon their message:

Ex30 ST13: I want to talk about the Scar. You know he has he has a goal. His goal is to be to **become be theirs..** to kill her brother his brother and his nephew **and...** What do you think about this? Can you as merci_ as merciless as Scar to achieve your goals?

Ex31 ST15: OK. The film takes place in a forest. **The forest....** There are many kinds of animals and the animals are are in a good relationship. Everything at first was in balance. And they were living in a peaceful atmosphere. That's all.

Ex32 ST23: In many other films, **helping ..** good characters win and bad characters lose in the end.

The Lion King is starred by cartoon animal characters but most of the animal species names are not known by the participants. In the discussion, the participants did not even mention the names of animals such as giraffe and elephant, which one can see even in beginner level texts. This accounts for avoidance in the discussion. The participants gave up their message and kept talking on something else when especially they needed to refer to animals in the movie. Again lack of vocabulary about jungle and the animals living in the jungle caused the participants paraphrase their intended messages:

Ex33 ST2: Because he is a **small lion**, shy and timid lion, he need support to somebody and as a coincidence he met the other animals and his friend Nola. They caused inspired him to become a king again.

Ex34 ST11: The film is in **forest**. And and the forest is magnificent, attractive and there was a kingdom of the lion. The lion.. the animals all the animals respected the lion because the lion is the king.

King Mufasa and his wife Sarabi's son, prince Simba is the star of the movie. Indeed, at the start of the film, Simba is introduced to other animals in the kingdom, who know that he is the heir to the throne. When ST2 refers to Simba instead of calling him a "cub" which means *the young of certain carnivorous animals*, such as bear, wolf, or lion, s/he calls him "a small lion".

The Lion King takes place in the jungles of Africa. The word "forest" denotes a dense growth of trees, plants, and underbrush covering a large area. The forests, however, found on the equator and marked by an intense competition and struggle for survival are called jungles. .as for literal discussion we present some verbatim remarks of the participants as follows:

Ex35 S5: I wouldn't do the same thing. I think Scar is cruel one. I wouldn't do these things to achieve my goals because at the end always bad **the bads loses and goods win.**

Ex36 S14: Monkey showed him that his father was the real king his inside and he **want from him** to save his kingdom. And he take he take revenge from his uncle.

When using an adjective we should be careful about three points (Quirk & Greenbaum, 1985):

- Adjectives don't have a singular and plural form or a masculine, feminine and neuter form.
- Adjectives are always the same. We never add a final -s to an adjective.
- Adjectives can also be placed at the end of a sentence if they describe the subject of a sentence. Example: *Her mother is kind.*

When we want to refer to the whole group of people having a certain qualification the adjective is preceded by the definite article and it becomes a plural noun. Thus participant ST5's sentence should be "The bad lose and the good win". It is in Turkish that when we want to refer to a whole group with a certain qualification we add the plural -s to an adjective and it becomes a plural noun.

The verb "want" is commonly succeeded by a (pro)noun and an infinitive phrase and in these cases the (pro)noun is the subject of the infinitive phrase, which means that no preposition preceding the subject of the infinitive phrase is needed. In Turkish,

however, we use an ablative noun after the verb “want” and this causes the student ST14 to produce such an idiosyncratic utterance.

4.5.1. Repetitions in the Discussion on *Lion King*

Table 4.11 demonstrates the repetitions of parts of a sentence at both word and group basis.

Table 4.11. Analysis of Repetition Types in the discussion on (The Lion King)

Word Basis			Group Basis		
Word Class	Number	%	Group Type	Number	%
Pronoun	11	28,9	Noun Phrase	9	29,0
Aux/Verb	10	25,6	Verb Phrase	2	6,5
Noun	8	20,5	Adjective Phrase	7	22,6
Adjective	2	5,1	Prepositional Phrase	-	
Preposition	1	2,6	Adverb Phrase	-	
Conjunction	7	17,9	Clause	11	35,5
Article	-	-	Other	2	6,5
Adverb	-	-	Total	31	100
Total	39	100			

Again, among the 70 repetitions, we see mostly noun, pronoun and verb repetitions; while in the previous two discussions, group basis verb repetitions occupied a major place, in this discussion, verbs mostly were repeated in isolation (28,9% at word basis). Unlike the previous two discussions, in this discussion, adjectives were also repeated frequently (17,9% at word basis and 22,6% at group basis). This is because like fables this animation movie also deals with certain types of humane feelings such as hatred, love, passion, so the speakers had to refer to those characteristics using

certain adjectives. Some examples of repetition types from the discussion on *the Lion King* are presented below:

Ex37 ST13: **And and** the forest is magnificent, attractive and there was a kingdom of the lion.

Ex38 ST19: I want to talk about Simba. Simba **was was** a very **naughty boy, naughty lion**.

Table 4.12. Potential Repetition Reasons (The Lion King)

Reasons	Number	%
Filler	50	71,43
Self-repair	20	28,57
Total	70	100

As seen in Table 4.12, while 71,43% of the repetitions were resorted to to gain time, 28,57% of them were aimed at correcting mistakes. In all the discussions most frequently employed self-repair strategies are grammatical corrections and corrections in reference forms.

Ex39 ST6: **How is how was** the kingdom's death?

Ex40 ST8: He is king brother and behaves **Simba like he likes** her, him.

As with *The Cat in the Hat*, in *The Lion King* also there was a clearer language which made possible for the students to comprehend most of the utterances. Thus, it becomes clear that what makes a discussion on a movie is not only the language of the movie but also its setting. Paradoxically, compared with *The Cat in the Hat* or *The Lion King*, *Open Water* has very simple plot but the need to have insight in nautical vocabulary led the participants to resort to more avoidance and self-repairs.

4.6. Communication Strategy Use in the discussion on *Dead Poets Society*

The fourth movie participants watched was *Dead Poets Society*, made in 1989 by Peter Weir who also directed the film *Gallipoli*. It is an anti-establishment cultural criticism: it does not strive to criticize particular works of art but rather Western culture altogether. Again, this is a tragic end story: Neil commits suicide and as a consequence of Neil's suicide, the new English teacher John Keating is blamed for it by the school's headmaster, Mr. Nolan, and is forced to leave Welton Academy. The discussion on *Dead Poets Society* lasted around 50 minutes and the students produced some 5200 words during the discussion. In Table 4.13 below, the count of the CSs identified in the discussion is presented.

Table 4.13. Number of Strategies Employed (Dead Poets Society; Word Count: ~5200, Duration: 50 minutes)

	Frequency	Percentage
Repetition	90	76,9
Literal Translation	8	6,8
Avoidance	7	6,0
Paraphrase	6	5,1
Language Switch	2	1,7
Ask for Help	2	1,7
Mime	2	1,7
Total	117	100
$\chi^2 = 377,248$		

In the discussion on *Dead Poets Society*, more than 75% of the strategies used were repetitions. Literal translation (6,8%), avoidance (6,0%) and paraphrase (5,1%) also had quite important share in the strategy distribution. The other three strategies (language switch, ask for help and mime) were each employed by around 2%.

This is the story of students at the respected “Welton Academy”, which is a very conservative institution and preferred for its discipline and success by parents who want to send their children to the best universities in the US. The plot revolves around Mr. Keating, a young and exciting literature teacher, who is determined to teach his students

to live life with absolute passion. Mr. Keating, using poetry as his vehicle, teaches his students to challenge the institutions around them. Inspired by Mr. Keating's philosophy of life, many of his students recreate the "Dead Poets Society", a secret club which meets in a cave in order to discuss poetry, philosophy and other topics. The club, which Mr. Keating had created many years earlier when he was a student at Welton, is completely unacceptable to such a conservative school, which discourages students from "seizing the day". Indeed, Welton students should be in their rooms, studying only the books and doing homework that their teachers assign.

In fact, there are only few ideas Keating presents to his students for them to cultivate as they please. The most oft quoted is "Carpe Diem" or, naturally, "Seize the day." The youths in the story use this as a motivational concept repeatedly throughout the course of the movie. The examples of language switches are quoted below:

Ex41 ST20: What would you do if you were **şey** (=thing) Neil, Would you commit suicide or struggle for your goals and aims?

Ex42 ST14: The school discipline and the strictness of the **ebeveyn** (=parents) of the students resulting bad results such as Neil committed suicide.

In the first example, the use of a semantically empty word "şey" (=thing) could not only be considered as a slip of the tongue because the participant was trying to recall name of the popular student of the Welton Academy and this empty word provided him/her the time s/he needed in retrieving the necessary information from her/his memory.

The insertion of the word "ebeveyn" (=parents) into the sentence is a more conscious process: the student easily inserts the Turkish equivalent of the word "parents" into his/her English and thus no breaks occur in the speech the message of which was understood by all the other participants. As for avoidance we present the following examples:

Ex43 ST13: But in the end you may lose your job and **your uhm...** The situation in Turkey is the same. Idealist person... idealist teachers isn't loved very much, aren't loved very much and they the system and the

government was... the teachers rely on their rules and not to be an idealist person and a teacher.

Ex44 ST4: Yes, I can find **the film very..** I understand the film very much so I can find the film very interesting. But I can talk about the teachers' and the parents behavior in the film. The, Mr. Professor Keating...

While ST13 tries to find the word that could follow the adjective “your”, his trouble in recalling the word causes him just to avoid the message. ST4, on the other hand, utters some, as it were, warm up sentences. She will continue the speech discussing the teachers and the parents, yet when she began with Mr. Professor Keating, she gave up the message. Apparently, the participants engaged in such a communicative situation lacked some of the vocabulary or language items they needed to get their meaning across. As a result, they could not keep the interaction going and quit their struggle so they employed **paraphrase technique** as in the examples below:

Ex45 ST19: After Neil's death the school headmaster decided to punish the students and he beat them with with **a big wood**. Is it true for you?

Ex46 ST6: The film turns on his father and his son Neil, Neil neither wants to be a doctor nor knows what to what to be. And his father decided to send his son to dormitory. There his life change ****. He loved his **poem teacher**, he uses different techniques, different methods, help them help them look to life in different view.

Ex47 ST4: We must be careful for for the death of Neil everyone puts blame on Mr. Keating they are wrong because Mr. Keating doesn't deserve these **things** he does the right thing for Neil he he may he gives...

One of the most striking features of Welton Academy is their harsh discipline in that they still employ corporal punishment, which is deliberate infliction of pain intended as correction or punishment. In the past, most punishments, whether in judicial, domestic or educational settings were corporal in basis. In the modern world, corporal punishment has been largely rejected in favor of other disciplinary methods. The paddle, a flat wooden or leather pad with a handle is commonly used for corporal punishment in Welton Academy. Since it is made of wood, ST19 refers to it as “a big wood”.

Although approximation is carried out using a wider coverage word or an umbrella term for the concept intended, ST6's utterance "poem teacher" displays a converse implementation. Mr. Keating is the new English teacher of the school but what he teaches is only poetry as far as we have seen in the film. That he only teaches poetry, which is one of the main parts of the film, causes ST6 to call him a "poem teacher".

The word "thing" has the widest coverage because when you look up the dictionaries "thing" denotes to something referred to by a word, a symbol, a sign, or an idea. Therefore, it is the easiest way to call something "thing" when you do not know the word itself because "thing" means millions of different entities either concrete or abstract. Talking about the treatment Mr. Keating gets and for his attitudes towards his students, ST4 carries her message through this vocabulary gadget "thing". As for literal translation, we quote the following verbatim remarks of the participants:

Ex48 ST15: I agree, this is a very big contradiction. We always do this. When a person dies he became more precious to us. When he is **in life** we don't know his real value. But we must value somebody not only according to their only grades but we must evaluate themselves them with their personality with characters may be.

Ex49 ST6: Its being a **logical** action is impossible because he used alcohol.

The adjective "alive" is most probably known by ST15 because it is among the vocabulary which has quite frequent usage. Thus, the problem ST15 faces is not knowing the word but just recalling it. Turkish equivalent of the adjective "alive" is locative noun "hayatta". Locative is a case which indicates a location. It corresponds to the English prepositions "in", "on", "at". ST15 combines the preposition "in" and the noun "life" to convey her message of "alive".

ST6's utterance sounds completely Turkish in terms of word choice. In the film, Neil attends a party and he gets so drunk that he kisses one of the boys' girlfriend, inspired by Keating's "Carpe Diem" philosophy. As a matter of fact, this is a foreshadowing event in the film: Mr. Keating dangerously teaches non-conformity to the students. Neil's fight with the boy at the party is sign of his tragic end. To attribute Neil *unreasonable* behaviors at the party to alcohol, ST6 says "he used alcohol", which might be replaced as "he took alcohol". What is also interesting here is that the student might have uttered quite a simple sentence to convey her message. She could just tell

that “It can not be a reasonable action because he took alcohol.” Mostly, in order to be perceived as more sophisticated, students avoid such simple constructions and try to make up longer pieces thereby produce inappropriate language.

4.6.1. Repetitions in the Discussion on *Dead Poets Society*

Table 4.14 demonstrates the repetitions of parts of a sentence at both word and group basis.

Table 4.14. Analysis of Repetition Types in the Discussion on (Dead Poets Society)

Word Basis			Group Basis		
Word Class	Number	%	Group Type	Number	%
Pronoun	15	25,4	Noun Phrase	6	19,4
Aux/Verb	11	18,6	Verb Phrase	5	16,1
Noun	11	18,6	Adjective Phrase	5	16,1
Adjective	10	16,9	Prepositional Phrase	-	-
Preposition	5	8,5	Adverb Phrase	-	-
Conjunction	5	8,5	Clause	15	48,4
Article	2	3,4	Other	-	-
Adverb	-	-	Total	31	100
Total	59	100			

About 65% of the repetitions in this discussion are word basis and the rest 35% are group basis. The distributions of word basis repetitions reveal a more homogenous result than that of group basis. Nearly half of the group basis repetitions include the repetition of clauses (48,4%).

Table 4.15. Potential Repetition Reasons (Dead Poets Society)

Reasons	Number	%
Filler	73	81,11
Self-repair	17	18,89
Total	90	100

Among the seven discussions, in the discussion on *Dead Poets Society*, we observe the least frequency of self-repairs (nearly 19%). As far as our observations are concerned, we suggest that this figure might be attributable to the hot discussion in the class. Unlike other discussions, the topic of the *Dead Poets Society* (seize the day!) was of much interest to the participants because it involved plot rotation around young high school students. Some of the self-repair examples are as follows:

Ex50 ST19: And they started to see him as if **he was learning, he was teaching** bad things to his students but **if the people if the people learns if the people learn..**

Ex51 ST4: **This school is this school had** had very high discipline rules so it very I think boring..

4.7. Communication Strategy Use in the Discussion on *Dragonfly*

The fifth movie watched was *Dragonfly*. Dragonfly is a species of insect which has positive connotations because it does not bite or sting humans; dragonflies, in fact, are valued as a kind of predator that helps control the populations of harmful insects, such as mosquitoes. In the movie, dragonfly symbols leads Dr. Joe Darrow to Venezuela, where he finds his baby. The discussion on *Dragonfly* lasted around 56 minutes but this discussion was dominated by the teacher because there was a little number of students and they only produced some 2700 words during the discussion. In Table 4.16 below, we present the count of the CSs identified in the discussion:

Table 4.16. Number of Communication Strategies Employed (Dragonfly; Word Count:~2700 Duration: 56 minutes)

	Frequency	Percentage
Repetition	44	74,6
Literal Translation	8	11,3
Language Switch	6	8,5
Avoidance	3	4,2
Paraphrase	1	1,4

Ask for Help	0	0
Mime	0	0
Total	62	100
$\chi^2=103,000$		

As with the previous discussion, nearly 75% of the strategies used in this discussion was repetitions. Literal translation (11,3%) and language switch (8,5%) follow repetition. While we did not observe the use of “ask for help” or mime, avoidance and paraphrase were employed by 4,2% and 1,4%, respectively.

Starred by Kevin Costner as Dr. Joe Darrow the head of emergency Chicago Memorial hospital, *Dragonfly* presents the tragic story of Dr. Darrow’s wife, Emily, who is also a physician and pregnant. Emily wants to join the Red Cross in Venezuela. Dr. Darrow tries to talk her out of the mission because she is pregnant. Despite all his efforts, Emily goes to Venezuela and dies in a bus accident on a remote mountain road, while helping a group of natives in jungle. No survivors are found. It is very hard for Joe to accept his wife’s death. Soon after, mysterious symbols appear around him all the time. He follows the symbols which lead him to different places. His friends think he has gone crazy but he never gives up. When the last symbol brings him to South America, he is very surprised to find his baby. The language switch examples below show how both content and function words are embedded into the sentence:

Ex52 ST14: May be they are right **ama** but we don’t believe that these things occurs to them. And they are prove that in a while I saw a event in the television that prove this situation.

Ex53 ST13: When, If I were in Joe’s shoes I think I would do the brave thing, I think I wouldn’t do the same thing as Joe do. What would you do **yani** ?

Participant ST14 skillfully embeds Turkish words in English sentences. When we remember the phrase “the *ebeveyn* of the students”, we can see that unlike other participants who mostly uses semantically empty words as “şey” “yani”, ST14 uses both content and function words in his/her utterances.

While discussing Joe’s journey to Venezuela, ST13 finished his/her sentence with a code switch. Although “yani” is used to explain one’s sentences using different

words, in colloquial language, if a question is finished with “yani,” it is meant that one expects agreement with the person to whom the question is directed. In a sense, in colloquial language “yani” functions as a tag question. ST13 thinks everyone would behave as Joe did, but instead of asking a tag question following an affirmative statement, he asks an informative question succeeded by a Turkish tag question.

Ex54 ST3: ...He gets some messages signals and wants to analyze them and come all them together to find his wife. At the end he found.. he he reached them, find a map then he goes to Venezuela to find to find his wife. And then he comes he comes to face to face a surprising event. He finds his child there. I **think**..

Participant ST3 produced a relatively longer piece of speech. The participant recalls the events in the film but when she is about to make some comments, the task seems difficult that she just **abandons the message** and lets another friend take over. This kind of avoidance justifies the use of referential communication tasks in speaking classes. When participants are expected to refer to some facts, they become more fluent speakers. Fluency indicates confidence on part of the speaker, which is a very important element in learning to speak a language. Many learners worry that they are going to make a mistake, or that the people listening will not understand them. Despite the fact that fluency is the main objective to attain in speaking, this does not mean, however, that we ignore accuracy here . As for paraphrase we present the usage of an all-purpose word below:

Ex55 ST2: And some people think that Joe is going to be crazy or something like that. Because a woman said you need help. But we should see the **real things** behind their behaviors so we shouldn't prejudice against them that they have a psychological problem.

Again we see an example for the employment of an *all-purpose word*. Participant ST2 argues that we should see the motivations, or reasons leading Joe to act in a certain way. Since the participant has difficulty in recalling the word “motivations” or “reasons” she uses an all purpose word, *things*, to bridge this lexical gap. As for literal translations we quote the following verbatim remarks of the participants:

Ex 56 ST12: At first I want to say that the film was about the film was about a couple, Jo and Emily, as you know. And they are both doctors. Emily one day wants to go Venezuela **for helping** poor there. And everything start with this trip. As we know when Emily goes an accident happens and that's how everything gets started.

Ex 57 ST14:.... The bus filled with people slipped away from the cliffs towards the water. Many people died. **In this people** there was Emily. But Emily's corpse didn't came didn't wasn't sent to Jo. Everything started to became Jo such as Jeffrey and Ben remembered Jo Emily...

In Turkish, when we talk about plans, aims, etc. we use an infinitive phrase followed by the postposition “için”, while in English the infinitive is often used in combination with another verb to show the reason or purpose for performing the action in the first verb. The phrases “in order to” and “so as” are often used to precede the infinitive verb of purpose. Thus, when we talk of purpose what we need is just the infinitive phrase itself, or the infinitive phrase can be preceded by “in order to” or “so as to”.

ST14's sentence “In this people there was Emily” is an example of wrong preposition usage: the correct version of the sentence should be “Emily was among these people.” As with the above example, the semantic similarity of prepositions cause the speaker to use the wrong preposition. Regarding prepositions, we could argue that students of English tend to have three types of problems: 1) choosing the wrong preposition, 2) omitting a needed preposition, and 3) using a preposition where one is not needed.

First-language interference is always a problem in learning a second language, but nowhere is this more critical than with prepositions. As we have already seen above, just because Turkish uses a given preposition it does not mean that English will use the equivalent in the same situation (for difficulties in preposition usage see Ekmekci & Bada, 1997).

4.7.1. Repetitions in the Discussion on *Dragonfly*

Table 4.17 demonstrates the repetitions of parts of a sentence at both word and group basis.

Table 4.17. Analysis of Repetition Types in the Discussion on (Dragonfly)

Word Basis			Group Basis		
Word Class	Number	%	Group Type	Number	%
Pronoun	12	45,2	Noun Phrase	3	18,2
Aux/Verb	7	29,0	Verb Phrase	5	31,8
Noun	6	22,6	Adjective Phrase	1	4,5
Adjective	1	3,2	Prepositional Phrase	-	-
Preposition	-	-	Adverb Phrase	-	-
Conjunction	-	-	Clause	9	50,0
Article	-	-	Other	-	-
Adverb	-	-	Total	18	100
Total	26	100			

In the discussion on *Dragonfly* almost all of word basis repetitions were composed of noun, pronoun and verb repetitions; and nearly half of word basis repetitions were composed of verb repetitions (45,2%). In group basis repetition, clause and verb phrase repetitions again had almost hundred percent share in the distribution. Without surprise, articles were not repeated in isolation, which accounts for the noun phrase repetitions (18,2%). Here are some of the repetition types which occurred in this discussion:

Ex 58 ST13: He **don't doesn't** give up, try trying eh eh looking for his wife.

Emily is a strange people, strange person

Ex 59 ST14: ...took him there and a woman of the.. an old woman **of the of the** tribe explained the situation and saved him saved his daughter but not his wife.

Table 4.18. Potential Repetition Reasons (Dragonfly)

Reasons	Number	%
Filler	32	72,72
Self-repair	12	27,28
Total	44	100

As seen in the examples from the fifth discussion below, the most common type of self-repairs occurred when the participants noticed a mistake in subject-verb agreement or conjugation mistakes. We all know the meaning of “agree” but when we talk about subject-verb agreement, we are talking about something different: matching subjects and verbs according to number. That is, when we have a singular subject, we have to match it with a singular verb form:

Ex60 ST13: He **don’t doesn’t** give up, try trying eh eh looking for his wife.

Ex61 ST3: That sometimes it becomes very often that **I got I got I get** crazy and don’t want to be don’t want to think anything.

4.8. Communication Strategy Use in the Discussion on *Bruce Almighty*

The sixth movie watched was *Bruce Almighty*. *Bruce Almighty* is a high-grossing comedy movie directed by Tom Shadyac. The movie surprisingly features God as a wise, middle-aged black man The discussion on *Bruce Almighty* lasted around 57 minutes and the students produced some 5250 words during the discussion. Below in Table 4.19, we present the count of the CSs identified in the discussion:

Table 4.19. Number of Communication Strategies Employed (Bruce Almighty; Word Count:~5250, Duration: 57 minutes)

	Frequency	Percentage
Repetition	80	72,7
Avoidance	7	6,4
Paraphrase	6	5,5
Language Switch	5	4,5
Literal Translation	5	4,5
Ask for Help	5	4,5
Mime	2	1,8
Total	110	100
$\chi^2 = 307,709$		

As seen in Table 4.19, repetitions share the 72,7% percentage of the distribution, and the other five of the CSs (avoidance, paraphrase, language switch, literal translation and ask for help) almost have the same percentages. As with other discussions, the least employed strategy is mime (1,8%).

Bruce Almighty stars Jim Carrey as Bruce Nolan, a television reporter trying to get the “anchorman” position on his TV news station in Buffalo, New York is discontented with almost everything in life, despite his popularity and the love of his girlfriend, Grace. His talent lies in entertaining people, so his boss constantly sticks him on little human-interest stories. He never gets a chance to report on the events and keeps getting ‘silly’ trivial local stories. At the end of a bad day in his life, Bruce angrily ridicules and swears at God, and God responds. He appears in human form and, endowing Bruce with all of divine powers, challenges Bruce to take on the big job and see if he can do it any better. In the end, Bruce realizes that God’s powers are best left for God to handle and graciously asks God to take control of his life. The examples of language switches are presented below:

Ex62 ST22: It’s the **sey** one of the funniest scenes is that Grace open the door and find the dog reading newspaper.

Ex63 ST21: I think her heart broke **yani** very badly and it isn’t easy to forgive him.

It is sometimes argued that people, regularly mixing words or phrases from more than one language within sentences, are thought to be unable to speak the languages very well. Yet, we are not sure about language proficiency of these students who embed semantically empty Turkish words in their speech. Since they are semantically empty words, we could argue that these code switching are purposeful, and not just slips of the tongue. As for avoidance we will analyze the following examples:

Ex64 ST8: Grace loves him for he's Grace ('s). Grace love him for he is

Bruce...

Ex65 ST8: First I want to speak about Bruce. Bruce is such a funny man. He has *** and Grace Grace so sensitive I think. And they have a very... they love each other and they have very **good...**

It seems that participant ST8 has difficulty in talking about a love affair. She seems to be unsure about how to express the relationship between Bruce and Grace, therefore, she just quits her message. According to Færch & Kasper (1983), communication strategies have a two phased procedure: 1) a planning phase where the plan is developed, and 2) execution phase where the plan is executed. If there are problems with the plan so that it cannot be executed, the learner either avoids the problem, or faces the problem and carries on with his/her message through an alternative plan. In the first example, ST8 gives up her message and expects another friend to take turn, and in the second example, although she has some difficulty in expressing her ideas, she persistently tries to convey her message. The following remarks are examples of paraphrase strategy use:

Ex66 ST13: I want to talk about the last scene of the film. I think it was perfect. You saw a man during the film holding **some notes** according to situation. At the end of the scene change is perfect.

Ex67 ST13: I want to talk about the plot. You know Bruce Nolan is a TV reporter and he always makes do **small and unimportant** report and he wants he desires to be an anchorman but he has a rival.

In the film, we frequently see a beggar who holds up a banner on which a message in line with the flow of film appears. Apparently, ST13 refers to the beggar and his banner, but either due to not knowing or having difficulty in recalling the word “banner,” he, inspired by the written message of the banner, talks about some notes. Again we know that Bruce Nolan is assigned to prepare reports on trivial issues but ST13 tries to paraphrase “trivial” as “small and unimportant”. As for literal translation we quote the following examples:

Ex68 ST23: We should posses our loved ones. And if we have something that we like if our loved ones didn’t don’t **near me** don’t near us we shouldn’t be happy. And love is the most important thing in life I think.

Ex69 ST11: There are many messages to get. Firstly I understood that **everything almost everything under the control of ourselves.**

ST23 uses the adjective “near” as a verb but this usage is also problematic in that metaphorically speaking the Turkish equivalent of “to be near someone” means supporting somebody but this usage is not reflected in English. *Near* does not denote *support* in the collocations it is found.

As mentioned above, one of the most significant differences between Turkish and English is that copula is achieved in different ways in English and in Turkish. When we analyze the following sentences we could improve our insight about the issue:

The horse is old.

At yaşlı(dır).

The English word “is” denotes the horse as having the property of ‘oldness’. This job is done by the sentence form in Turkish; specifically, by the Tense/Aspect marker “dır”. The Turkish copula is traditionally analyzed as semantically vacuous: it doesn’t contribute any semantic content of its own (other than the tense information provided by its morphology). The only reason it appears in Turkish sentences at all is for emphasis, since sentences such as *At yaşlı(dır)*, are probably much more frequently used in their form when they are stripped of the *-dır* suffix.

4.8.1. Repetitions in the Discussion on (Bruce Almighty)

Table 4.20 demonstrates the repetitions of parts of a sentence at both word and group basis.

Table 4.20. Analysis of Repetition Types in the Discussion on (Bruce Almighty)

Word Basis			Group Basis		
Word Class	Number	%	Group Type	Number	%
Pronoun	13	27,7	Noun Phrase	3	9,1
Aux/Verb	11	23,4	Verb Phrase	4	12,1
Noun	10	21,3	Adjective Phrase	1	3,0
Adjective	5	10,6	Prepositional Phrase	5	15,2
Preposition	5	10,6	Adverb Phrase	-	-
Conjunction	3	6,4	Clause	19	57,6
Article	-	-	Other	1	3,0
Adverb	-	-	Total	33	100
Total	47	100			

In this discussion, word basis repetitions are more homogeneous than other discussions. There are no adverb and conjunction repetitions at word basis level but the distribution is skewed towards pronouns and verbs (27,7% and 23,4%, respectively). In group basis repetitions, however, clause repetition (57,6%), which occurs as pronouns plus auxiliary verb repetition, has the largest majority in the distribution.

Ex70 ST3: And we must be brave **against against** these difficulties.

Ex71 ST22: For example he thinks that **he he** deals with small works. So he is ignored. And everything start with this.

Table 4.21. Potential Repetition Reasons (Bruce Almighty)

Reasons	Number	%
Filler	54	67,50
Self-repair	26	32,50
Total	80	100

As seen in Table 4.21, in this discussion 67,50% of repetitions were resorted to to gain time and 32,50% of them were resorted to correct the mistakes. Besides subject-verb agreement, conjugation and reference form mistakes, a rare kind of self-repair strategy, *embedding word or phrases in a sentence*, was resorted to by the participants:

Ex72 ST15: So **in this.. in situations like this** we shouldn't be pessimistic,
we must have hope in ourselves.

Ex73 ST18: And he believes God **for_ always forgets** him

4.9. Communication Strategy Use in the Discussion on *Godsend*

The seventh and the last movie watched by the participants was *Godsend*. *Godsend* is a compelling and contemporary thriller written by Mark Bombeck and directed by Nick Hamm. Human cloning has been a hot topic ever since Dolly the sheep was cloned in 1997. A subject of great debate around the world, the idea of producing children who are genetically virtually identical to pre-existing individuals seems unethical to some, while others see the possibility to do good for infertile couples and the broader society. Many nations have outlawed the process, but the isolation in 1998 of human embryonic stem cells has further muddled the waters, since stem cells derived from cloned human embryos are useful for studying various genetic diseases and developing unique therapies. The discussion on *Godsend* lasted around 43 minutes and the students produced some 3850 words during the discussion. In Table 4.22 below, we see the count of the CSs identified in the discussion.

Table 4.22. Number of Communication Strategies Employed (Godsend; Word Count: ~3850, Duration: 43 minutes)

	Frequency	Percentage
Repetition	70	78,7
Avoidance	8	9,0
Literal Translation	5	5,6
Ask for Help	4	4,5
Mime	1	1,1
Language Switch	1	1,1
Paraphrase	0	0
Total	89	100
$\chi^2 = 248,551$		

As with the previous discussions, with 78,7% percentage repetitions has the largest share in the distribution of strategies. With 8 occurrences avoidance has 9,0% share in the distribution. Literal translation and “ask for help” have 5,6% and 4,5% percentages, respectively. While paraphrase did not occur, language switch and mime occur by 1,1% only.

Introducing a popular theme, cloning, the film starts with the Duncans (Paul and Jessie) burying their 8-year old son Adam. They are then approached by Dr. Richard Wells at the funeral home, who claims he can clone their son, and Jessie Duncan could then give birth to him again. They agree to it, but the procedure is illegal and they therefore have to move away in order to keep it a secret. The new Adam Duncan reaches his 8th birthday unaware of what had happened, but then starts having nightmares. He becomes increasingly violent, and when a child drowns at Adam's school, Paul Duncan decides to interview with Dr. Wells about his child's behavior. Eventually, it becomes evident that when Dr. Wells cloned Adam Duncan, he inserted the DNA of his own dead son, Zachary Clark, into the process, causing Adam to eventually develop a split personality: Adam Duncan and Zachary Clark. Unfortunately, Zachary was a psychopath who murdered his mother, and under the influence of Zachary's memories, Adam attempts to do the same. In the language switch example below we see how a Turkish word is embedded into the utterance:

Ex74 ST14: Their son bring back and came back and the child lived follows a comfortable life until the eight years. But after the eight years the life began to begin to go wrong and the child started to dream an in **kabus** in kabus and the situation got ++ terrible and

Here again we see how ST14 skillfully embeds Turkish words in English sentences. As with the phrase “the *ebeveyn* (=parents) of the students”, embedding “kabus” (=nightmare) in his sentence, ST14 again uses a content word that unlike other participants who mostly use semantically empty words as “şey” “yani”. Trying to refer to little child’s nightmares, ST14 recalls the word “dream” but what he needs is “nightmare”, therefore, he just embeds the Turkish word in the utterance. As for avoidance we present the following examples:

Ex75 ST9: Yes he took the address from this picture and go to the address and saw a black woman and talked with her, talked with her. She told him that, she told him the the happening of this. And the **she told...**

Ex76 ST18: And the parents think that everything will be OK. And the grief of their son will come an end. Everything will be OK. But after eight years old Adam’s birth every thing began to change. And Adam, and Adam’s behaves changed. And his behaves was destructive. And he was he began to dreams and he was aggressive in his dreams to his surroundings also **and...**

In the film, Adam Duncan’s father, Paul, finds the babysitter of Dr. Wells’ late son and has an interview on the strange behaviors of the child. ST9 tries to talk about such behaviors but in the end s/he gives up the struggle and abandons the message.

ST18 also tries to refer to strange behaviors of Adam, who was cloned from the genes of late Adam Duncan and the son of Dr. Wells. In fact like ST9, ST18 had difficulty in talking about the child’s behaviors and like ST9, she attempts to resolve problems by abandoning message. The examples below show the use of literal translation:

Ex77 ST19: Because may be we can do something to improve our life standard or something but we can’t change. We.. **what is written in our fate** we live it and experience I found I find cloning unethical. May be you

think I am very conservative person but do you.. I can't understand why people try to reproduce the same person.

Ex78 ST2: We watched a film. **Its name** was Godsend and I think it was good film. It was about it tells a lot about human psychology.

Most Christians and Moslems believe in pre-ordinance: in theology preordination means being determined in advance; especially the doctrine that God has foreordained every event throughout eternity (including the final salvation of mankind). Metaphorically, we explain this belief as something written by God on something. In Turkish this belief is explained as something written in our fate.

ST2's literal translation is one of the most common types of literal translation errors made by Turkish speakers of English: when we talk about poems, films, novels, articles in Turkish, we talk about the "names" of the poems, novels, etc. but in standard English the word "name" is not used to refer to those entities: the English talk about the titles of the movies, poems or novels.

4.9.1. Repetitions in the Discussion on (Godsend)

Table 4.23 demonstrates the repetitions of parts of a sentence at both word and group basis.

Table 4.23. Analysis of Repetition Types in the Discussion on (Godsend)

Word Basis			Group Basis		
Word Class	Number	%	Group Type	Number	%
Pronoun	6	21,4	Noun Phrase	7	16,7
Aux/Verb	5	17,9	Verb Phrase	11	26,2
Noun	5	17,9	Adjective Phrase	5	11,9
Adjective	4	14,3	Prepositional Phrase	1	2,4
Preposition	4	14,3	Adverb Phrase	2	4,8

Conjunction	3	10,7	Clause	15	35,7
Article	1	3,6	Other	1	2,4
Adverb	-	-	Total	42	100
Total	28	100			

Interestingly, in this last discussion on *Godsend*, the frequency of group basis repetitions is higher than word basis ones. In word basis repetitions, we see that the frequency of adjectives (21,4%) is higher than other elements. In group basis repetitions, however, the distribution is in accord with the general tendency, in that clauses (35,7%) and verb phrase repetitions (26,2%) have the majority in the distribution.

Table 4.24. Potential Repetition Reasons (Godsend)

Reasons	Number	%
Filler	52	74,29
Self-repair	18	25,71
Total	70	100

As seen in Table 4.24, the participants mostly repeated the lexical items in order to gain time (74,29%) and they sometimes needed to correct themselves (25,71%). Sometimes, participants needed to replace verbs in particular, and sometimes nouns or adjectives. Cognition is an abstract property of advanced living organisms; therefore, it is studied as a direct property of the brain or of an abstract mind on symbolic levels such as language. In addition, cultural relativity theories postulate that environmental factors are also effective on cognitive processes, while cognitive linguistics argues that language is both embodied and situated in a specific region in the brain. Thus, not only are language and cognition mutually influential, but also embodied experience and environmental factors are also effective on language acquisition. In the above self-repair examples, we could observe the traces of L1 interference or transfer of training in second language production but the examples below, we believe, display the transaction of cognitive process void of L1 interference or transfer of training.

Ex79 ST18: And **he was he began** to dreams and he was aggressive in his dreams to his surroundings also and...

Ex80 ST15: ...but it may be different in **scientific app_ in scientific characteristics**.

Regarding language switches, we have seen that the participants mostly used semantically empty words to gain time, which could not be considered as slip of the tongue. The purposeful use of Turkish words occurred only few times. In this study as mentioned above we dealt mostly with lexical problems of the speakers. Not having a wide vocabulary can have a serious effect on confidence of a speaker. But how can s/he become more confident even if s/he does not know a lot of words. The first thing to do is to think of what is done in the native language. When speaking in our own language, we often forget the word we need, or have problems finding the precise word for an idea we want to express. We just try to find another way to express our ideas.

Lack of language switch may be attributed to the attitude of the teacher, who always speaking English not only in classroom but also out the classroom, had a positive effect on the students' language use. Even when students sometimes expressed themselves only in Turkish, the teacher replied in English. In addition, the teacher hardly ever interfered with the natural flow of discussion during class sessions, and thus the students did not feel under any psychological pressure.

As another positive effect of this attitude, during the discussion, the participants tried to make use of their own vocabulary repertoire as much as possible. They did not want to break the natural flow of the discussion either.

Code-switching is used for a number of reasons.

- It is commonly used when a person living in a different country to the language which they usually speak finds that they have no relevant translation of a word, expression or concept created in the country where they live.
- A person from a different culture to a person from a culture in which they live may find it necessary to revert back to their mother-tongue in order to explain something which has no linguistic equivalent in the country where they live.

- Code-switching is also used in order to help an ethnic minority community retain a sense of cultural identity. In much the same way that slang is used to give a group of people a sense of identity and belongingness, and to differentiate themselves from other members of the society. Especially among bilinguals code switch implies a more close relationship between the interlocutors (Imer, 1980). So rather than a display of deficient language knowledge, code switching alerts participating parties to the interaction of the context and social dimension within which the conversation is taking place.

First two of the above reasons show that code switching is used for its translation function. However, in a foreign language classroom code-switching has more functions than mere translation. Therefore, besides the above mentioned reasons, Flyman-Mattson and Burenhult (1999) put forward some other explanations for code-switching in second language classrooms:

- Linguistic insecurity, e.g. the difficulty teachers/learners experience in relating new concepts
- Topic switch, i.e. when the teacher switches code according to which topic is under discussion; it might be suggested, for instance, that certain aspects of foreign language teaching such as grammar instruction, is preferably expressed in the mother tongue of the students.
- Affective functions, e.g. spontaneous expression of emotions and emotional understanding in discourse with students.
- Socializing functions, i.e. when teachers turn to the students' first language to signal friendship and solidarity.
- Repetitive functions, i.e. when teachers convey the same message in both languages for clarity.

We could argue that the participants' code switches in our study are related with linguistic insecurity; when they met some difficulty in recalling a certain concept or when they were unsure about the concept, the participants simply used the L1 version of the word.

While both interlanguage and code-switching are probably strongly related to each other and may appear more or less concurrently in the language life of the developing bilingual, and interlanguage is the language constructed before arriving at

more ideal forms of the target language, code switching (including mixing, transferring, and borrowing) may occur during and after the interlanguage phase. In any case it is clear that both interlanguage and code switching seem to be a natural cross linguistic outgrowth of becoming or having become bilingual (Duran, 1994). Code switching is mostly employed in case of need to fill a linguistic/conceptual gap; thus, code-switching seems to serve important communicative and cognitive functions, however; not only in foreign language classrooms but in the society at large code switching seems to be debased.

While students participating in Flyman's study (1997) used mostly paraphrase strategy in translation and picture description tasks, and gestures mostly in the picture description tasks, in the discussion task literal translation and code switching, with a 51% percentage, were used more frequently than other strategies. In our study code switching and literal translation occupy around 11% of the total strategy use.

Avoidance strategy can occur mainly at two levels. Thus, there are two possibilities, *topic avoidance* where the problem is avoided and *message abandonment* where the learner starts to refer to an object but gives up because it is too difficult (Flyman, 1997). To find topic avoidance strategies in a free discussion is not an easy task since it is hard to know what the subject's intention was with the utterance, therefore; in this study we could only dealt with message abandonment, which is easily marked when a message is left unfinished. With a 7,3 percentage avoidance strategy has shown its significance in the interlanguage of the participants. In her study on communication strategies, Dobao (2005) found that the avoidance strategy is used with a 38,5% among elementary, 15,2% among intermediate, and 11,8% among advanced students. That less proficient students, compared with their more proficient counterparts—elementary students with intermediate, and intermediate with advanced—used a higher percentage of avoidance strategies; that is, when faced with lexical difficulties, they resorted more often to the abandonment or total avoidance of topics is in line with her hypothesis that, lower level students, because of their more limited command of the target language, were not able to develop alternative means to convey their originally intended messages as frequently as more proficient students.

Differentiating between approximation and circumlocution (subsumed under paraphrase in this study), Poulisse *et al* (1990) classify approximation as holistic and circumlocution as analytic strategies. When an L2 speaker can not recall the appropriate word for a concept, s/he can opt for either a holistic strategy by relating it to another

concept which is close to it and often has wider coverage or an analytic strategy by analyzing it into components. Mostly, learners chose to employ approximation, the strategy which requires the least effort and if this strategy does not yield satisfactory result, they try using circumlocution (Poulisse et al, 1990). This hierarchy is also seen in this study in that none of the participant chose to use circumlocution because all of them watched the movies and they were well aware of what they were referring.

Although literal translation can also denote a translation that represents the precise meaning of the original text, it does not, however, attempt to convey its style, beauty, or poetry in terms of communication strategies. Literal translation is defined as a translation that follows closely the form of the source language, which in most cases results in idiosyncrasies in L2. The 7,7% literal translation in the discourse of Turkish speakers display that they have also translated words following their source language (Turkish) rules and thus produced idiosyncratic utterances.

The few usages of *ask for help strategy* (2,3%) could be considered as a clear indicator of the fluency of the discussions. Participants made use of most of their own resources in carrying over their message, partly due to the conducive atmosphere in the classroom. That is both explicitly and sometimes implicitly the students were encouraged to use always the target language in the classroom.

Self-repairs were found among all participants. It is clear that to be able to correct the mistake one has just made, one needs to have acquired English to a certain level. That this high frequency of self-repair strategies is of great importance for participants because if they limited oral proficiency they would be unable to check what they have just said and make a correction.

Regarding pronoun repetitions we would like to inform the audience about the study conducted by Genç and Bada (2006), where the researchers found that (1) there were no great differences between native speakers' and Turkish participants' narratives in terms of anaphoric reference usage; and (2) pronouns were anaphoric reference forms mostly employed in the narratives of both groups.

Studying disfluency in the speech of native speakers of English, Lickley (1994) found that the vast majority of single word repetitions were of function words: while only 13 repetitions of content words were found, 4,1% of the total of single word repetitions, 304 function word repetitions constituted the 95,9% of the total single word repetitions. Thus, function words such as prepositions and articles were more often repeated than content words such as nouns and verbs. In our study, however, as we have

seen in the above tables, the participants mostly repeated content words both at word level and group basis repetitions.

In another study of repetition on German-English bilinguals, Rieger (2003) briefly sums up her findings as:

- bilingual speakers tend to use more repetitions of personal pronouns when speaking English than when speaking German;
- bilingual speakers tend to use more repetitions of pronouns and conjugated verb forms or verbal phrases when speaking English than when speaking German;
- bilingual speakers tend to use more repetitions of prepositions when speaking English than when speaking German; and
- bilingual speakers tend to use more repetitions of demonstrative pronouns when speaking German than when speaking English.

Thus, this time quite surprisingly the distributions of repetitions in the narrative of bilingual English-German speakers and our participants display great similarity in that in the repetitions of both groups we see that pronouns and verbs prevail over other elements. Yet, unlike Turkish speakers of English who repeated prepositions and conjunctions not so often, German-English bilinguals repeated prepositions and conjunctions frequently in their narratives.

Regarding stages of interlanguage development as Brown (1994) hypothesized, these first year students either can be classified in the category of Second (or Emergent) Stage or Systematic Stage. As a matter of fact, the difference between the stages is not that clear in that the second stage is characterized by a consistency in linguistic production and the systematic stage is characterized by more consistency in linguistic production.

Table 4.25. Comparison of L1 based and L2 based strategies

	L1-Based Strategies %		L2-Based Strategies %		p
First Discussion	8	15,7	51	84,3	0.000
Last Discussion	6	6,7	83	93,3	0.000

As seen in the table above, the participants used significantly more L2-based strategies (repetition, avoidance, paraphrase, ask for help, and mime strategies) at the start, and towards the end of the term while their use of L1-based (language switch and literal translation) strategies decreased, there was an increase in the use of L2 based strategies.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION

5.1. Research Questions and Findings

The purpose of this study was to investigate the kinds of communication strategies Turkish speakers employ, to what extent they employ L1-based or L2 based strategies and the difference between the use of CSs between the beginning and the end of academic term. The findings of the study are discussed below regarding the research questions.

Research Question 1: *What kinds of communication strategies do Turkish speakers of English employ?*

By far, the most common strategy favored by the participants was found to be repetition. In general, more than 70% of the CSs were *repetitions*. With around 7%, *avoidance* and *literal translation* strategies follow repetitions. Paraphrase, which is classified under *analysis based (ANCO) strategies* by Bialystok (1990) and Poullisse, Bongaerts & Kellerman (1990), occupies the fourth position with its 5% occurrence. Following, we see *language switches* and *ask for help* strategies with almost same percentages: slightly over 2%.

Research Question 2: *To what extent do Turkish speakers employ L1-based and/or L2-based strategies?*

Among the communication strategies, code switching, paraphrase, literal translation, are known as achievement strategies because they are employed to overcome a problem; other strategies are used by learners to avoid a communication problem, as for instance when a learner gives up part of his/her original communicative goal to avoid certain linguistic forms, speech acts, etc. Learners also use requests for assistance to solve and facilitate communication. In this respect the participants in this study could be considered successful in that they did their best to convey their messages. That avoidance strategies occupy 7,3% shows that seldom did the participants give up their message and continue with another message.

Research Question 3: *What differences in terms of frequency occur in CSs use between the beginning and the end of the academic term?*

During all the discussion we have recorded in the speaking classes in the fall semester of the 2004-2005 academic year, repetitions were the most common strategy we have observed in 14 weeks time. In the discussion on the first film, this strategy had a 65,1%, and in the discussion on the last film, this strategy was used with a frequency of 78,7%. This is not a statistically significant difference, ($p=0.519$); however, the increase in percentage indicates there is a tendency, compared to other L1-based strategies, toward using L2-based strategies, which are also strategies used by native speakers as well. Besides this change in an L2-based strategy, the decrease in use of *literal translations* (one of the L1-based strategies) from 12,7% in the first discussion session down to 5,6% in the last discussion session is quite a promising change. This statistically significant change ($p=0.00$) indicates that learners were moving away from L1-based strategies towards L2-based ones. Interlanguage development is a painfully slow process, an evolution which proceeds most overtly at the lexical level (Blake, 2000) and the gradual increase in the frequency of the *repetitions* and gradual decrease in *literal translations* mean that the participants began to use more L2-based strategies rather than L1-based ones, thereby approximating to native speaker usage of language.

5.2. Pedagogical implications and conclusions

In the past, ever-increasing attention has been paid to communicative competence and a lot of research has been conducted. However, communication strategies, have drawn little attention compared to sociolinguistic or discourse competence. This is partly due to difficulties with their definition and identification. But, above all, the question about their teachability is the main reason strategic competence has not been studied as it should have been.

Studies on CSs were born when particular attention focused on those instances when second-language learners' communicative needs exceed their linguistic resources and thereby force them to employ "communication strategies" to remedy the situation. While second-language researchers have compiled extensive inventories of these strategies, to date there has been little research on the "teachability" of communication strategies.

In this respect this study suggests that rather than teaching communication strategies, assigning referential tasks in speaking classes and encouraging students to speak not only in classroom but also out of classroom may have positive effect on their speaking performances.

5.3. Limitations and further research

In the “Design of the Study” section, we argued that the study is a naturalistic one; we, however, should remind the reader that even the presence of the researcher with a video camera in the classroom may violate, albeit to a little extent, this naturalistic setting.

The result of this research is based on a relatively small number of participants. So, the information obtained here is inadequate and there is likely less possibility to draw a strong recommendation from it. The interpretation of the results might have some practical constraints because of its descriptive nature. Considering all these limitations and constraints, further studies with a larger population can be carried out in the same area to show more convincing results which might be useful for curriculum developers and the language policy makers for secondary and tertiary level English programs.

A third limitation we should mention is that the research took place in a classroom setting, which may have prevented us from generalizing our findings to real life conditions. In addition, there could be some reservations about the sampling strategy employed in the study: although it is fast, convenient and probably most common, convenience sampling is alleged to be neither purposeful nor strategic (Paton, 2002).

Lastly, we should emphasize that the change in the usage of CSs from L1-based towards L2-based strategies could not only be attributed to development in the interlanguage of the participants; the movies themselves on which the participants had discussions might have also affected the CSs usage.

REFERENCES

- Açıkgoz, H. M. (2003), *İletişim Felsefesine Giriş: İnsani İletişimin Felsefi Temelleri*, İstanbul: Birey Yayınları.
- Allwright, D. & Bailey, K. M. (1991), *Focus on the Language Classroom*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Andrioti, P. (2005), An Outline of the Role of Communication Strategies in Interaction between L2 Learners, Online documents at URL <http://www.tesolgreece.com/nl/73/7308.html> [05.05.2005]
- Bada, E. (1993), *Phonemic Identifications in English: A Case of Interlingual Transfer by Adult Speakers of Turkish, Japanese, and Arabic*, Unpublished doctoral dissertation The University of Exeter: Exeter.
- Bada, E. (1998), Role of Native Language in ELT: Factors Affecting Transfer, *Cukurova University Journal of Social Sciences* 5 (5), 199-207.
- Bada, E. (2006), Pausing Preceding and Following *That* in English: A Study with Implications to Reading and Speaking Skills in ELT, *ELT Journal* 60 (2), 125-132.
- Bada, E. (2007), Repetition as a communication strategy in interlanguage, Unpublished manuscript.
- Bardovi-Harlig, K. (1994), Anecdote or evidence? Evaluating support for hypotheses concerning the development of tense and aspect, In S. Gass, A. Cohen, & E. Tarone (Eds.), *Research Methodology in Second Language Acquisition* (pp. 41-60). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Bell, L. & Gustafson, J. (1999), Repetition and its phonetic realizations: Investigating a Swedish database of spontaneous computer-directed speech, Online documents at URL http://www.speech.kth.se/august/icphs99_aug.html [15.06.2006]
- Benson, C. (2002), Transfer/Cross-linguistic influence, *ELT Journal* 56 (1), 68-70.
- Bialystok, E. (1990). *Communication strategies*, Oxford: Basil Blackwell.
- Blake, R. (2000). Computer Mediated Communication: A Window On L2 Spanish Interlanguage, *Language Learning & Technology* 4 (1), 120-136.
- Brown, G. and G. Yule. (1983a), *Teaching the Spoken Language*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Brown, G. and G. Yule. (1983b), *Discourse Analysis*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

- Brown, H. D. (1994), *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching*, Prentice Hall, Inc.: New Jersey.
- Bou-Franch, P. (1994), Communication strategies and topic sequences in the conversational discourse of Spanish learners of English, Online documents at URL <http://www.uv.es/~boup/PDF/stylistica.pdf> [01.04.2005]
- Bygate, M. (2003), Spoken Language, Online documents at URL http://www.lang.ltsn.ac.uk/resources/goodpractice.aspx?resourceid=1446#toc_9324 [05.05.2005]
- Canale, M. and Swain, M. (1980), Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing, *Applied Linguistics* 1:1-47.
- Canale, M. (1983), From Communicative Competence to communicative language pedagogy. In J. C. Richards and R. W. Schmidt *Language and Communication* (pp. 2-15). New York: Longman.
- Chafe, W. L. (1979), The flow of thought and the flow of language, In T. Givon (ed.) *Syntax and semantics Volume 12: Discourse and Syntax*. New York: Academic Press.
- Cohen, A. D. (1998), *Strategies in Learning and Using a Second Language*, Essex, UK: Longman.
- Cook, V. (2002), Background to the L2 User, In V. Cook (Ed.), *Portraits of the L2 User* (pp. 1-28). Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Corder, S.P. (1973), *Introducing Applied Linguistics*, Harmondsworth, UK: Penguin Books.
- Corder, S.P. (1986), *Error Analysis and Interlanguage*, Oxford, Oxford University Press.
- Demo, D. A. (2005), What is Discourse Analysis? Online documents at URL <http://www.cal.org/resources/digest/0107demo.html> [15.11.2005]
- Dobao, A. F. (2005), The Effect of Language Proficiency on Communication Strategy Use: A Case Study of Galician Learners of English, Online documents at URL http://155.210.60.15/MISCELANEA/ARTICULOS_25/2%20fern%E1ndez%20dobao.doc [25.07.2005]
- Donald, R. (2005), Teaching Speaking Skills, Online documents at URL http://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/think/speak/speak_skills.shtml [25.07.2005]
- Dörnyei, Z. (1995), On the Teachability of Communication Strategies, *TESOL Quarterly* 29 (1), 55-85.

- Dörnyei, Z., Scott, M. L. (1997), Communication Strategies in a Second Language: Definitions and Taxonomies, *Language Learning* 47 (1), 173-210.
- Dörnyei, Z., Kormos, J. (1998), Problem-solving Mechanisms in L2 Communication, *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* 20, 349-385.
- DuFon, M. A. (2002), Video Recording in Ethnographic SLA Research: Some Issues of Validity in Data Collection, *Language Learning & Technology* 6 (1), 40-59.
- Duran, L. (1994), Toward a Better Understanding of Code Switching and Interlanguage in Bilinguality: Implications For Bilingual Instruction, *The Journal of Educational Issues of Language Minority Students* 14, 69-88.
- Ekmekci, O., & Bada, E. (1997), Source of Error in Prepositional Utterances Produced by Turkish Speakers Learning English, *Dil Dergisi* 47, 23-30.
- Ellis, R. (1984), Communication strategies and the evaluation of communicative performance, *ELT Journal* 18 (1), 39-44.
- Ellis, R. (1985), *Understanding second language acquisitions*, Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Erickson, F. (1982), Audiovisual records as a primary data source, *Sociological Methods and Research*, 11(2), 213-232.
- Færch, C. & Kasper, G. (1980), Processes and Strategies in Foreign Language Learning and Communication, *Interlanguage Studies Bulletin*, 4, 47-118.
- Florez, M. C. (1999), Improving Adult English Language Learners' Speaking Skills, Online documents at URL <http://www.ericdigests.org/2000-3/adult.htm> [20.09.2005]
- Flyman, A. (1997), Communication strategies in French as a foreign language, *Working Papers* 46, 57-73.
- Flyman-Mattsson, A. & Burenhult, N. (1999), Code-switching in second Language teaching of French, *Working Papers* 47, 59-72.
- Gabrielatos, C. (2004), Teaching Communication and Interaction Strategies: An action research project with Greek teenagers at intermediate level, Online documents at URL <http://www.gabrielatos.com/Project.htm> [04.11.2004]
- Genç, B. & Bada, E. (2006), Oral Narrative Discourse of Anaphoric References of Turkish EFL Learners, *The Reading Matrix* 6 (2), 135-143.
- Grimshaw, A. D. (1982), Sound-image data records for research on social interaction: Some questions and answers, *Sociological Methods and Research* 2(2), 121-144.

- Han, Z. (2004), Fossilization: five central issues, *International Journal of Applied Linguistics* 14 (2), 212-242.
- Hawthorn, J. (1992), *A Concise Glossary of Contemporary Literary Theory*, New York: Routledge.
- Imer, K. (1980), Toplumsal Dilbilim, In *Dilbilim ve Dilbilgisi Konuşmaları I*. Ankara: Türk Dil Kurumu Yayınları.
- Jacobson, R. (1960), Closing Statement: Linguistics and Poetics, In Sebeok, Thomas A. (ed.), *Style in Language*. Cambridge, Mass: The Technology Press/MIT & New York: John Wiley
- Kocoglu, Z. (1997), The Role of Gender on Communication Strategy Use, Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, Orlando.
- Konishi, K. & Tarone, E. (2004), English Constructions Used in Compensatory Strategies: Baseline Data for communicative EFL instruction, In Boxer, D. & Cohen, A. D. (Eds.). *Studying speaking to inform second language learning*. Clevedon, England: Multilingual Matters.
- Kormos, J. (1999), Monitoring and Self-repair in L2, *Language Learning* 49 (2), 303-342.
- Labov, W. (1972), *Sociolinguistic Patterns*, Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press.
- Lemke, J. L. (1998), Analysing Verbal Data: Principles, Methods, and Problems, In K. Tobin & B. Fraser (Eds). *International Handbook of Science Education*, 1175-1189. Dordrecht, The Netherlands: Kluwer Academic Publishers
- Lessard-Clouston, M. (1997), Language Learning Strategies: An Overview for L2 Teachers, *The Internet TESL Journal* 3 (12). Online documents at URL <http://iteslj.org/Articles/Lessard-Clouston-Strategy.html> [20.04.2005]
- Leydesdorff, L. (2000), Luhmann, Habermas and The Theory of Communication, *Systems Research and Behavioral Science* 17 (3), 273-288.
- Lickley, R.J. (1994), Detecting Disfluency in Spontaneous Speech, Doctoral Dissertation, University of Edinburgh.
- Little, D. (2005), Strategies in language learning and teaching: some introductory reflections, Online documents at URL <http://www.cilt.org.uk/research/resfor1/little.htm> [01.05.2005]

- Littlemore, J. (2003), The Communicative Effectiveness of different types of communication strategy, *System* 31 (3), 331-347.
- Major, R. C. (1998), Interlanguage Phonetics and Phonology: An Introduction. *SSLA* 20 (2), 131-137.
- Manchon, R. M. (2000), Fostering the autonomous use of communication strategies in the foreign language classroom, *Links & Letters* 7, 13-27.
- Oxford, R.L. (1990), *Language learning strategies: What every teacher should know*, Boston: Heinle & Heinle.
- Paribakht, T. (1985), Strategic competence and language proficiency, *Applied Linguistics*, 6, 132-146.
- Paton, M. Q. (2002), *Qualitative Research & Evaluation Methods*, Thousand Oaks: Sage Publication.
- Poulisse, N., Bongaerts, T., Kellerman, E. (1990), *The Use of Compensatory Strategies by Dutch Learners of English*, Dordrecht: Foris Publications.
- Quirk, R., Greenbaum, S. (1985), *A University Grammar of English*, Essex: Longman.
- Rabab'ah, G. A. (2004), Message Transmission and Comprehension of Arab Learners of English in Jordan, *Language in India* 4 (2). Online documents at URL <http://www.languageinindia.com/feb2004/message.html> [19.12.2004]
- Rajendran, S. (2006), Syntax and semantics of Verbs of Communication in English and Tamil, *Language in India* 6, 1-73.
- Ridgeway, T. (1999), Listening Strategies-I beg your pardon? *ELT Journal* 54 (2), 179-185.
- Rieger, C. I. (2003), Repetitions as self-repair strategies in English and German conversations, *Journal of Pragmatics* 35, 47-69
- Robillard, J. (2005), Philosophy of Communication: What does It Have to Do with Philosophy of Social Sciences, *Cosmos and History: The Journal of Natural and Social Philosophy* 1 (2), 245-260.
- Rossiter, M. J. (2003), 'It's Like Chicken but Bigger': Effects of Communication Strategy Instruction in the ESL Classroom, *The Canadian Modern Language Review* 60 (2), 105-121.
- Selinker, L. (1972), Interlanguage, *International Review of Applied Linguistics (IRAL)* 10 (3), 209-231.
- Selinker, L., & Douglas, D. (1985), Wrestling with "context" in interlanguage theory, *Applied Linguistics* 6, 190-204.

- Selinker, L., & Douglas, D. (1987), The problem of comparing “episodes” in discourse domains in interlanguage studies, *Proceedings of the Third Eastern States Conference on Linguistics* (pp.467-478). Columbus, OH: Ohio State Press.
- Selinker, L., & Douglas, D. (1989), Research methodology in contextually-based second language research, *Second Language Research* 5, 93-126.
- Sharwood Smith, M. (1994), *Second Language Learning, Theoretical Foundations*. London & New York.
- Smith, N. (1999), *Chomsky: Ideas and Ideals*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Smith, R., Heuerman, M., Wilson, B. M., Proctor, A. (2003), Analysis of normal discourse patterns, *Brain and Cognition* 53, 368-371.
- Tarone, E. (1980), Communication Strategies, Foreigner Talk, and Repair in Interlanguage, *Language Learning* 30 (2), 417-431.
- Tarone, E. (1983). Some thoughts on the notion of “communication strategy.” In C. Faerch & G. Kasper (Eds.), *Strategies in interlanguage communication*, 61-74. London: Longman.
- Tarone, E., Cohen, A. D., Dumas, G. (1983), Some thoughts on the notion of “communication strategy.” In C. Faerch & G. Kasper (Eds.), *Strategies in interlanguage communication*, 4-14. London: Longman.
- Watanabe, K. & Gappa, A. (2005), Types of Communication Strategies Used by Japanese learners of English, Online documents at URL <http://www.nara-edu.ac.jp/CERT/bulletin2004/cerd-bul.2004.htm> [18.03.2005]
- Whyte, S. (1994), Acquisition in Context: The Discourse Domain Hypothesis in Interlanguage Variation, *Pragmatics and Language Learning* 5, 289-315.
- Willems, G. M. (1987), Communication strategies and their significance in foreign language teaching, *System*, 15 (3), 351-364.
- Wongsawang, P. (2001), Culture-specific Notions in L2 Communication Strategies, Online documents at URL [http://www.hawaii.edu/sls/uhwpsl/19\(2\)/Wongsawang.pdf](http://www.hawaii.edu/sls/uhwpsl/19(2)/Wongsawang.pdf) [01.04.2005]
- Yule, G. (1997), *Referential Communication Tasks*, Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

APPENDIX I

EXTRACT FROM TRANSCRIPTS OF THE DISCUSSION ON *THE CAT IN THE HAT*

Group 1

(ST11, ST12, ST13, ST14)

ST14: We want to discuss the plot.

ST12: The setting is in a town. And the family, the characters.. And the family is in this town.

ST11: The town is very different, has a different structure, childish.

ST14: The family's house I very big and tidy... at the beginning. But the comes but after the cat have comes the house conversing to a hell.

ST13: And the environment of town is different, different trees, different cars and different peoples.

ST14: Cat converse the house into different structure. The house... the house like something like somewhere.. there is different people and different creatures and different... different actions become in the house

ST13: That's all.

ST14: We can discuss the plot but..

ST6: What is the Quinn's reason to get married to Joan?

ST14: Quinn was indebted to somewhere and he hasn't a tidy life. He want to live in a good sit_ in a good situation. So he can he want to get married to Joan. So he can live can live with a in a good situation. He he didn't has a high position in social...

ST11: He doesn't like children, the children. But he behave as if he like the children.

ST14: But at the beginning Konrad don't like the Quinn. He prove proves the Quinn her mother that he isn't a good man.

APPENDIX II

EXTRACT FROM THE TRANSCRIPTS OF THE DISCUSSION ON *OPEN WATER*

Group 1

(ST1, ST2, ST3, ST4, ST5)

ST3: We watched yesterday a film, which is called “Open Water”. It’s about the meeting (?) (wedding?), who are Daniel and Susan, It’s Susan’s story, their struggle in the middle of the sea, They abou_ they stay about one one day in the middle of sea. And they.. there are.. the film shows their struggle with sharks and being alone in the middle of the sea. They go firstly they go a vial_ a holiday village and the their they go their settle place they go dive dive shop then an instructor gives them some instruction to for about how they’ll dive and what they’ll do. And they they wear their special clothes and dive and dive one by one. They go the only they dive at at nine point at nine point forty five for the first time one by one and get out of water for help. But Daniel and Susan are still under the water. And they don’t come out of the water until until ten ten twenty five am. And they they get out of water at ten twenty five pm. And and they think there isn’t nobody there is nobody around. They don’t know what to do and they they still calm peaceful, they don’t get hurry, and they start waiting for a help.

ST4: Ok. I want to firstly talk about the people in here. People’s psychology in film. They had the emotions in here eating fear of eating by sharks. The act_ the people’s the actors’ feeling in here is as far as I can ++ şey

ST2. She and I want to ask you what do you think of the actor’s and actress’ psychology emotions? What would you do if you were in their shoes?

ST4: and they were.. şey....

ST3: In my view I I do the same thing. They they did the right thing. They wait in patient and they they can’t do anything except it I think. I think they did the right thing.

ST1. and I think the woman is right to suicide because if she were stayed (?) after that after a few days or hours she will always remember that event and she will always remember the minutes that she were stri- struggling for life.

ST2. She will remember awful (or her husband's) end (?) it's best to cooperate and not to worry at that time to stay silent

ST5: I think Daniel and Susan are not responsible. They must have dive, they have must have arrived to the ship on time.

ST2. Yes, they have.. it's their own fault because instructor told them at time to get out of water but they were late that's why it's their own fault, I think. But instructor could should also counted the persons who get out of water and who dived. It's both of the teams fault, fifty fifty.

ST3: I think it was the negligence of the instructor. He should counted all the people and we see that there are two men I think and they'll then save Daniel and Susan may be on time.

ST2. If they shoul_ have noticed that they were absent before they could have sail but it was too late too notice that they weren't at the ship. Because the woman suicide.

ST3: For one day it's about for one day they stayed in water.

ST2. When Daniel was eaten by sharks Susan committed suicide because **

ST4: I think their message in the film is of how to how to the people in that is waiting for rescue but as time go they are they lost their hope. And a_ affair is come out.

ST2: Once they lost their temper they start quarrelling but soon as they start they think positively and they start get on each other well.

ST1. But in the film real sharks are used. I think it necessit__. It was really great courage to

ST2. Yes it was

ST1. to play in that film.

ST2. And it was given a thought to us through this.

ST3: I think then Daniel and Susan was really courageous people. They stay peaceful (remain calm) for one day and they didn't move their their..

ST2. Lose their temper

ST3: lose their temper. I think it's***

ST5: I think there is no importance for life at the.. when you lost your loved ones.

ST2. They were neglected persons.

APPENDIX III

EXTRACT FROM THE TRANSCRIPTS OF THE DISCUSSION ON *THE LION KING*

Group 1

(ST11, ST12, ST13, ST14)

ST11: The film (??) is in forest. And and the forest is magnificent, attractive and there was a kingdom of the lion. The lion.. the animals all the animals respected the lion because the lion is the king. Especially song was very attractive, songs were very attractive and effective. There there were a lot of animals, we know because there is a forest.

ST13: I want to explain the characters. ++ samba is the litt_ little little lion. He will be king after his after. His father's name is the lion king is Mufassa. He's very strong and power. He he govern his kingdom very well. And all of his king_ .. people in his kingdom respect him. And his brother, king brother king's brother Oscar (in a hesitant tone),

ST17: Scar,

ST13: Scar . he is a.. he is not king and he wants to be king, so he try every everyway to be a king. Also, moreover he wants to kill his brother and his little son, his little son.

ST14: I want to summarize the plot. The film *King Lion King* is focus o an lion kingdom. The family of has a little lion and this lion will be a king after his death. Bu his uncle Scar pretends to like him and he want to.. his real goal is to become king. And taking his father and little Simba's place. For this he pretend to like him and he direct him for track (Scar plays trick on Simba). And he one day send Simba in a mess of Antelope (herd of antelope) and call his brother to save him and the lion king tries to save his son from a mess of Antelope (herd of antelope). He sav_ saved his son and the his brother Scar Scar don't help him and plund plundered (push) lion king into mess of antelope and he died. Simba get got very upset and Scar sent the animals under his cont_ control to kill the Simba and the hyenas can't kill the Simba and Simba one day grew up and the monkey show his dead.. his father lion king was living in his inside.

And Simba go to take his revenge from his uncle and he kill his uncle and he saved his kingdom and they continue to live happily.

ST11: In the film the animal each animal all animals represent a characteristics a person characteristics. The father the king represent represents the helper characteristics... .

ST13: A good man

ST11: A good man the Simbad Simba Simba is represents a shy, little characteristics. He believes everything whoever says. And the Scar Scar is represent the evil, I think. And he trick everybody.

ST12: At first I want to say I didn't like the film so much because I didn't find it interesting and attractive. And all the same I think it includes some messages and we should take lessons from this. For example I can understand from the film that good people always win in the end and bad people always lose. For example Scar and Simba... Scar is an evil animal, an evil lion. He thought killed Simba's father and also tried to kill Simba. But in the end he lost and Simba became the king. Also another message I think we shouldn't everyone easily. That's all.

ST6: How did Nola and monkey persuade Simba to be king?

ST14: Monkey showed him that his father was the real king his inside and he want from him to save his kingdom. And he take he take revenge from his uncle.

ST9: At first why do you think Simba doesn't want didn't want to go to hometown and be the king?

ST13: Because he think that he killed her father his father but actually he didn't done this, her uncle his uncle killed his father so he felt that he responsible for his father's death.

ST14: And he think that it's the time of revenge.

ST19: While Simba's father was dying because of other animals was there any solution to be done?

ST13: Can you repeat?

ST19: While Simba's father was dying because of other animals was there any solution?

ST14: Yes. His brother Scar can cave him from mess of antelope. But his real goal is to kill him, he can't he don't help him. I want to ask some question about plot? What do you think about people's take_ people's take lesson from this plot?

ST1: It's what you have talked, tell us.

ST14: I ask your thinks

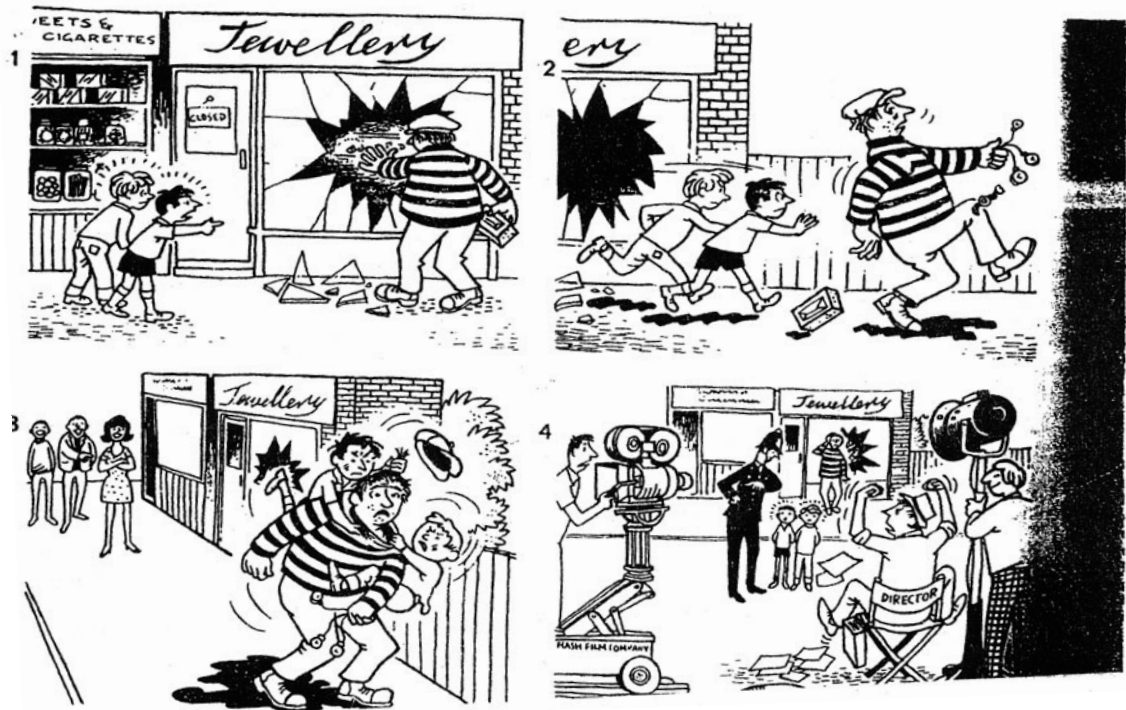
ST1: But you are there to tell us.

ST7: We want to learn your thoughts.

ST14: Yes and I want to give some message about this plot. Goods every time take their right but benefits of people can change his ideas about even his family and brother. And but goods every time takes his right but it is great or not.

ST11: In brief you shouldn't trust even your uncle.

APPENDIX IV

COMIC STRIP WATANABE AND GAPPA (2005) USED IN THEIR
STUDY

CURRICULUM VITAE

Name & Surname : Bilal GENÇ
 Date of Birth : 14.03.1975
 Place of Birth : Kayseri /TURKEY
 Address (work) : Çukurova University Education Fac. Balcalı /Ad-TURKEY
 Institution : ELT Department Education Fac, Çukurova University,
 Adana/TUREY
 Telephone : + 90 (322) 338 6084-2793
 e-mail: : billgenc@gmail.com
 Title : Research Assistant

ACADEMIC STUDIES

Date	Institute	Degree
August, 2007	Çukurova University The Institute of Social Sciences, ELT Dept.	Ph. D.
May, 2003	Erciyes University The Institute of Social Sciences	MA
July, 2000	Erciyes University	BA (English Language and Literature Department)

WORK EXPERIENCE

2003-	Research Assistant at Cukurova University Faculty of Education, English Language Teaching Department
2001-2003	Research Assistant at Erciyes University, Faculty of Arts and Letters, English Language and Literature Department
2000-2001	English Teacher at National Education Ministry

PAPERS PUBLISHED IN REFEREED JOURNALS

1. Genç, B. (2004). The Nature of Reflective Thinking and Its Implications for In-service Teacher Education. *Çukurova University Journal of Social Sciences* 13 (1), 235-243.
2. Genç, B. (2004). New Trends in Teaching And Learning Vocabulary. *Çukurova University Journal of Social Sciences* 13 (2), 117-126.
3. Genç, B. & Bada, E. (2005). Culture in Language Learning And Teaching. *The Reading Matrix* 5 (1), 73-84.
4. Genç, B. & Bada, E. (2006). Oral Narrative Discourse of Anaphoric References of Turkish EFL Learners. *The Reading Matrix* 6 (2), 135-143.
5. Bada, E. & Genç, B. (2007). An Investigation into the Tense/Aspect Preferences of Turkish Speakers of English and Native English Speakers in Their Oral Narration. *The Reading Matrix* 7 (1), 141-150.

PAPER PRESENTATIONS and WORKSHOPS

1. Genç, B. & Durak, S. (2005). Cultural Content And Reading Proficiency: A Comparison Of Second Year Student Teachers Of English With High And Average Grades. The 3rd International Postgraduate Conference in Linguistics and Language Teaching, Adana 20-21 October 2005.
2. Genç, B. & Bada, E. (2006). Situations and Options in Classroom Management: interventionism, non-interventionism or interactionism? The 2nd International English Language Teaching Conference, Famagusta, North Cyprus 02-05 May 2006.
3. Genç, B., Bada, E., Özkan, Y. (2007). Individual-Based Grammar Instruction. The First International ELT Conference: Current Issues in Language Teaching, Mersin 17-18 May 2007.